SYNTACTIC ERRORS AND THE APPLICATION OF RULES OF
GRAMMAR - A STUDY IN CONTRASTIVE SYNTAX OF
ENGLISH AND PERSIAN

ABSTRACT

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The Abstract

Resorting to erroneous and deviant forms is an inevitable part of the process of second language development and these errors, by providing feedback, can be quantified and judged in the total assessment of the learners' linguistic competence. Moreover, the deviations from the norms of the second language (L2) bear many pedagogical and theoretical implications for the researchers, language teachers, and material designers. Contrastive and error analysis in the course of their development and as two interrelated disciplines have assisted the analysts in a few ways, one of which is investigating and analyzing the sources of the syntactic errors which are regularly and systematically committed by L2 learners. These disciplines have to concern themselves with the applied goal of correcting and eradicating the learners' errors, the systematic study of which gives valuable indications of language learning strategies and hypothesis. The systematic analysis and classification of errors can be of great application in error prediction which is of big importance and utility to language teachers.

One major goal of the present study is analyzing the developmental and interference syntactic error patterns of the Iranian adult learners of English and their application of the rules of grammar and syntax in the light of the errors
which are seen to recur regularly and frequently in their compositions. The study tries to shed light on how a contrastive analysis of the syntactic structure of English and Persian can contribute to the eradication of the learners’ syntactic errors. As the main concern of the study is to find suitable answers to the following questions:

1. What are the major causes of the syntactic errors which Persian English learners (PELs) produce in their compositions?
2. How can a contrastive analysis of the syntactic structure of the two languages, here Persian and English, in the light of the collected errors contribute to the eradication of the learners’ problems?
3. What is the significance of the errors which are frequently repeated by these learners, and how can these errors assist the researchers to seek solutions to eradicate them?
4. What can be the assumed sources of these deviations and how the relevant sources can assist the researcher to make hypothesis about the learners’ linguistic input?
5. What are the major sources which have a deep impact on the learners’ performance?
6. To what extent does the avoidance hypothesis work out in the process of the acquisition of the syntactic structure of L2 and how does this phenomenon affect error types and their frequency of occurrence?
7. To what extent can the sources of the errors help the researcher to find solutions for the elimination of the most frequently repeated errors?

To come to some hypothesis and to seek plausible answers to these questions, the study employed some techniques and procedures. As the preliminary step in chapter one, the problem and the purpose of the study are stated. Before everything else, some fundamental questions have been raised regarding the relevance of writing and its importance in the educational system of Iran and the
major causes of syntactic errors committed in writing which the language learners bring with them up to higher levels.

**Chapter two** presents an overview of the educational system of Iran focusing upon certain specific problems related to the teaching and learning English as a second language. It moreover discusses some historical and curricular considerations which are related to the present study and finally tries to arrive at certain conclusions. In this section the major problems with which this system struggles have been brought into view. This is helpful as the readers will become aware of the setting in which the problems occur and the context in which the learners have to learn their L2.

The **third chapter** is devoted to the study of the related literature belonging to various areas including contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA). To this purpose, the conducted studies, the ideas, and the viewpoints from past to present, are dealt with in depth. In this respect, some fundamental issues related to the field are also brought into discussion. These issues build up the points such as structuralism and its contribution to pedagogy, versions of CA and their pitfalls, the notions of approximative system, idiosyncracy and interlanguage and its relevance to fossilization, systematicity and its relevance to CA, markedness differential hypothesis, the relationship between CA and Universal Grammar, and finally the drawbacks of CA. Furthermore, the CAH and its contribution to pedagogy is also considered. In the final part, the simplification and ignorance hypothesis are dealt with. Because of the disadvantages of CA, the study sets to introduce EA as a solution and concentrates on the theoretical and pedagogical assumptions of EA. In fact the study has greatly benefited from all the existing theories belonging to this area. To this goal, some theoretical assumptions such as the notion of an error and a mistake and their differences, the known sources of errors, and the problems that are associated with this classification, and finally the criticism of EAH are brought under scrutiny. In the final part of this chapter, the avoidance hypothesis as a hurdle that blocks the
avoidance hypothesis as a hurdle that blocks the possibility of achieving valid data and the studies related to this field are discussed comprehensively.

Chapter four which builds up the main body of the study modifies the main techniques and procedures having been employed by the researcher throughout the study. To fulfill the main objectives of the study, 103 Iranian L2 learners of English were invited to participate in the experiment for course credit at Islamic Azad University, in Kerman, Iran. As the next step, the researcher used three main techniques to pursue the study: 1) administering Oxford Placement Test, 2) applying a grammaticality judgment test and 3) the most important step which was collecting the subjects' compositions, analysing them and gathering the most repeated errors.

As the first step, The Oxford Placement Test was administered to determine the characteristics of the subjects. The specification thus made helps the researcher to determine the age, sex, and the proficiency level of the subjects. Based on the data collected, the mean square of the test becomes 55.14 with a standard deviation of 8.7 and variance of 75.63. The relevant reliability of the test is calculated to be 0.679 according to Kurdar and Richardson KR-21 method.

The next step is administering a grammaticality judgment test (GJT). It is believed that the GJT can tap the subjects' interlanguage by asking them to determine whether a sentence is grammatically correct or not. The extent to which they fulfill this goal can reveal their linguistic competence. Any difficulty to fulfill this activity is an indication of the learners' failure to work out the language. The test, made up of 40 sentences, 11 sentences containing only interlingual errors, 6 sentences containing intralingual errors, 20 items containing bi-source errors, and finally 3 correct ones, were selected from the erroneous sentences the subjects had produced in their compositions. The outcomes revealed some facts about the subjects' linguistic input and the ability to differentiate mono- and bi-source errors. The difference between the two types of correct and incorrect responses to inter-, intra-, and bi source errors are significant at the 5% level with the tabulated value
of 6.58 at 2 degree of freedom. In other words, it was proved that the learners are far more successful in identifying the errors belonging to the mono-source errors compared with the errors belonging to bi-sources. This indicates that the subjects have difficulty identifying the errors pertaining to bi sources; therefore, it is plausible to conclude that they are hard to eradicate. Meanwhile, the exceptionally low frequency of some items in some areas suggests that the learners have serious difficulties with them. For example, 1.9 percent of the correct recognition of the 'passive' misuse or 5.8 percent of the 'article' misuse indicates that the learners have serious problems with these items.

The next important step, or the error analysis processes, was to investigate the essential role of the errors that the subjects had committed in their compositions. In chapter five, the researcher presents the results of the analyses of around 200 writing samples belonging to the subjects produced at two intervals on the suggested topics. Later on, all the committed errors were extracted and classified under certain categories and then the relevant frequencies were prepared. The errors with very small numbers were excluded. The next step was interpreting the errors and looking for their assumed sources. The main approach that the study follows was moving from error analysis to contrastive analysis. In other words, after collecting the committed errors, in order to interpret the possible sources, the researcher resorts to CA to locate the L1 sources. The priority was given to the errors with bi-sources. On the whole, the analysis attempts to present two major implications. The sources of the errors with the highest frequency can be attributed to the bi-source errors; for example, most errors of 'prepositions' and 'agreement' and almost all errors of 'article' misuse pertain to both sources: inter-and intra-. Persian lacks any overt, syntactic constituent to correspond with the English article system, and therefore, interference is possible to occur, and on the other hand, a large number of inconsistencies in the English 'article' system can cause confusion, and as a result analogy is plausible to happen. On the whole, the study strongly makes the assumption that rule inconsistency can be one major
source of the analogy of L2 rules, and on the other hand, the absence of one item in learners L2 may cause interference and this is assumed to be one plausible interpretation for the transfer of L1 rules into L2. However, the assumed sources of some of the errors with the lowest number of frequency can be traced back to bi-source errors as the learners prefer to escape from producing them and therefore, they decrease drastically in number. They include the items like 'auxiliaries', 'adverb clauses', 'participles', 'gerunds' and 'infinitives'.

Chapter six concentrates on the major findings of the GJT and the error analysis processes. The findings belonging to four major areas, i.e., articles, prepositions, agreement, and adjective misuse are first of all discussed as these are the areas with the most possible deviations which may pertain to bi-source errors and, moreover, they contain the large number of exceptions in the English grammar rules and consequently a large number of errors emerge as a result of rule inconsistency in the L2.

Another important assumption is the marked fluctuation which exists among the error frequencies. In the same manner, deep variability of the errors proves that locating definite sources of errors and speaking about them with a hundred percent certainty is not logical, nor is it possible to locate the causes feasibly because there are a large number of factors involved which can fundamentally leave their unpredictable effects on the learners' behaviour and their linguistic output. Some of these factors are the cases such as the training effect, ignorance, avoidance, teaching methods and strategies, the assigned textbooks, the needs, motivation, age and above all the level of the learners, and many others which can influence the learners' performance.

It is later on discussed that the concept of "difference", as the strong version of CA claims, does not necessarily mean "difficulty" in every area, and this assumption has been partially falsified, as some exceptions have been observed. It is, additionally, discussed that the role of avoidance hypothesis is so deep in studies
like this that to draw reliable data and to attribute valid conclusions to them is
difficult.

Furthermore, the function of avoidance hypothesis is carefully studied at
this stage and some conclusions are drawn. For example, it is proved that the
traces of escape can be observed in three different forms: when there is total
deletion of some items; when there is partial deletion, and finally when there is no
possibility to avoid any items. The first type of avoidance happens when the
difficulty of some linguistic forms has been proved experimentally, and the
tendency to avoid these structures increases proportionally with the possibility of
committing mistakes by the learners. The learners resort to complete avoidance
when they feel that the form they are going to use is both different from that of
their L1 and is assumed to be complicated and therefore escape seems to be
inevitable. A careful analysis of the learners' compositions proved that the learners
have revealed their tendency not to use some structures like noun clauses in subject
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and object and possessive adjective clauses. On the other hand, a large number of
deletions among articles and prepositions reveal that there is also an attempt to
partially escape from producing the items with which the learners have difficulty.
Finally and in the same manner, the subjects resort to partial escape as deleting
some of the constituents of the sentences does not highly violate the fundamental
rules of the sentences they are handling. It means that they can escape from using
only those function words which play a syntactic and not a semantic role in a
sentence. It can, therefore, be concluded that escape from some content words
occurs cautiously but almost frequently and this exposure causes the subjects to
produce the most possible and inevitable errors in these areas. Almost all errors of
nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are instances of the cases where the learners
have not been able to resort to avoidance.

The next part of this chapter offers some suggestions for further study
and research work based on the limitations and findings of the present study. The
suggestion made in this part can help the researchers to project their viewpoints toward CA and EA approaches and theories. In fact, the findings arrived at in this study, like those of other studies, have been viewed in accordance with the limitations which the study has imposed upon itself. For example, as a cross-sectional study, the present study suffers from some limitations, and to generalize the results to longitudinal studies does not seem to be plausible.

The reference section, is made up of five appendices. In appendix one, we can see a bibliographical presentation of all the references having been used throughout the study. Appendix II presents a selection of subjects’ original writing samples. They can help the readers to have access to the context in which the errors have occurred, the subjects’ linguistic level, the most important difficulties with which the subjects have been struggling, and the most important ‘avoided’ items. Appendix III is a collection of sentences containing the errors having been gathered for analysis and interpretation. The sentences here can be considered as a partial context for the readers. In Appendix four a sample of a GJT has been brought, and in the final part of the study, appendix five, the Oxford Placement Test has been presented.
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I. Introduction

A. The Statement of the Problem

Teaching and learning English have always been a vital part of the educational system of Iran. During the past two decades, the demand for graduates with an acceptable mastery of English has rapidly accelerated, and in parallel with these efforts, the need for proficient experts in this field is felt more than before. As one of the solutions, English language courses with a variety of objectives were established so as for the graduates to pursue the given objectives belonging to the field. However, the graduates of these courses so far have obtained only partially the qualification to fill the gap. These learners have revealed their weaknesses in using English in general and in some of the language skills in particular. One of these skills, having already achieved its importance in Iran, is writing and the areas belonging to it. For two major reasons, the Persian English learners (PELs) have failed to come to a reasonable level of proficiency in this area. The first is that writing appears to be the most difficult skill to master, and the second is overcoming the intervening hurdles that have active inhibiting roles which block the learner's progress in diverse ways. These factors, having already been significant to the researchers and language teachers are the main goal of some research work in Iran in order to facilitate the acquisition of writing. Besides, the data is suggestive enough to confirm the fact that the rate of success in writing skill
is lower than in other skills although the learners' partial success does not equally mean mastery of the skill to the extent that they obtain the ability to apply it for utilitarian purposes. In other words, class activities, if there are any, do not always provide the learners with sufficient ability to use their knowledge for a practical purpose. It is even plausible to claim that writing is one of the most unpopular and forgotten skills from which both the teachers and the students escape. This subject has lost its relevance and importance most specifically at high school and to a lesser degree as a major subject at universities. There are some reasons which give rise to the establishment of a negative attitude towards this skill and its subsequent abolition:

1. Teaching writing and practicing it have been formally excluded from the high school curriculum. Additionally, language teachers refrain from teaching it even at sentence level. The learners, thus, having little notion of writing, enter universities. In their new situation, they have to struggle with serious difficulties related to this area. However, the new situation and the given time is too limited for them to struggle to compensate for what they have failed to achieve before.

2. Besides, language teachers do not show any explicit inclination to apply the techniques and procedures which may lead their learners to the mastery of the skill. One plausible interpretation is that the teachers themselves suffer from this deficiency, and they can not provide the required motivation for their learners to approach writing more positively.

3. The assigned textbooks at high school level have given no or little attention to the practice of writing, and contrary to other language skills, which have relatively been emphasized, writing has perfectly been disregarded. Spelling as a sub-component of writing is the only area which is minimally presented.

4. Another likely reason is the over-application and popularity of discrete-point tests, especially multiple-choice test forms which are actively used at various levels and for different purposes. These testing devices, having been introduced by structuralists and developed by the proponents of audiolingualism, suffer
from two major pitfalls: they encourage meaninglessness and de-contextuality\textsuperscript{1}. Furthermore, audiolingualism gives maximum attention to oral skills and the minimum to writing ones and consequently in a situation like this, the elimination of writing seems plausible.

5. However, when these learners finally set to writing, they inevitably produce various types and numbers of deviant syntactic errors as a result of violating invariably the rules of the English grammar and syntax. The causes of these deviations can be attributed to different sources. On the one hand, they have to suffer from the problem of the transfer of the L2 grammar and syntactic rules, and on the other hand, they have to struggle with the errors produced as a result of the negative interference of their L1 rules. Meanwhile, as it has been observed, the latter causes influence PELs more deeply and effectively because the syntactic errors which they commit is clearly a reflection of the Persian grammar with almost the same consistency. There are other traceable obstacles such as the teaching techniques, the teaching effects, ignorance, avoidance, etc. which any of them in turn has its own contribution to make the acquisition of writing an insurmountable task.

The primary concern of this study is to scrutinize the causes of the problems that PELs have to deal with in their attempt to overcome this obstacle and the areas of this skill. These problems, their causes, and their assumed sources will be discussed and brought into focus by analyzing the collected deviant forms extracted from the learners' writings.

B. Purpose of the Study

One of the areas of trouble for PELs is committing different and frequent types of syntactic errors in their compositions. In fact, resorting to errors is an inevitable part of the process of second language development, and they can be quantified and used in the total assessment of linguistic competence. In other

words, if a regular pattern of errors could be observed in the performance of all the learners in a situation, and if a learner was seen to progress through this pattern, his errors should be taken as evidence not of failure, but of success and achievement in learning. One major objective of the study is to benefit from these deviations of the L2 rules by shedding light on the approximative sources of the errors. The study is an attempt to analyze developmental and interference syntactic error patterns of Iranian adult learners of English and their misapplication of the rules of grammar in the light of their invariable errors which are seen to repeat regularly and frequently in their compositions. The study wants to reveal how a contrastive analysis of the syntactic structure of the two languages, here Persian and English, in the light of the collected errors which are more frequently repeated, can contribute to the eradication of the learners’ problems in their attempt to master English.

Meanwhile, the study, in its development, is going to follow the steps below and restrict itself to them.

1. The primary step is to collect the syntactic errors of the PELs by analyzing their compositions. The data provided in this way represent a corpus of erroneous forms at sentence level, the context of which, the original writings are available for any reference. In fact the errors can be analyzed morphosyntactically on the basis of the contextual application of the rules of English grammar in the learners’ compositions.

2. The next step is the categorization of the collected errors. As the researcher anticipates that the L2 learners resort to producing a large number of syntactic errors by misapplying the L2 grammar rules. This requires the researcher to classify the errors into more concrete categories and prepare them for feasible analysis and interpretation.

3. As the major objective of the study, the third step, is working on the classified syntactic errors in order to identify the possible sources of deviant English grammar rules. Up to now, in the course of contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA), two dominant sources have been identified and
introduced for syntactic errors: inter-lingual and intra-lingual. The study, as a further source, and in the light of the syntactic errors extracted from the learners’ compositions is trying to introduce a third source into the field of error analysis, i.e., bi-source errors, or those deviant forms, the sources of which may pertain to both L1 and L2. For example, as it has been observed, PELs commit a large number of errors in applying the third-person singular -s. Deleting -s, as it has been observed, has been regularly repeated at all levels, even by advanced learners. In other words, it is likely to assume that this persistent error is not easily possible to overcome because there are two intervening sources which are the major causes of confusion and deviation. On the one hand, Persian does not use the suffix -s to signal a certain person, tense or aspect, and on the other hand, using this item with the third person singular is an exception in English grammar system. In other words, the grammar rules for using third person -s is inconsistent and this inconsistency causes the learners to resort to the nearest and the most available form to substitute for it. This is presumably a logical and possible interpretation for most bi-source errors, and the study aims at identifying, classifying, and interpreting them.

Consequently, the study will try to bear significant applications both theoretically and pedagogically. By contrasting the syntactic structure of Persian and English, the study will try to anticipate the major difficulties of Iranian language learners in their attempt to learn writing English, the difficulties which are traceable to some sources, the most important of which can be labeled as the interference of the learners’ L1 and L2 and their developmental errors. The study can further assist both the teacher and the learner to facilitate the teaching-learning procedures by formulating certain hypothesis based on the results of the study in order to suggest valid and reliable ways of overcoming learner’s writing difficulties. The study can additionally bear some practical implications for the teacher as he will know how to begin teaching, where to emphasize, and how to proceed. In the same
manner, the results of the study may contribute material designers to develop
the most suitable textbooks with necessary emphasis, additional exercises,
and the logical mode of presentation and organization. Moreover, test
designers can usefully benefit from the fruitful implications of the study to
incorporate the most appropriate focus on certain items of the language.

4. As the by-product of the study is investigating the avoidance hypothesis
which is an extremely prevailing phenomenon employed by PELs in order to
escape from those syntactic structures which are assumed to be difficult and
problematic for these learners. In fact, most language learners, specially
beginning and intermediate students, do not take the risk of using those
language forms which might send them to committing errors of different
types. In other words, learners prefer to escape from applying some language
forms either syntactic, phonological, or morphological which may cause
them to produce erroneous forms. As a result, the final product is too simple
to be able to handle the complicated and sophisticated ideas.

To make the point clear, the list below demonstrates an approximate indication of
the syntactic items avoided most frequently by learners:

One. Adjective clauses with of-which patterns
Two. Object Adjective clauses
Three. Connected clauses and phrases
Four. Present and past perfect tenses
Five. Present and past participles as modifiers
Six. Reduced adjective and adverb clauses
Seven. Deletion of relative pronouns
Eight. Passive participles and infinitive phrases

When these items are frequently neglected by learners of English, their
composition will lose its authenticity and look like a piece of work which is simple
in form and loose in content. The learners will show their failure to clearly express
their ideas and be explicit in their expressions. The study will, moreover, quantify
these avoided items, introduce them, and as an ultimate step, explore the main causes of escape among them.

C. Definition of Important Terms

**Asterisk (\*)**: Designates an unacceptable word or sentence. This is placed before the word or sentences which is supposed to be incorrect.

**Approximative System**: This is the language or system which is used by second language learner in the process of learning a second language.

**Bilingual Acquisition**: The acquisition of two languages simultaneously

**Bi-source Errors**: They are the errors, the source of which are both L1 and L2 like the incorrect use of article *the* for Persian learners of English.

**Developmental Error**: Errors which do not derive from transfer of another language and they reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition.

**Error Analysis**: The study and analysis of errors made by second language learners.

**Error**: The use of a linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.

**Fossilization**: A process which sometimes occurs in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language.

**Interference**: The use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language.

**Interlanguage**: The type of language produced by second- and foreign-language learners who are in the process of language learning.

**Interlingual error**: An error which results from language transfer, that is, which is caused by the learner's native language.

**Intralingual error**: An error which results from faulty or partial learning of the target language, rather than from language transfer.

**Language Transfer**: The effect of one language on the learning of another.
**Mistake:** A learner when speaking or writing may make a mistake as a result of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspect of performance.

**Mono-source errors:** They are the errors, the source of which may be either L1 or L2.

**Morphosyntax:** An analysis of language which uses criteria from both morphology and syntax.

**Negative Transfer:** Also known as interference is the use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language.

**Overextension of Analogy:** The misuse of a linguistic item because the item shares features whether phonological, orthographical, semantic, with an item in the native language.

**Positive transfer:** It is the transfer which makes learning a second language easier and may occur when both the native and target language share the same form.

**Second Language Acquisition:** The acquisition of another language after having acquired the basis of the first
### D. List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Contrastive Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAH</td>
<td>Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis</td>
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<tr>
<td>DD</td>
<td>Dictionary Definition</td>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>English Sentence</td>
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<td>EA</td>
<td>Error Analysis</td>
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<td>ED</td>
<td>Deviant English sentence</td>
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<td>ESL</td>
<td>English as a Second Language</td>
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<td>ESP</td>
<td>English for specific purposes</td>
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<td>FDH</td>
<td><em>Fundamental Difference Hypothesis</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>GJT</td>
<td>Grammaticality Judgment test</td>
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<tr>
<td>IL</td>
<td>Interlanguage</td>
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<td>ILs</td>
<td>Interlanguages</td>
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<td>Second language-Target Language</td>
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<td>LL</td>
<td>Language Learner</td>
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<td>Language learners</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDH</td>
<td><em>Markedness Differential Hypothesis</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>MV</td>
<td>Moderate Version</td>
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<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>Native Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Persian sentence</td>
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<td>Persian English Learner</td>
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<td>Persian English Learners</td>
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<td>Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>SV</td>
<td>Strong Version</td>
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<tr>
<td>WV</td>
<td>Weak Version</td>
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<td>UG</td>
<td>Universal Grammar</td>
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### E. Key to phonetic symbols

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<th>Pronunciation</th>
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<td>like</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>?***</td>
<td>as sa?i in Persian</td>
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</table>

* fricative-uvular

** plosive-uvular

*** glottal-plosive

Table 1: Phonetic Symbols
B. Educational System and EFL in Iran

The main objective of the study is investigating one of the problems that higher education in Iran is now struggling with: the problem of the great number of syntactic errors of PELs as a result of their L1 and L2 interference. Meanwhile, to understand the relevance of the study, and its application in this situation, it seems necessary to present an overview of the educational system in Iran. It is believed that learners in general are affected by the system in which they study and the motivation by which they are inspired. Therefore, in this chapter, there is an attempt to show how the educational system in Iran functions, and how the necessary motivation is provided, what are the main pitfalls of the present teaching materials, which language skills are emphasized, and what are the possible consequences of these deficiencies.

A. Educational System in Iran

Iranian students before entering universities follow three major stages of primary education, middle or guidance school education, and finally secondary school education and on the whole, consisting twelve years of study. They begin
their formal education at the age of six by entering primary education. This system is designed to provide preliminary skills and it lasts for five years.

The second period, middle or guidance school education, of three years duration, presents the basics for the learners. The last period of pre-university education in Iran or high school education consists of four years and finally after success in all these periods, the learners are awarded secondary education certificate. English, as one of the major courses, begins in the second year of the guidance school, at the rate of three hours a week and is continued up to the pre-university level. The books being taught at all these different levels contain oral skills through presenting short dialogs, but most of the class time is given to the practice of reading activities and working on linguistic forms. On the whole, there has been an attempt to provide the learners with comprehension-based materials although there is enough evidence to assert that the learners hardly attain the qualification to acquire the skill to read and comprehend English successfully. The tendency to teach basic grammar rules and to provide grammar-based classes is implicitly encouraged. One major area, however, having been ignored, is writing skill although some of the writing sub-skills such as handwriting, spelling, and dictation are partially practiced.

After the introduction of the new educational system in Iran in 1993, the secondary level has been divided into two distinct periods of three years of high school and one year of pre-university period. The goal of this later compulsory period is preparing the students for their university education. However, the content of the books remain the same with a focus on reading activities at the expense of writing. For the next stage, the students who decide to attend universities have to go through the college entrance test. The examination, being a norm-referenced test, consists of discrete-point items measuring the candidates' knowledge exclusively on the subjects having been studied during their high school education. Students who successfully pass the examinations at the end of the pre-university period are awarded the permission to take part in national or private University Entrance Examination. After their success in this examination, which is
both a selection and a competition test mostly including discrete, decontextualized
tests, they become eligible to enter their tertiary program or university education.

At the secondary level, there are three different courses for the learners to
choose: humanities, experimental science, and mathematics, each having been
subdivided into sub-categories. The students, depending on their potential interests
and the marks obtained in the middle school period, are recognized qualified and
then guided into one of these courses. The English knowledge acquired throughout
all these periods does not assist the graduates to use it to fulfil their communicative
needs in any form.

B. Foreign Language Teaching in Iran: Background

Historically, the first European language which was introduced into Iranian
educational system as a foreign language was French. The beginning of foreign
language study as a school subject studied in Iran can be marked by the
establishment of Daroulfonoon, or the house of technology in Tehran, the capital,
in 1848. It was in this great school which was primarily established by the great
patriot prime minister of the time, Amir Kabir, Iranian as well as foreign professors
including British, French, Russian, Italian, and even Austrian taught different
subjects in two languages, i.e. Farsi and French. In addition, the first group of
Iranians sent abroad by the government for their higher education went to French-
speaking countries, i.e., France and Belgium. When these graduates returned
home, French was the only major language they knew, and as a result, it was
introduced into the Iranian institutions where they had to work or teach. The next
activity which was highly influenced by these French speakers was the huge
number of translations from French into Persian and vice versa. The dominance of
French in some areas left definite impact on the social and cultural relationship of
the people. For example a large number of new French words, such as rob-de-
chambre, telephone, lustre, decoration, salloon, balloon, entered into Farsi. These
words are still used widely by Persian speakers with almost French pronunciation.
The fact that English replaced French in Iran and became a subject in the school curriculum is a direct result of British and American imperialism. The discovery of petroleum in the early 1900s had already attracted the attention of the European countries, especially England. In 1909, the Anglo-Persian company (later British petroleum) was founded and southern Iran went under British control. After the second world war, the United States of America began to play a more active role in Iran as part of its world defence and international strategy. This country extended its influence in Iran through some organizations such as US technical cooperative mission. This influence continued until the Islamic Revolution in Iran in 1978. During all this period, English became a popular subject to learn and Iranian government encouraged teaching of English as a language of modernity and prestige. But no national goal or motive was found behind this encouragement. The Iran-American Society and British Council as western cultural centers had branches in different cities and taught English as well as western culture to Iranians at different levels.

Furthermore, some educational centers such as Pahlavi, now Shiraz University, used English as a medium of instruction for all subjects. Teachers were English natives invited to teach various courses.

After the victory of the Islamic revolution, the new regime recognized that the national language should be given its due place and identity. To this purpose, commissions were established in order to find ways to stop the entry of foreign language words into Farsi. As a logical solution, they tried to find suitable equivalents for the existing words as well as for the new entries.

Nevertheless, the commissions were not unmindful of the great importance of English in today’s world. It was felt that through English, the latest knowledge could be acquired and communicated. Despite this view, for a couple of years, no definite national policy could be evolved regarding the place and role of English in Iran. Meanwhile English continued to be taught as a compulsory subject in the middle and high schools as well as in higher education institutions.
In 1981, two years after revolution, a high powered Cultural Revolution Council was set up. The council was supposed to review the situation and after deliberation with the concerned experts and specialists recommended the essential short and long term measures for over-hauling the cultural and educational system. It was keenly felt that the curriculum of different stages of education, then in use, could not fulfil the demands of national goal, meet the requirements of contemporary life, and keep pace with the rapid changes in and outside the country.

The reports of the council included valuable suggestions for the reconstruction of the curriculum and syllabi of different educational stages so as to achieve national Islamic goals.

C. The Goals of Teaching English in Iran

One of the considerations before the Cultural Revolution Council was the assessment of the place of English in the country. The council criticized English language teaching situation in the previous educational system. They felt that there were no clear-cut goals, absence of logical relationship between pre-university and university instruction, and unavailability of suitable English text books. However, it was clear that English is the most widely-used language in today’s world. The council also emphasized that efforts needed to be made to remove the deficiencies in the English language instruction for two main reasons:

1. Developing the ability of using scientific and technological knowledge being accumulated in English books, magazines, and journals to achieve national self-sufficiency in science and technology.

2. In recent times, English has spread so vastly throughout the world that it is now spoken and understood in every corner of the globe. Thus, it can be adequately utilized for cultural exchanges and for the introduction of Islamic-Iranian culture and teachings to the world.
It was then emphasized that all educated Iranian should have a knowledge of English to meet the above mentioned goals².

In the light of the recommendations of the council and the committee for curriculum planning of foreign languages, it was suggested that the study of English should help to extend students' control of the basic language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The elements of these skills should be taught at the pre-university stage. At that time it was recommended that the skills of reading and writing should be given great attention. However, as it has been observed, the latter has never been achieved even partially, and neither have the teaching materials contained any serious presentation and practice of the skill.

As a practical answer to the needs of the country and problems in higher education situation, the council recommended the ESP (English for specific purposes) approach for university level classes. Based on the specific needs of the learners and their level of linguistic proficiency as well as the type of discourse and necessary communicative language functions, three different stages were recognized for teaching English:

Stage 1. A three-credit course at the rate of 4 hours a week, consisting of basic English which has already been taught at the pre-university level. The course is to extend students' control of the four skills with greater emphasis on reading and writing.

Stage 2. A three credit ESP course at the rate of 4 hours a week, providing the students with semi-specialized materials. The reading passages are relevant to the students' general field of study, i.e., medicine, engineering, sciences, etc. and are followed by comprehension and vocabulary exercises.

Stage 3. A two-credit ESP course at the rate of 2 hours a week provides the learners with a wide range of specialized materials in their own

specific academic field. The course is intended to enable the students to read and understand specialized journals in their field independently. The committee has recommended that technical terms and concepts be taught by the professors in the university.\(^3\)

On the recommendation of the council, teachers of language centers and English departments at several universities were invited to cooperate and prepare convenient teaching materials for these stages. They based their work on the specificity of the type of English and related vocabulary that the students need to learn for comprehension of their related literature. Text books for general English and ESP courses were written for arts and science students. After having been used for several semesters, the books were then revised and modified to the extent that they could meet the initial goals and fulfill the requirements of the graduates when they enter the real life and work situation. Nevertheless, there is enough evidence to assert that the educational system has undoubtedly failed to meet these goals. In most situations, the graduates have not achieved the necessary skill to use English for utilitarian purposes. ESP courses do not show any specific success in meeting the learner's needs. Above all, the same level of emphasis is not devoted to all language skills. Reading for comprehension and translation from English to Persian is emphasized over other skills, and due attention is not given to oral skills and writing. Additionally, the graduates of universities obviously complained from their failure to practically use their knowledge of English for different purposes at any given situation. To improve these skills successfully, the teachers and learners can be assisted by different procedures and one of which is benefiting from the principles of constructive studies that is the construction of pedagogical constructive grammar that could be used by largest possible number of people interested in language teaching and learning. They should, nevertheless, be focused on the greatest difficulties in the target language which should be established partly empirically on the basis of our teaching experience and in the light of the errors most frequently produced.

\(^3\) Ibid, P. II
D. ELT Status in Today's Iran

As in many countries, English is currently taught as a foreign language for various objectives and at different levels in Iran. Iranian language learners use Farsi as the official language of communication and the primary language of instruction in the school at all levels. However, as the most dominant foreign language taught in Iranian schooling system, English enjoys a high status in Iran. It starts in the 7th grade at all public schools as a compulsory subject and continues to 12th grade at the average rate of four hours a week. Private schools, however, offer English as early as third grade as an extra curriculum subject.

In addition, English is presented in private language institutes. Here English is taught to different age groups ranging from six year old to the elderly people who study English as a pasttime or for other purposes. Although many private institutes offer English courses at different levels, some have higher demands because of the teaching methodology employed and the native teachers hired here. They have branches in Tehran and many other large cities.

As private enterprises, these institutes tend to meet the demands of their students, the interested learners who can afford their fees. They offer well equipped language laboratories and libraries. Some of these institutes have become very influential in the Iranian ELT situation. Most of the courses they offer at different levels teach the four language skills.

On the other hand, and in parallel with these private institutes, a large number of universities and colleges in Iran also offer some more specialized courses at different levels, i.e., B. A., M. A. and even Ph. D. in English literature, teaching, and in the same way, an equal number of teachers and experts are trained as linguists and translators. The goal of establishing these courses at this broad level is producing the required experts in teaching and linguistics as well as a body of translators needed for international seminars, and other utilitarian purposes. One

significant impact of these courses is the entry of the experts with high proficiency in teaching jobs and designing English materials. Meanwhile, there have always been some fundamental problems with which the educational system as a whole has been struggling and these problems, as it can be observed, have a strong impact on the learners' linguistic knowledge and performance.
III. Review of CA and EA literature

A. Contrastive Analysis Development: a short history

Contrastive and error analysis have made large and in some situations fundamental contribution to the field of language teaching and analysis. They have been applied both theoretically and pedagogically to overcome some basic and meanwhile essential problems of language learning and teaching. In fact, the two schools in their development have greatly assisted linguists to develop their theories, material designers to prepare linguistically based textbooks and materials in order to give a logical hierarchy of presentation to their teaching sequences, and language teachers to give the required emphasis to each part and test makers to recognize the major problems of the given learners and to provide their tests with appropriate content and sequence. For example, CA provides information about the linguistic system of the learners' L1 and their L2, and in the same manner, the similarities and differences of the two systems are illustrated. These are useful to predict some areas of learning difficulties which may prove useful for selecting, ordering, and grading the content of the pedagogical grammar and as a subsequent step to present suitable exercises for each component with appropriate size, shape, and emphasis.

EA in the same manner can contribute in determining the sequence of presentation of L2 items in textbooks and classrooms and identifying the level of
emphasis, explanation, and practice by identifying and classifying L2 learners and locating the plausible sources of errors.

In the following section, the short history of CA and EA, their relevance and development, as well as the drawbacks will be discussed.

Contrastive studies have a very long history. Ziahosseiny has stated that as early as 1000 AD Aelfric wrote his *Grammatica*, a grammar of Latin and English, based on the implicit assumption that “the knowledge of one language may facilitate the learning of another language”. Besides, it is claimed that the systematic study of contrastive analysis (CA) begins in the 15th century, and it is not called so until 1941.

The word “contrast”, as it is stated by Krzeszowski, had not appeared in literature until the end of the 18th century which was first used to indicate the comparison of two languages for pedagogical purposes. Besides, John Hewes in the 17th century was the first to state the idea that the knowledge of the native grammar can not only facilitate learning a foreign language but also interfere with it. His book which was published in 1624 was devoted to a long introductory section to presenting fundamentals of English. However, CA has been developing on a large scale since the late sixties, and in the same way, the interest in contrastive linguistics has grown in Europe since 1980. This can be proved by looking at different journals and publications discussing CA throughout this period.

Contrastive studies are not very recent phenomena. They can be traced back to fifties or even sixties when most published studies were theoretical. Although they did not receive the present name until 1941, it goes back to the last decade of 19th and the beginning of 20th century. J. Rusiecki states that in 1954

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7 Ibid. PP. 1-2.
8 Op Cit, P. 19.
Zellig Harris presented the idea of *transfer grammar* which later on was adopted by others. He holds that the first pedagogical contrastive study of two languages in which the term “contrastive analysis” was used was Robert Stockwell’s *Contrastive Analysis of English and Tagalog*. Banathy et al\(^{10}\) state that a number of studies in order to contrast English with other languages such as German and Spanish have been undertaken by the Center for Applied Linguistics including two English-German studies by Moulton (1962) and Kufner (1962). She, moreover, adds that among some earlier studies, the Belasco series (Cardenas, 1961; Hall, 1961; Magner, 1961; Marchand, 1961; Valdman, 1961) and Politzer’s work (1961) can be mentioned.

Meanwhile, as Rusieck\(^{11}\) states the term “contrastive study” was already used by Hockett (1948) and the term “general contrastive linguistics” was proposed by Trager (1949). On the whole, writers to indicate any type of linguistic comparisons have been applying different terminology to refer to nearly the same discipline. For instance, we can point out to “Bilingual Description (Haugen, 1954); Comparative Analysis of Structural Patterns of the two Languages (Sitachitts, 1955); Interlingual Comparison (Politzer, 1958); Parallel Descriptive Structural Analysis, (Fries, 1959); Syntactic Descriptive Comparisons of Languages (Lado, 1960), and finally Descriptive Comparisons (Catford, 1968). It is moreover claimed that since 1959 the terms “contrastive linguistics” and “contrastive analysis” or “contrastive study” have been proposed, some writers have preferred not to adopt the terms cited above.

The year 1953 is of great importance in the history of contrastive linguistics because of the publication of Uriel Weinreich’s *Language In Context*. He, for the first time, discussed the phenomenon of bilingualism as it is observed in their social contexts where two languages are used. Weinreich in his studies came to the conclusion that “The greater the difference between the two systems, i.e., the more

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\(^{11}\) Op Cit. P.14.
numerous the mutually exclusive forms and patterns in each, the greater is the learning problem and the potential area of influence."

Charles Fries and Robert Lado have been considered as two leading structuralists who have had great impact on developing CAH. Pedagogical contrastive studies may be said to date from 1945, the year of publication of Charles Fries’ *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. It is believed that after Fries, it was R. Lado whose work, *linguistics across cultures* soon became a classic field manual for practical CA. In fact it can be claimed that modern CA starts with Lado and his work and in the same way contrastive linguistics reached maturity in 1957, with the publication of Robert Lado’s source. On the other hand, along with the linguists of his time, Fries subscribed to the behaviorist analysis of linguistic competence as a series of habits. To Fries, native language influence was thus influenced by old habits while some of them potentially helpful and some others harmful. Anthony asserts that Charles Fries, as a strong proponent of audiolingualism has proposed two important premises of structural linguistics as far as the nature of language is concerned: “Language is primarily oral, and language is a system of contrasting structural patterns”

B.F.Skinner, as a pioneer of behavioristic psychology proposed operant and instrumental learning as basics of behaviorism. He adds that verbal behavior exemplifies operant behavior, and that the habits already acquired in first language acquisition tend to interfere with the process of acquiring the target language (TL) habits whenever the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) are in conflict. His psychological conclusions are reflected in the following:

1) Memorization and practice drills are used extensively to establish the new language skills as habits.
2) Materials take into account contrasts between the native language and the foreign language system.

As a consequence of these assumptions about language and language behavior, materials have been provided which above all employ sound linguistic

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description and contrastive analysis to select and order language features to be taught.

Jackson\(^{14}\) believes that the first contrastive studies done in America were on English/German, English/Spanish, and English/Italian and with work on English/French and English/Russian unpublished. He, moreover, adds that contrastive projects currently running are mostly in European countries, contrasting their native languages with English/Polish, Finish, Serbo, Croat, and German. It can be understood from the published materials that the first studies focused on contrasting English and other languages while in later years, specially in Europe, other non-English languages are contrasted. In other words, CAH is applied so extensively throughout different countries that they prefer to use its principles to scientifically modify the languages in comparison.

In the following years, as contrastive studies quantitatively increased, various terms have been applied by different writers. For example, the successive linguistic system that a learner constructs on his way to the mastery of a TL has been referred to as Corders’ idiosyncratic dialects, Nemsers’ Approximative system, Sampson & Richards’ Learner Language System and Selinkers’ Interlanguage. The term interlanguage is used vastly in the literature to donate different purposes and for the following reasons: 1) it captures the intermediate status of the learners’ system between his L1 and TL. 2) it represents the instability of changes of the learning processes. 3) the term language can be meaningful enough to indicate the rule-governed nature of the learner’s performance and its functional, communicative system. Moreover, J.B. Carroll\(^{15}\) uses the term facilitation and interference to discuss CA: “facilitation and interference are spoken of as representing positive or negative transfer, respectively”. He moreover

\(^{13}\) Ibid, P. 46.


adds to maximize positive and minimize negative transfer, some steps must be taken, one of which is asking questions about the age of the learner. He believes that young children are less subjective to interference than the old. To him, the intelligence and motivation of the learners are important factors in determining the degree of interference. Odlin\textsuperscript{16} confirms that the pedagogical practice proposed by Fries and others encourage the vast use of contrastive studies for pedagogical purposes. Many books, articles, and graduate thesis from 1950 to 1970 reflect the growth of such study.

After Fries and Lado presented their propositions from a structural viewpoint, it was the Chomskian revolution in linguistics against structuralism and operant learning which gave a new way to teaching methods as well as CA. His ideas made CA to be more explicit and precise and subsequently the linguistic foundation centered around "Language Universals." To this proposal, it is claimed that one important reason because of which CA is supported and its validity is confirmed is the fact that facilitation may occur as the result of similarities in different languages which made learning a language an easy activity, so the grammarians become interested in discovering what various languages have in common.

**B. Theoretical Assumptions of Contrastive Analysis**

CA has always been following specific goals and procedures in its development, and its assumptions have had both theoretical and pedagogical applications in ELT. The goal of this chapter is to consider the underlying principles which govern the most dominant changes in the development of these theories.

The two terms "contrastive linguistics" and "contrastive analysis" are defined. The former is a name for the discipline as a whole, while the latter is used to refer both to the process of comparing languages and to the complete result of

any such investigation. Besides, the aim of contrastive linguistics, in the broad sense of the term, is to provide a comparative description of pairs or groups of languages and that the immediate goals of contrastive studies are in most cases practical rather than theoretical, and the terms contrastive linguistics or contrastive analysis are generally understood to indicate applied studies.

Catford assigns an explanatory function for CA, not a predictive one. To this, he adds that CA can provide some insight into the language where the teacher may see it necessary to provide his learners with more intensive explicit instruction for the specific cases of the language having been taught. The following traditional objectives have been enumerated for CA and the goals that it follows:

One) Providing insights into similarities and differences between languages,
Two) Explaining and predicting problems in L2 learning,
Three) Developing course materials for language teaching.

Considering contrastive analysis from a traditional viewpoint, we can introduce an applicable and utilitarian purpose for it. What the student has to learn equals the sum of the differences established by the contrastive analysis. The change that has to happen in the language behavior of an L2 learner can be equated with the differences between the structure of learner’s native language and culture and that of the target language and culture. The task of the linguist, the cultural anthropologist, and the sociologist is to identify these differences. The task of the writer of a foreign language teaching program is to develop materials which will be based on a statement of these differences and finally the duty of the teacher is to be aware of these differences.

Ziahosseini has proposed the following applications for CA:

1. Contrastive linguistics can reformulate the existing grammatical descriptions.
2. Contrastive data may help the linguist draw generalizations about language and apply explanations for errors in error analysis.

18 Op Cit, P: 8.
3. It can play an important part in the study of second/foreign language acquisition, for example, in determining the role of interference and generalization.

One great concern of contrastive linguists has been defining the goals and functions of CA. To fulfill this goal, there have been two major areas of debate and controversies: theoretical and applied contrastive linguistics. As it can be understood from the related literature, the theoretical studies of CA were carried more seriously by Prague School of Linguistics. Meanwhile, it is believed that the theoretical assumptions are useful for learners, teachers, course designers, and textbook writers.

It is, moreover, added that theoretical studies are not directional and they merely look for the realization of universal categories present in the language.

Yarmohammadi 19 puts forth the idea of contrastive pedagogical grammar, a by-product of applied linguistics and introduces the following goals for a contrastive pedagogical grammar of English and Persian:

1. To provide information about grammatical facts of the English language needed for the desired proficiency of Persian learners at a given level;
2. To illustrate similarities and differences between the two linguistic systems involved, with special elaboration and emphasis on differences of Iranian L2 learners of English;
3. To predict and specify some of the possible major learning difficulties;
4. To apply the information obtained from 2 and 3 for selecting, ordering, and grading the content of the pedagogical grammar and to provide suitable exercises for each component with appropriate size, shape, and emphasis.

Besides, the objectives mentioned above, pedagogical CA can be applied to preparing textbooks for learners of different L1s and by resorting to CA, the structure of the textbook, selection of teaching and testing items, degree of emphasis, kinds of practice, etc. will be geared to learners’ native language. Above all, it is asserted that the materials based on CA entail a more mentalistic teaching technique, i.e., “explicit presentations of points of contrast and similarity with the native language involves an analytical, cognitive activity.”20

One prevailing application of CA has been stated to be the *predictive power* of contrastive studies.\textsuperscript{21} The scientific comparison of the two languages in question can help the analysts to predict many ideas about them. This can happen before the researchers resort to real subjects in their investigations based on speakers of the languages. In other words, the differences and sometimes similarities can be predicted by contrasting the languages in question.

**C. Trends and Approaches in Contrastive Analysis**

Linguistic comparisons have various contrasting forms such as contrastive error, performance, and discourse. These comparisons have witnessed several approaches throughout their development. Historical linguistics aiming at finding the common genetic background for whole group of languages has characterized the 19\textsuperscript{th} century. The next approach following it is “typological linguistics” when languages were grouped on the basis of various characteristics which they share. The goal of this approach is comparative investigations in order to find underlying similarities among very different languages. Later on contrastive linguistics which is concerned with similarities and differences in languages rather than grouping them genetically and typologically emerged. To differentiate between contrastive and typological linguistics, we can refer to the fact that the latter mainly focuses on clusters of languages united by some common features while the former centers around pairs of languages and explores similarities and differences between them. However, it is believed that early contrastive analysts did not base their work on any particular methodology and the analysis was provided in a more or less intuitive way, like folk medicine, without much theory and without much explanation\textsuperscript{22}. Theoretically-oriented contrastive studies were continued from the late twenties throughout the inter-war period and later on into the sixties supported by Prague School specifically V. Mathesius (1928) and his followers. In later periods, contrastive analysis was heavily affected by the proponents of

\textsuperscript{22} Op Cit, P: 3.
structuralism who applied it for many purposes and provided it with fundamental basis and principles which were regarded as the building blocks of the contrastive analysis for the years following it.

1. CA and Structuralism

The early phases of CA are closely related to American structuralism, and many of the early CA were written under the influence of Bloomfieldian type of structuralism. This school leaves a strong emphasis on differences between languages and since contrastive linguistics is often related with the audio-lingual approach to language teaching, and since the linguistic theory behind audiolingualism was structuralist, it is common to find statements on the effect that contrastive analysis in the forties and fifties were written in the Neo-Bloomfieldian influence. 23

Charles Fries24, among other structuralists, provided his materials on scientific description of the native language. To this purpose, he states:

The most effective materials (for teaching an L2) are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

He, moreover, may be said to have been the pioneer of modern CA. Fries overstresses the idea that for a foreign language learner to move satisfactorily toward mastery of a foreign language, it is highly necessary to provide materials based on “adequate descriptive analysis of both the language to be studied and the native language of the student”. 25

The close association of contrastive analysis to behaviorism and stimulus-response theory has brought about the relationship between interference theory and structuralism. Dulay and Burt\textsuperscript{26} have elaborated the idea in the following:

Interference theory until at least 1959 rests on the assumption of the association of context and/or stimulus with response. Learning a new response to the same stimulus and/or in the same context would require 'extinction' of the old association. Otherwise, the old habit would prevail. The prevalence of an old habit in attempting to perform a new task is called 'negative transfer'.

Contrastive linguistics developed in 1950s in America out of behaviorism which was the dominant school of psychology interested in second language learning theories. Behaviorists believed that only externally observable behavior was psychologically relevant for study and that internal mechanism responsible for that behavior could not be investigated scientifically. The behaviorists influenced proponents of the American linguistic school of structuralism in the way that these linguists viewed language. Structuralists thought that language itself consisted of externally conditioned habits. The knowledge of a language is made up of that set of habits demonstrated by the language user. CA in 1960s was based on surface structuralist description of the two languages concerned. The procedures which was above all at work at that time includes 1) the description, i.e., a formal description of the two compared languages was presented, 2) selection, i.e., certain areas or items of the two languages were selected in order to be compared in details, 3) comparison, i.e., differences and similarities are identified and 4) prediction, i.e., the areas which may cause errors are introduced or predicted.\textsuperscript{27}

Contrastive analysis is based on the theory of psychology and language learning and supports the assumption that language is habit and its acquisition involves the establishment of new set of habits. According to behaviorism, if the


structures of the first and the second language are the same, learning is facilitated, and if they are different, errors will emerge.

Soon after the revolutionary ideas of Chomsky and his followers and their criticism of Structuratism and behaviorism, cognitive learning and generative-transformational grammar find their way into linguistics and subsequently into language teaching. James\textsuperscript{28}, opposing the ideas that CA has been linked to cognitive psychology, believes that CA originates in behavioristic psychology, and not in cognitive psychology. On the whole, in its way to develop, CA has benefited from a few leading versions which have been actively used in pedagogy. As a consequence, the ideas proposed by the proponents of cognitive learning cast doubt on the assumptions of behaviorism supported for two or more decades on rote and motor learning.

2. Different Versions of CA

Based on the linguistic outlook supporting CAH, the strong version (SV), weak version (WV), and moderate version (MV) of CA emerged. Each of these versions, having nearly the same goal, follow certain procedures in their methodology. According to Lee\textsuperscript{29}, the SV of CAH is based on the following assumption: "the differences of the two languages make the most difficulty for the learners". In order to follow outcomes of CAH from a structural point of view, one set of knowledge (first language) came into contact through the learning process with a second set of knowledge (the target language). If the structures in comparison matched, learning was easy, and if they differed, the outcome was


\textsuperscript{29} W. R. Lee. 1968. "Thoughts on contrastive Linguistics in the Context of Foreign Language Teaching." In \textit{Alais}. USA: Georgetown University. P: 186.
difficulty and this is generally termed as Language Distance condition. The idea implies that the learning of similar items in the foreign language is easy and that of the different items is difficult and that the degree of difficulty depends on the degree of differences. In the strong view, it was concluded that predictions can be made about learning an L2 and about the degree of success of language teaching materials based on a comparison between two languages. The strong form of CAH claims that on the basis of differences, learning problems can be predicted. Ellis maintains that according to Behaviorists, the main obstacle on learning was the interference from prior knowledge. "proactive inhibition" happens when old habits interfere with the attempts to learn new ones. This is why, behaviorist theory of L2 learning emphasized the idea of "difficulty" which is defined as the amount of effort required to learn an L2 pattern. The degree of difficulty was supposed to depend, first of all, on the degree to which the target language pattern was similar to or different from a native-language pattern. When the idea of transfer was introduced, its manifestation in behaviorism is demonstrated as being:

Where the two (languages) were identical, learning could take place easily through positive transfer of the native-language patterns, but where they were different, learning difficulty arose and errors resulting from negative transfer were likely to occur. Such errors or bad habits were considered damaging to successful language learning, because they prevented the formation of the correct target-language habits. The commonly held view was that "like sins, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected."

Two main assumptions on which the SV of CA has been established are that first of all the chance of L2 learning problems occurring will increase due to the increase of linguistic differences between L1 and L2 and as a result linguistic differences give rise to interference. Second, the chance of L2 learning problems occurring will increase due to the absence of linguistic difference between L1 and L2 meaning that absence of linguistic differences give rise to facilitation.


Op cit. 341.


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Later on it became evident that many errors were not the result of transfer and as a result the weak version (WV) of CA was proposed. The WV, emerging because of the pitfalls of SV, is elaborated by Ziahosseini\textsuperscript{33} as being “diagnostic and explanatory.” In this respect errors are explained and interpreted after they are committed by learners. According to the WV, only some errors are traceable and consequently CA needed to be used together with error analysis (EA) as some errors are committed as the result of intra-lingual effects. In other words, the source of these errors has very little to do with the learners' L1. In fact, the WV of CA begins with an analysis of learners’ recurring errors. It begins with what learners do and attempt to account for those errors on the basis of NL-TL differences. The important contribution of this approach was the emphasis which was given to the learners, the forms they produced, and the strategies employed to arrive at their interlanguage (IL) forms. In subsequent years, after some studies and research work and observing some controversies among both versions and when the problems of both the SW and WV were detected and elaborated by the scholars, a third version called the moderate version of CA was introduced by Oller and Ziahesseini\textsuperscript{34} on the basis that “…the language learner who is learning a different system or language, pays more attention to different items which is a motivating principle in learning; thus, the different items must be significantly easy to internalize”. It is, moreover, added that when learning patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result. Conversely, when patterns are functionally or perceptually equivalent in a system or systems, correct generalization may occur. This notion is termed, as Kleinmann has asserted in Gass & Selinker\textsuperscript{35} “novelty effect” as when something in the L2 is very different from the L1, learners pay more attention to the differences which are

\textsuperscript{33} Op cit. P: X


new to them. Ellis\textsuperscript{36}, having termed the moderate version of CA as minimalist theoretical position, has emphasized the similarities that exist between the L2 and L1 acquisition. However, this assumption can be confirmed that contrastive analysis in any form or version does not offer any explanation of order or rate of acquisition because there is no theoretical basis to predict which areas should be more problematic than others. In other words, as different versions of CA assert, any area of difference or similarity between L1 and L2 may lead to difficulty or vice versa.

3. Approximative System

A thorough study of errors led to the formation of the theory known as ‘approximative system’ developed by Nemser\textsuperscript{37}. It means “the deviant linguistic system actually employed by foreign language learner in an attempt to utilize the target language.” He maintains that this system has various forms in accordance with proficiency level, learning experience, communication function, etc. It can be expected too that the errors for which we can introduce no source either in L1 or L2 build up the approximative system of the learner. In other words, this is the system which is a combination of L1 and L2’s unique errors and are capable of constructing a distinct system, something which is assumed to be particular to an individual and this has the result that some of the sentences produced are not easily interpretable. These types of errors, as you will later on see, will constitute a class of errors called “unique errors”. On the whole, this theory is founded both on linguistics and psychology and later on was replaced by Selinker’s ‘Interlanguage’.

4. CA and Interlanguage

The term “interlanguage” having been coined by Selinker introduces the language employed by the language learner which is something between his L1 and the target language. To validate the claim, Selinker gives reference to a large

\textsuperscript{36} Op cit. P: 307

number of errors which are committed as a result of the process of transfer. In postulating Interlanguage hypothesis, Selinker\textsuperscript{38} states:

\textbf{a. Interlanguage and Fossilization}

Fossilization is observable in L2 learners who unlike L1 learners do not reach the same level of competence and consequently certain rules and items ‘fossilize’. In the same way, Selinker\textsuperscript{39} discusses that “Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL.” Any fossilizable item can be traced in the learner’s interlanguage and in fact the greatest errors of most speakers are linguistic fossilized items. The term fossilization has been used to label “the process by which non-target forms become fixed in interlanguage.” Nickel\textsuperscript{40} has discussed the close relationship between IL and fossilization. He claims that only less than 5% of second language learners acquire a native language competence and normally others will have to be using their fossilized IL and this indicates that any fossilized form can be taken as an example of IL phenomenon. Moreover, it has been observed that the fossilized learners experience a frustrating learning situation as a result of fossilization when


\textsuperscript{39} Ibid. P: 36.
they do not feel any progress in their linguistic competence. To overcome this problem, directing learners toward more specific teaching programs such as ESP can be proposed. Besides, the way fossilized items function is discussed by Selinker in the following:

"...fossilizable structures tend to remain as potential performance, re-emerging in the productive performance of an IL even when seemingly eradicated. Many of these phenomena reappear in IL performance when the learner's attention is focused upon new and difficult intellectual subject matter or when he is in a state of anxiety or other excitement, and strangely enough, sometimes when he is in a state of extreme relaxation."

Meanwhile, some possible causes of fossilization have been identified. They include either internal or external factors. The internal factors are the age and lack of desire to adopt the target language norms. To these ideas it can be added that as learners arrive at a critical age, their brains lose plasticity and at result certain linguistic features cannot be mastered and besides learners do not show any tendency to adopt TL forms. On the other hand, the external factors include communicative pressure, lack of learning opportunity, and the nature of the feedback on learner's use of L2. These factors all together have their own effective role in establishing fossilized items in L2 learners.

b. Systematicity in Interlanguage

Systematicity is investigated on the ground that the learners' interlanguage, the same as first language, is systematic in nature. Corder, proposing that learner language can be considered as an idiosyncratic dialect, adds that this language is systematic because certain rules can be drawn out of it and that as the nature of any idiosyncracy, the rules are systematic but unstable and creative. In other words, these rules may take variations of their own and change over time and are not necessarily borrowed from the native language; rather they might be unique in themselves. To support this view point, Spolsky postulates that if IL is

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82 Op Cit. P: 36
84 Op Cit, P: 122
governed by the rules of any natural language, then it is possible to prove that variability in IL can be the same as other natural languages. In other words, it is possible to observe systematic rules in ILs. This idea has been moreover studied by a few other researchers and some conclusions have been drawn. Dulay and Burt\(^4\) in their study came to the conclusion that learning L1 and L2 is nearly the same and children in leaning their L1 employ the same strategy as TL. To this they add “learner language was systematic because large groups of learners could be shown to acquire elements of the target language in a statistically verifiable sequence.”

Labov and Dickerson in Tarone\(^45\) in defining variability and systematicity of IL, following a sociolinguistic method, have discussed that any form which can be predicted by rule can be viewed as systematic—whether it predicts 90 percent or 20 percent accuracy. In the same way, an attempt to develop TL systematicity was taken by Hakuta in Tarone\(^46\) when the second language of a five-year-old Japanese girl was being studied. This research proposed that the process of second-language acquisition, here English:

> is a dynamic, fluid process in which the system of the learner is constantly shifting: shifting in a slow and gradual manner either toward the maintenance of an internal consistency within the structures which the learner possessed, or in the direction of an external consistency, where the learner attempts to fit the internal system into what is heard in the input.

However, the controversy that Hakuta has been dealing with in studying IL is whether an IL has to be studied independent of the TL system and all occurrences of a given form should be selected, or considering target language norms is essential and the IL system has to be studied through the norms of TL.

c. Variability in Interlanguage

Rod Ellis\(^47\), in discussing variability in interlanguage, has proposed two major areas: systematic & non-systematic variability. To Ellis, the systematic
variability can be explained and normally predicted and includes individual and textual variability. Individual variation refers to the individuals who in their L2 production perform differently from one another and these individual differences are the result of different learning effects such as motivation, age, aptitude, etc.

The other type of systematic variability, including both linguistic and situational contexts, is contextual variability which can be identified by the situation and context in which it occurs. They contain the stylistic, linguistic, and social variations. On the other hand, non-systematic variations may occur in IL as they are most of all random and unpredictable. They are unique in form and impossible to explain.

The additional sources of variability in IL, as Littlewood quoted in Spolsky*, are formulated to be 1) the communicative function 2) the linguistic environment and 3) socio-situational factors that the learner bears according to which the variations of different forms appear. To all these we have to add the pedagogic norms which introduce their own effects in school situation.

Furthermore, the varying forms do not show a common underlying linguistic norm, rather they demonstrate several linguistic norms, a continuum of styles ranging from a ‘superordinate’ style produced when the speaker pays the most attention to form, to a vernacular style produced when the least attention is paid. Tarone* has proved in her studies with Japanese and Arabic learners that style shifting occurs between narration and interview as well as between speaking and writing. In other words, these learners try to be accurate or shift their style when they are put in formal context (interview and writing) or the same learners demonstrate their careless application of L2 rules when they feel more free in their use of language. In other words, variability is affected as a result of different factors, either linguistics or non-linguistics, and the numberless variations of languages are the product of these interfering factors.

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48 Op Cit, P: 37
d. Interlanguage and Pedagogical Implications

Surprisingly, IL can contribute to language teaching in different ways. One major application is the data provided by the errors committed by the learners at different ages, levels, and areas. It was not until 1960s that the impact of transfer in language teaching was revealed. The assumption was primarily on the ideas that the existence of cross-linguistic differences made second language acquisition extremely different from first language acquisition. The most important contributors are introduced to be Charles Fries and Robert Lado. These scholars as well as some others regarded as extremely important the development of materials specifically designed for different groups of students. Because, for example, the problems of the Chinese student are very different from those of the Spanish speaker, it is quite plausible that the sequencing and the emphasis will normally differ. As a consequence of this idea, the materials that are prepared for these students reflected cross-linguistic differences.

Likewise, the data on language transfer can provide significant applications for researchers, language teachers, textbook designers, etc. Since the teacher of English has to be convinced that it is inevitable for L2 learners to produce errors of different types at different levels of competencies and as these learners develop their learning strategies, they build up their own interlanguage systems which is of significance to the researchers. On the other hand some errors are the result of inappropriate training or teaching strategies and therefore they can signify some indications about the methodological changes, the use of the mother tongue, and selecting certain teaching techniques will influence the degree and acquisition of the language. Mere concentration on errors is not a suitable strategy as in any IL, there are other useful bodies of information i.e. the correct responses, which can have a lot of useful indications to the teacher, and this can be achieved through considering the problems of the specific learners.
D. The Transfer Effect of CAH

As a result of their work and studies, contrastive linguists finally came to the position to use the notions of “transfer” and “interference” having been borrowed from psychological learning theory and were applied to second-language learning. Transfer in its simplest form refers to the hypothesis that the learning of a task is either facilitated (positive transfer) or impeded (negative transfer) by the previous learning of another task, depending on the degree of similarity or difference between the two tasks. In other words, positive transfer is transfer of a skill X which facilitates the learning or has a positive influence on the acquisition of a skill Y because of their similarities. Negative transfer is transfer of a skill X which impedes the learning and has a negative influence on the acquisition of a skill Y because of their differences. In the same manner, Els proposes two types of transfer, pro-active transfer: the transfer of existing skills onto new skills, and retro-active transfer: transfer of new skills into existing skills.

One reason, because of which the shift in emphasis in language transfer studies in late 60s and early 70s occurred was both the psychology and linguistics which had been associated with the dominant theoretical schools of the time, i.e., structural/behaviorism whereas research in the late 60s was strongly influenced by a Chomskian generative-transformational framework which had clearly been anti-behaviorist. Furthermore, the behaviorist notion of transfer is quite different from the notion of native language influence. From behaviorist viewpoint, transfer means “the extinction of earlier habits”, but the acquisition of L2 need not end in replacing the learner’s L1. Thus, this and other relevant considerations suggest that behaviorism may never have been relevant to the study of transfer. On the other hand, transformational grammar is a key to contrastive studies, both as a theoretical basis and as a technique of analysis and therefore, it establishes the required background for a change from structuralist taxonomy, which had become

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the classical model for contrastive analysis and offered a new, process-type approach to language comparison.

Odlin cast doubt on the source of transfer by stating that transfer is not simply a consequence of habit formation and defines it as being "...the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other languages that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired". One of the concerns of learning psychologists is the effect of one task on a subsequent one. The observation that prior learning effects subsequent learning leads to the hypothesis of transfer, and this seems to be a plausible interpretation for transfer in its different forms.

Gass believes that the instances of transfer are the cases when there might be a form used by a learner which resembles a form in the learner's native language. She continues that if we see the same elements in the speech of learners whose native language does not have this form, then we must question transfer as the sole explanation.

The studies made by Dulay & Burt (1974) and Richards (1971) have confirmed that L1 and L2 acquisition can be very similar. Besides, the studies of children acquiring their L1 showed that parents rarely corrected their children's linguistic errors, thus questioning the importance of reinforcement in language learning. These studies suggested that language learning was developmental, being controlled from the inside as from the outside. In other words, new approaches to contrastive studies have been trying to choose an L1 learning-model for the acquisition of an L2, and thus confirming the fact that errors on learning a language are inevitable and besides they cannot be reliable sources of learners' difficulties. This and some other related criticism bring about serious reactions against CAH which finally causes language analysts to turn to more reliable approaches.

51 Op Cit, P: 27.
As a more recent study is the one conducted by Arb and Homburg (1983-1992) cited in Gass & Selinker. They have tried to prove transfer as a facilitator of learning. In their study with Arabic and Spanish speakers of English, they compared the responses of these learners to the vocabulary section of a standard test of English. Considering the fact that there are a lot of similarities (cognates) among the words of English and Spanish, they conclude:

The Spanish speakers, because so many cognates exist between their NL and the TL, can focus more of their “learning time” on other aspects of language (...). It is the concentration on other vocabulary that results in a facilitation of learning. Thus, knowing a language that is related in some way to the TL can help in many ways, only some of which can be accounted for by the mechanical carryover of items and structures.

This approach is moreover supported by the study performed by Henkes quoted by Zobl in Gass & Selinker. In this study, three children (French, Arabic, and Spanish) were observed in the acquisition of copula, a form which exists in French, Spanish, but not in Arabic. Henkes attempted to prove that not using copula by the Arabic child is not related to his native language as the other two learners also failed to use the copula consistently and it was suggested that “although the same phenomenon of copula was observed in all three children, it took the Arabic child longer to get the facts of English straightened out due to the absence of the category in the NL [Arabic].” Finally, this notion leads to the conclusion that transfer can function as a facilitation of learning an L2 although this aspect demands more elaboration and experimental work to verify.

E. CA and Pedagogical Applications

The present literature in its attempt to discuss the relationship between pedagogy and CA has emphasized most of all the following issues:

One. CA and material preparation

Two. CA and testing procedures

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53 Op Cit, P: 91.
54 Ibid, P: 92.
Three. CA and teaching sequence

Four. CA and translation

Five. CA and curriculum designer

One of the most important objectives of CAH in pedagogy has been stated to be its application in test and material preparation. R. Lado (1957) as one of the most influential characters in ELT and CA, after criticizing testing procedures preceding CAH, contends that linguistic comparison has had rewarding application in constructing text books and language tests. Besides, explanatory power should be the ultimate goal of all contrastive linguistics as they provide information for the textbook writer in the selection of the actual teaching material on the basis of several criteria such as frequency of occurrence and teachability. Here grading is also considered by textbook writer when he decides to divide the language course into time segments, and to give more teaching and learning time to items being more difficult.

The relation between CA and pedagogy is further elaborated by Rusiecki by stating that:

- to provide materials for linguistically oriented dictionaries and reference grammars; they are used to help translators; they can provide basic data for writing programs for machine translations. However, the main purpose being introduced here is language teaching.

Following the strong version of CA in language teaching throughout 1960s, some course developers were provided with the ideas on the differences and normally the difficulties of learning an L2. In fact, the analysis were based on surface "structuralist" description of the two languages concerned, and they implied pedagogical implications for the language teacher. The procedure is made up of the following steps:

1) Description: formal description of the two languages

2) Selection: certain areas were selected for comparison

3) Comparison: differences and similarities were identified

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55 Op Cit, P: 13
4) Prediction: determining which areas were likely to cause errors

In the same manner, Robert Lado⁵⁶, based on his earlier studies, states that the fundamental assumption of his book, *Linguistics Across Cultures*, is the fact that individuals transfer the linguistic forms as well as meaning and culture of their native language to the foreign language and culture. He advocates CAH as a procedure that can help both language teacher and text book writer to rely their teaching process and the content of their materials on predicting teaching-learning difficulties. A learner will find some features of L2 quite easy as they are similar to his L1, and those different will look difficult. Besides, textbooks should be graded as to grammatical structures, pronunciation, vocabulary, and cultural content. And grading can be done best after the kind of comparison we are presenting here. The teacher who has systematically compared the two languages will have the ability to provide those exercises which center around the differences or important points.

On discussing the learning problems of foreign language grammatical structure, Lado⁵⁷ presents four major domain of difficulties: 1) transfer 2) similarities and differences as determiners of ease and difficulty, 3) production versus recognition, 4) what constitutes “difference” and therefore difficulty as to form. Additionally, structuralists saw as extremely important the development of materials specifically designed for different groups of students. They believed that the similarities of L1 and L2 will facilitate L2 learning, and this similarity can be related to all areas of language especially syntax. All similarities in syntactic structure can facilitate the acquisition of grammar: learners speaking a language with a syntax similar to that of target language tend to have less difficulty with articles, word order, and relative clauses.

These assumptions although being useful in the description of the given language, suffer from some deficiencies, the most important of which is that the prediction does not sufficiently and thoroughly reflect areas of errors. Or in a sense, differences do not simply indicate difficulty or even easiness. In other words,

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⁵⁷ Ibid, P. 59.
to follow all these steps does not lead to the scientific predictions which have been claimed.

**F. Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH)**

Eckman, considering the deficiency of CAH in explaining certain facts about language acquisition, discusses that MDH is a more suitable device to predict the levels of difficulties which CA is not capable to predict. He claims that CAH alone is not a good predictor of certain difficulties and if “typological markedness is incorporated into the CAH, it is possible to predict not only the areas of difficulty for a second language learner, but also the relative degree of difficulty.”

As a definition of MDH, Eckman\(^5\) proposes:

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\text{A phenomenon A in some language is more marked if the presence of A in a language implies the presence of B; but the presence of B does not imply the presence of A.}
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Ellis defines markedness as “Some linguistic features are ‘special’ in relation to others, which are more ‘basic’”. To make the point clear, the following example is presented by him. The adjectives ‘old’ and ‘young’ can be considered unmarked and marked respectively because whereas ‘old’ can be used to ask about person’s age: How old is she? = (What her age is?) ‘young’ cannot, except in some very special sense: How young is she? = (Is she as young as she makes out?)

Taking an example from syntax, Eckman\(^9\) states that the languages such as Arabic, Greek, Serbo-Croat, and Persian have passive sentences without expressed agents like 1 below or do not have passive sentences with expressed agents like 2.

1) The door was closed.

2) The door was closed by the janitor.

There are, on the other hand, languages such as English, French, and Japanese which have both types of passives. However, there are not any languages which have passives with agents without also having passives without agents. As a conclusion, having passives with agents implies the presence of passives without agents, but the reverse is not true. Therefore, sentences like 1 are more marked than 2. Considering the definition and example above, the following hypothesis are proposed by Eckman:

**Markedness Differential Hypothesis**

The areas of difficulty that a language learner will have can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the grammars of the native language, the target language and the markedness relations stated in universal grammar, such that,

- One) Those areas of the target language which differ from the native language and are more marked than the native language will be difficult.
- Two) The relative degree of difficulty of the area of the target language which are more marked than the native language will correspond to the relative degree of markedness.
- Three) Those areas of the target language which are different from the native language, but are not more marked than the native language will not be difficult.

The ultimate goal of MDH is that this is not possible for language learners to predict their learning difficulties by resorting to the mere differences of the two languages, and that only some of these difficulties can be predicted through CA. In other words, areas of difficulty are more suitably predicted from markedness relation.

To establish a relationship between markedness hypothesis and transfer, Hyltenstam* postulates that:

Unmarked categories from the native language are substituted for corresponding marked categories in the target language. Marked structures are seldom transferred, and if they are transferred, they are much more easily eradicated from the target language.

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Another more interesting definition of markedness is found in language typology. In fact, as Ellis claims, there have been some attempts to use typological universals to make claims about which features are marked and which ones unmarked. It is added that “those features that are universal or present in most languages are unmarked, while those that are specific to a particular language or found in only a few languages are marked.”

Zobl in Ellis offers three senses in which rules can be marked. The first is “typological specialization” and the second is “structural inconsistency”. This idea is supported by providing an example from German and Dutch word order which are not consistent in dependent and independent clauses. In this case, English has a consistent word order in these clauses. Thus, German and Dutch word order can be considered marked but English is unmarked. The third is “typological indeterminacy”. This means when learners of a particular language predict a structure in their L2 on the basis of a language’s overall typology but this structure is not found. For example, English as a SVO language might be expected to include a N+ Adj form, but this is not true. These typologically indeterminate features are considered marked.

To make the point clear, an example may be useful. Zobl indicates how learners tend to resort to their LI if the corresponding L2 rule is obscure because it is typologically inconsistent or indeterminate. He notes that the following errors are common in French learners of English:

ED: They have policeman for stop the bus.

ED: He do that for to help the Indians.

The ‘for’ + infinitive error corresponds closely to the L1 structure of these learners. He continues by stating that this ‘for + to’ creates a “structural predisposition” for transfer. In other words, this can be considered unmarked in relation to the modern English structure.

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61 Op Cit, P: 320.
The idea discussed by Zobl and mentioned above pertains to Iranian L2 learners of English when they substitute the unmarked structure of ‘for’ + bare infinitive to indicate purpose as they appear in the examples below:

ED: She came for visiting her parents.
ED: We left home early for going to the airport.

As it will be discussed later on, one major reason of overusing ‘for’ + gerund among Iranian students pertains to the corresponding structure in Persian. The second plausible interpretation can be the fact that it is an unmarked structure and as a result is transferred into L2. Besides, the inconsistency of rule application in using ‘for’ as a preposition + gerund can be interpreted as one cause of overgeneralization of this structure.

G. Appraisal of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

1. Theoretical Problems

As behaviorism and structuralism throughout 60s and 70s became unpopular and subsequently drastic shift in both linguistics and psychology occurred, disfavor against CA and its consequences began to appear. Some linguists, in general, accused CA of being based on the behaviorist concept presented by structural linguists such as Fries, Lado, and Brooks. Finally, in 1960s and 1970s, both behaviorism and structuralism became unpopular because major changes happened in linguistics and psychology. Gass & Selinker make the assumption that the claim strongly made by structuralists that L1 rules are the same as a set of habits basically learned by imitation was to be criticized and language was seen not as a set of non-thoughtful habits, but as a set of structured rules which are not learned by imitation, “but by actively formulating them on the basis of innate principles as well as on the basis of exposure to the language being learned”. Moreover, because of the declining importance of the structuralist school and its displacement by the cognitive oriented theory of transformational-

64 Op Cit, P: 61.
generative grammar, the specific role of first language influence and the general validity of contrastive analysis was called into question.

To Ellis, the concept of transfer is not so clear and that it is a very complex notion which is best understood in terms of cognitive rather than behaviorist modes of learning. Besides, based on the extensive studies fulfilled by Turving and Madigan (1970) quoted in Dulay and Burt the validity of “the operation of transfer in paired-associate learning has been questioned.” In the same manner, Odlin has confirmed that as a serious pitfall of the theory of transfer is the notion that “…theories of transfer are inextricably linked to theories of habit formation”. CAH is, above all, based on a general view of learning according to which prior learning affects subsequent learning, and this can leave negative effects when they oppose in some qualities. However, language structures are not comparable in their entireties, and cultural, lexical, and phonological elements do not always have direct counterpart in the opposed system.

The theoretical criticism of early contrastive studies as enumerated by Sajavaara reads as under:

(a) CA is mostly established upon translation equivalents introduced by bilingual informant.

(b) The theory of transfer has played an important role in the development of error analysis and applied contrastive analysis. However similar to the problems connected with translation equivalence, it has proved rather difficult to tell which kind of units and at which level this transfer takes place.

(c) The independence of the description of structures in two languages is illusory only.

(d) The abstract nature of the analysis has always been a fruitful source of criticism.

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65 Op Cit, P: 98.
66 Op Cit, P: 23.
Traditional contrastive analysis is based on a static view of the interlingual contrasts indicating that 1. Language variations are disregarded. 2. Source and target language are taken as equal. 3. Learner’s position is taken as stable. 4. Not much attention has been paid to the role of speaker and hearer and their shifting role.

Marton also presents the causes that disfavored CA. He says that contrastive studies first of all present fragmentary descriptions of two language systems and little attention is given to syntactic descriptions. Also, most studies have a highly theoretical nature which are not applicable to language teaching.

However, most of the criticism concerning CA centers around the following:

1. Focusing mainly on language differences, CA ignores many other factors which affect the SL learner’s performance, such as his own learning strategies, the training procedures, over generalization of TL rules, and so on.

2. Learning... is approached statistically,... as an instantaneous imprinting, the role of storage from a prior stage being ignored. Consequently, CA cannot predict, for instance, the types of error caused by interference from TL materials previously learned.

3. Some “universal” learning strategies are observed to have taken place in both child and adult learning.

2. CA & Universal Grammar

The concept of universal grammar (UG) has increased disagreements against CAH. In fact, the underlying similarities of some languages have motivated some linguists to become interested in the notion of UG. This has led them to come to the conclusion that some errors are common in emerging second language of speakers of any native language. To make the point clear, Odlin presents the example that the omission of *it* in cases such as *that very simple* is an

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69 See also Spolsky, 1989 and Odlin, 1989.
error made not only by Spanish speakers but also by speakers of Chinese, Japanese, and other languages.

Early Structuralists, however, having no clear notion of underlying structure and semantic representation from which surface structure in different languages are derived, interpreted UG as being "Language is a system, and within this system the role of contrast is central. There is no universal system which is yet known to be true of all languages, indeed no two languages are structured in the same way. They, moreover, believe that each language is a self-sufficient system in that every element has a value which is uniquely determined by the structural relations of that system." In other words, for structuralists, it was essential for successful contrastive analysis that the two languages were first described in terms of one and the same model and structuralism for its part concentrated on features which were language specific. As a result, it was not surprising that structural contrastive analysis could not succeed in meeting the applied objectives. When it became clear that CA cannot concentrate on distinctions alone, and that it should pay the necessary attention to similarities, structuralism turned out to be a rather odd bed fellow.

Chomsky gives a definition of UG by saying that it is "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages." UG states that all languages are alike at an abstract, underlying level which provides theoretically at least a basis for comparability. Equivalent sentences across languages have identical semantic representations, and this idea can suggest the conclusion that all sentences in all languages are derived from a universal semantic base. Considering the ideas stated on the universal properties of languages in comparison, too much concentration on surface differences provided by contrastive analysts seems to be irrelevant.

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60 Op Cit, P 19
On the other hand, opposing the UG hypothesis and its relationship with CAH, there is a hypothesis called Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (FDH) which states that what happens in child language acquisition is not the same as what happens in adult second language acquisition. It discusses that child and adult language learning is not similar at all and to support this idea of FDH, some reasons are enumerated. For example, it is stated that the ultimate attainment reached by children and adults differ, or the second language learner masters a full command of the linguistic system of his L2, while the L1 learner is not aware of the system of his language, and also that the motivation and attitude of these learners are not the same at all. The concluding part of this discussion is that adult second language learners have no access to UG. Rather what they know of language universal is constructed through their NL.

The studies performed by Dulay and Burt quoted by Seliger\textsuperscript{33} have proved that children belonging to different language background applied “universal, developmentally determined processes to learn a second language”. Besides, Seliger states that Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) have performed a similar study but this time with adult learners of English. Following all these studies, the conclusion was that the learning of a second language did not involve what was called “creative construction”. This meant that the process of acquiring a second language was controlled primarily by universal cognitive principles that determined how the learner would approach the language regardless of previous knowledge. The evidence for this universality, as Seliger discusses was “the order of acquisition for speakers of different first language and for learners of different ages, and the consistent qualitative nature of the errors themselves.”

On the failure of CA to predict errors, Eckman\textsuperscript{34} reflects that as a more convenient device, MDH can be applied more successfully. To this he adds:


\textsuperscript{34}Op Cit. P: 329.
What seems an uncontroversial position on language universals is that languages, and hence, language universals, are a reflection of the structure of human cognition (...) . Thus it is the nature of human cognition that no language will have only passive sentences with agents, but a language may have only passives without agents. Moreover, if one makes the additional assumption that humans learn to do things which are less complex before they learn to do things which are more complex, and further, that no human being learns to do things which are more complex without also a fortiori learning to do related things which are less complex (...), then typological markedness is an accurate reflection of difficulty.

He finally concludes that as a result of these considerations, and incapability of CAH, typological markedness or MDH should be incorporated into a theory of second language acquisition.

3. Priority of Errors in CA

One major pitfall of transfer is the fact that it focuses too much on errors. It is stated that although errors play an important role in determining the strength or weakness of a particular language influence, they are not the only cause and evidence of difficulty. However, this idea being related to EAH is considered one major pitfall of both CA and EA hypotheses and therefore will be discussed in details in the following.

4. Different Versions of CAH

Considering different versions of CA, it is stated that the weak version is problematic because it makes little sense to undertake a lengthy comparison of two languages, and it is unable to predict areas of difficulty (Ellis). One major criticism of the WV of CA is that this hypothesis lacks the predictive power and without it, the hypothesis is a contradiction. Moreover, it has to be understood that the WV of CA in most situations is hard to support because when regarding languages and their deep diversities, to present generalizations is not to the point.

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75 See also Odlin, 1989 and Whitman & Jackson, 1972.
76 Op Cit, P: 308.
We can, moreover, hypothesize that the SV is hardly capable of providing the needed data for foreign language course designers. Nemser on the other hand, claims that the SV of CA suffers from some pitfalls, the most important of which are that:

(i) different analysis: different predictions, (ii) predictions are often ambiguous, and (iii) the various levels of linguistic structure are dependent, with the result that predictions of phonetic interference...must take into account not only the phonologic systems of Ls [source language] and TL [target language] but their morphophonemic, grammatical and lexical levels as well.

The causes of these failure are cited to be immediate usefulness, simplicity, motivational strength, all of which will affect the sequencing of items and structures in a foreign-language course. Besides, this hypothesis, as Els et al discuss, suffer from the following drawbacks:

• CA predicted L2 learning problems which do not occur;
• CA turned out not to predict learning problems which do occur;

In other words, linguistic differences between L1 and L2, as the SV of CA claims, do not automatically lead to L2 learning problems, and not all L2 learning problems can be retraced.

5. The Question of Difficulty in CA

It has strongly been claimed by the proponents of CAH that the notion of difficulty is almost always equated with the degree of errors. The more L2 learners make errors in their acquisition of L2, the more it is assumed to be difficult and consequently the more the target and native languages are different. However, Gass and Selinker have questioned this assumption by quoting the following situation:

Consider the following example from Kellerman in which a student wrote:

77 Op Cit. PP. 60-61.
78 Op Cit. P: 50.
ED: But in that moment it was 6:00.

In a conversation with the student, the teacher wanted her to comment on her use of the preposition *in*. The student insisted that the correct form was *in* but questioned whether it should be *it was 6:00* or *it had been 6:00*. Clearly the learner was having difficulty in the sense of struggling with something that was hard for her to do, but in this case the struggle was with tense usage, even though there was no error reflecting that difficulty. On the other hand, there was no doubt in her mind about the correctness of the preposition. In other words, although the student had committed an overt error, she observed no difficulty in it, and so difficulty cannot be unilaterally equated with errors.

Spolsky suggests that the main difficulty with CAH was its failure to put its basis on a supportable theory of difficulty. By quoting Briere (1968) he adds that difference by itself does not predict difficulty and “often there is more difficulty in practice with structures that are similar than with structures which are different.” Additionally, it has to be regarded that the notion of difficulty naturally differs for each learner and for each language background. In other words, learning a language is a complex phenomenon and a large number of factors such as innate principles of language, attitude, motivation, aptitude, age, and so forth influence learning and as a result the notion of difficulty is in direct relationship with all these factors.

Richards adds to this by stating that the concept of difficulty by itself is not clear enough. Prediction of difficulty in terms of interlingual differences indicates that it is feasible to compare categories across languages, a comparison which in practice may not be possible as what is syntax in one language may be vocabulary in another and also what the learner finds difficult is interpreted on the basis of the degree and nature of what he has acquired of the L2.

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80 Op Cit. P: 120.
Seliger casts doubt on the assumption proposed by structuralists that learning difficulty will be the result of differences of the two languages of L1 and L2. He continues that although the order of adjective and head noun is different for Spanish and English, native speakers of English and of Spanish almost never have any problem with the difference in the other language. It is moreover added that near similarity is sometimes more difficult to overcome than clear difference.

Up to this point we have unfolded the following cases as possible explanations for a structure being difficult. They involve the notions such as its saliency, its communicative value to the learner, the extent to which it is marked or unmarked, or the ease with which it can be processed in production or comprehension, the degree of distinction between L1 and L2, learners' learning background, motivation, etc.

6. The Pitfalls of CA & Pedagogy

One major application of CA has been stated to be using it to construct teaching materials. To fulfill this goal, too much emphasis is usually placed on certain elements which may cause learners to learn certain fragments of the TL instead of the whole system. Meanwhile, Marton replies that using CA as a basis for pedagogical grammar does not imply ignoring the whole system and focusing on certain fragments. On the other hand, CA has been criticized as a basis for providing a hierarchy of difficulty, but this type of sequencing of teaching materials is only partly valid. To this Sanders adds that it is worthwhile to devote some sort of emphasis to items which have a high frequency in the TL, but deciding which of these and to what extent is the duty of contrastive analyst.

One great claim of CA has been its usefulness for language teachers. However, Marton criticizes that:

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82 Op Cit, P: 25.
contrastive studies are of no use for language teaching, because in the first place, a complete analysis involving only two languages is already an extremely difficult and painstaking task, and the second place, all of this is not worth that much effort, as any experienced language teacher knows where errors mostly occur, anyway.

Besides all these facts, it can be inferred that second-language learning today is different from the traditional foreign-language teaching. One major difference is that learners in ESL classrooms may not share the same language, and they normally will not be expected to experience the same kind of interference. And also when the teacher of English does not know the learners’ native language, and his L1 will be the TL of his students, it is impossible for the language teacher to use his predictive power to analyze learners’ difficulties.

Additionally, CA has been criticized as it has been teacher-centered rather than being learner-centered. It can be concluded that too much occupation with the role of teacher has given an inferior role to the learner. This notion clearly opposes newly-introduced teaching methods such as James Asher’s The Total Physical Response or Caleb Gattegno’s The Silent Way, or Lazanov Suggestopedia which above all give the centrality of the activity to the learner, the notion which has been neglected and in most cases de-emphasized as a result of habit-formation theory of audiolingualism throughout 60s and early 70s.

Ellis86, having questioned the validity of transfer, refers to different studies which have proved the fact that the learner’s L1 can facilitate learning L2. For example, he quotes the studies fulfilled by Odlin(1989), Gass(1979), and Kellerman(1985) who try to propose that the facilitative effect of the L1 is evident in other aspects of L2 acquisition. In many cases, when two languages share a large number of cognates, learning is facilitated. For example, Chinese learners of L2 Japanese have an enormous advantage over English learners because of their writing systems similarity.

To refer to one important pitfall of contrastive analysis hypothesis, it can be assumed that the effect of transfer is most observable in production, and not so

86 Op Cit, PP: 302-3
significant in recognition skills. In other words, it is possible to trace L2 learning problems on production level, but their comprehension failures are neglected as in this case CA is unable to trace the errors. Subsequently, this claim is valid when it is stated that CA is capable of following production difficulties, but not comprehension ones.

7. Criticizing the Predictive Power of CA

The predictive power of CA has always been questioned both theoretically and empirically. Studies have revealed that most difficulties and naturally most errors are not caused by transfer. They also indicate that many errors predicted by contrastive analysis did not actually happen. Dulay and Burt note that most valid CA evidence seems to work on phonological differences and quoting Richards continue that studies of second language acquisition have tended to imply that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the syntactic level” and this is a major cause of disfavoring CAH when the goal is working on syntactic components of L2.

In a similar study carried out by Tran-Thi-Chau, it was proved that most errors committed by learners are inter- not intra- with the proportion of 51 to 29 percent. This claim is also supported by Richards as 53 of inter to 39 of intra. This can, therefore, be concluded that CA can explain or predict not more than half of the errors and other error types are the result of intra-lingual effects.

Odlin, criticizing Lado and Fries’ claim on CA’s predictive power, states that the differences of languages do not always lead to certain learning problems. Giving some examples of Spanish verbs, Odlin claims that the lexical differences for example between the English verb “know” for which there are two in Spanish,

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87 See also Tran-Thi-Chau, 1975 ; Sridhar, 1981 ; Odlin, 1981 ; Ellis, 1994; Spolsky, 1989
88 Op Cit, P: 105.
90 Op Cit, P: 30.
91 Ibid. P: 17.
i.e. conocer and saber, creates learning difficulties for English speakers learning Spanish, but not for Spanish speakers learning English. Thus, the difference between Spanish and English is not in itself enough to allow for accurate prediction of difficulty. Learning difficulties do not always arise from cross-linguistic differences and that difficulties which do arise are not always predicted by CA. The predictive power of CA has been questioned as when comparing native-target languages, we can obtain certain information on why some errors occur, but when there's no access to actual data about learner's errors, our reliable prediction is very small. It was later on revealed that interference or transfer from the native language is only part of the problem because a large number of errors made by LLs seem to be unrelated to the learners' native language, rather they showed signs of the same kind of overgeneralization or hypothesis testing that has been proposed for native language learning.

Another drawback of CAH is its failure to identify the sources of difficulty other than the learner's L1. Difficulty does not necessarily manifest itself in errors. Rather, it can be demonstrated in other areas. Odlin, by giving reference to studies on Spanish speakers by Peck 1978, Butterworth and Hatch; Schumann 1978; Shapira 1978, and Richards (1971, 1974), states that one more problem of CA is the occurrence of errors that have little to do with native language influence. Concerning this notion, Dulay and Burt in their study have quoted George who has concluded that two-third of the goofs collected could be traced to L1 structure, but in the same place they present D. Lance and J. Richards' ideas who believe that most errors made by L2 learners of English can not be traceable to their native language, rather they are non-contrastive errors, including performance goofs, overgeneralizations, etc.

As mentioned above, one serious pitfall of the SV of CA is that it can never predict the intralingual errors. Intralingual problems are not predicted on the basis of CA: they can't be traced back to differences between L1 and L2, but they

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92 Ibid. P: 17.
93 Op Cit, P: 105.
relate to a specific interpretation of the target language and manifest themselves as universal phenomenon.

Gass & Selinker⁹⁴, in their attempt to prove that CA is unsuccessful in its predictability, discuss that “not only did errors occur that had not been predicted by the theory [of CA], but there was evidence that predicted errors did not occur”. In other words, CA had not been able to anticipate the errors which actually occurred in non-native speech. Besides all these facts on the failure of CA to predict L2 learner’s errors, they⁹⁵ have questioned the validity of the notion that similarities can imply ease and differences imply difficulty and to support this claim they have quoted Kleinmann (1977) who asserts that when something in the L2 is very different from the L1, there is the “novelty effect”. Kleinmann⁹⁶ in his study showed that this was the case with the progressive which is absent in Arabic; however, Arabic speakers learned this early and well and in fact they have showed no serious difficulty to learn this tense. In fact what Kleinmann has been trying to prove is the moderate version of CAH which Oller & Ziahosseiny have proposed in their study. Regarding the studies in this field, it can be understood that CA suffers from the following pitfalls:

1. Many of the difficulties predicted by CA do not show up in the actual learner performance at all.

2. Besides, most of the errors produced by learners are not predicted by CA.

Consequently, regarding the discussions mentioned above, it is possible to claim that the only valid version of CA has to be “a posteriori”, i.e., the role of CA has to be explanatory, not “a priori” or predictive.

8. Simplification Hypothesis

Some errors, when committed by learners, may indicate the idea that they are the evidence of a strategy by the learner to simplify their expressions; therefore,

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⁹⁵ Ibid. P: 99.
they do not indicate transfer of L1 and L2. Errors such as omitting articles, copulas, and other forms often seem to involve simplification rather than transfer. The notion indicates that language learners in their attempt to simplify their learning process and to convey their ideas delete some of the items from a sentence. However, it is highly difficult to identify the difference between transfer and simplification and in some cases they overlap.

Dulay and Burt seem to support the idea that simplification is the result of a general learning strategy common to both children and adults. To this idea, they propose that the language learner possesses a specific type of innate mental organization which causes him to use a limited class of processing strategies to produce utterances in a language. This implies that the system resorts the learners to simplify their utterances as they do in their L1.

Simplification, as Richards states, tends to increase the generality of rules through extending their range of application, and through dropping rules of limited application. In a study on Indonesian and Malay subjects, Richards traced the process of simplification and complexification. He believes that the analysis of learner's errors indicate that the learner develops for himself a universal learning strategy by which he can do the maximum amount of work by fewest number of rules. This strategy is observable in both child language and second language learner. However, he asserts "Both child and adult learning of a foreign language illustrate another universal principle- the tendency toward simplification of the rules of the language by the language learner, accompanied by a parallel pressure towards complexification of the rule system". He moreover claims that the cause of one type of overgeneralization of rules is the strategy that the learner employs in order to reduce his linguistic burden or in other words, to simplify his learning processes.


Simplification, having been called facilitation, has been ignored by most scholars in their studies. The reason is that they have concentrated on errors and this indicates the differences or the difficulties. It leads us to the idea that the facilitative effect of language is more distinctive when the two languages such as English-French or Chinese-Japanese share a large number of cognates.

To investigate facilitation in language learning, Ellis\(^9^9\) refers to some studies, one of which was performed by Gass. She investigated 17 adult learners of L2 English with diverse language backgrounds. The data related to their performance of relative clauses were gathered, and resumptive pronoun as the evidence of transfer effect could be observed. She classified her subjects into two groups according to whether their L1 allowed pronoun retention (Persian or Arabic) or did not (French and Italian). It was concluded that the first group showed a tendency to preserve the pronoun in the relative clause construction. The learners in the second group, whose languages, like English, did not allow pronoun retention, made fewer errors in a sentence-joining task. All this implied that pronoun retention is a facilitative device performed by the first group.

Having the same goal, Hyltenstam (1984), stated in Ellis\(^1^0^0\), fulfilled a study on 45 adult learners from five language groups learning Swedish as their L2. Swedish, like English, does not allow pronoun retention. Hyltenstam used pictures to elicit oral sentences for each relativizable function. The results indicated that pronominal retention occurred among all, irrespective of their L1, but the frequencies differed. The Persian learners produced the most than the Greek, and then Spanish and finally Finnish learners the fewest. The results of this study are, in fact, in proportion with structural properties of the learners' native language.

\(^9^9\) Op Cit, P: 303.
\(^1^0^0\) Ibid, P: 303.

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9. The Ignorance Hypothesis

As a further problem of CA, the ignorance hypothesis, indicates that some errors emerge as a result of training or learner's lack of enough knowledge on the specific subject. This is asserted that some errors are not the result of language transfer, but they emerge from other sources such as "transfer of training" i.e., the influences that arise from the way a learner is taught\(^{101}\). Moreover, Newmark and Reibel\(^{102}\) elaborate this phenomenon as being:

A Person knows how to speak one language, say his native one; but in the early stages of learning his new one, there are many things that he has not yet learned to do…. What can he do other than what he already knows to make up for what he does not know? To an observer who knows the target language, the learner will be seen to be stubbornly substituting the native habits. But from the learner's point of view, all he is doing is the best he can do: to fill in his gaps of training he refers for help to what he already knows.

James\(^{103}\) postulates that "The Ignorance Hypothesis" is proposed by Duskova. He, in observing Czech learners, concludes that learners refrain from making errors on the production level simply because they escape from using certain forms. He continues that "Learners who have had bad experience of failure or of tenacious difficulty over some L2 structures will not go on committing errors, but will avoid the structure in question by resorting to paraphrase, or to some near-equivalent".

In late 60s and early 70s the criticism against the validity of CA especially the strong claim of CAH began. It was first questioned if CA could correctly predict all the errors due to native language interference and also its usefulness to language teachers, curriculum designers, and textbook writer was questioned. It was stated that many errors were due to other causes. It significantly fails to predict the intralingual errors as well as the errors arising from the particular teaching and learning strategies and other causes. These criticisms and others mentioned above finally led to the theory of error analysis which provided the

\(^{101}\) See Selinker, 1972; Stenson, 1974; Felix, 1981.
necessary background to analyze the sources of errors more clearly and help theorists and textbook writers to resort to reliable hypothesis for the interpretation of the sources of errors.

H. Error Analysis

1. Theoretical Assumptions

In the 1970s, EA which sought to predict the errors that learners made by identifying the linguistic differences between L1 and the TL supplemented CA. Because of the drawbacks discussed in the previous chapters, CA became unpopular, and EA was introduced as a remedy. Like the child struggling to acquire his language, the second language learner is also trying out successive hypothesis about the nature of the target language and from this viewpoint, the learner's errors (or hypothesis) are not only inevitable, but are a necessary part of the language-learning process. Besides errors help the teacher to understand how close he is to the goals and what has to be emphasized; they provide the required data to the researcher to understand how language is learned, and finally they bear helpful indications to the learner himself. However, it was not until 1970s that EA became a substantial part of applied linguistics, a development that owed too much to the work of S. Pit Corder. He by presenting a different notion of 'error' states that an error is based on the 'substantial similarities between the strategies employed by the infant learning his native language, and those of the second language learner'.

Gass & Selinker\textsuperscript{104} argue that errors are not just the product of imperfect learning, nor are they a reflection of faulty imitation. Rather, they can be considered as learner's attempt to impose an underlying system which is rule-governed.

One of the most important application of EA is using its results in language teaching. The position of EA in pedagogy is justified by stating that the study of

\textsuperscript{103} Op Cit, P: 22.  
\textsuperscript{104} Op Cit, P: 99.
errors is a basic part of applied linguistics. It provides a validation of the findings of contrastive linguistics. Wilkins¹⁰⁵, quoting the results of some studies, has argued that there is no necessity for a prior comparison of grammar and that an error-based analysis is satisfactory enough, more fruitful, and less time consuming. It is added that bilingual comparison is based on the theory that it is the difference between the mother tongue and the second language which the learner is to learn. Contrastive studies are undertaken in order to discover or describe the differences while EA confirms or falsifies the predictions of the theory behind bilingual comparison.

**a. Error Analysis Significance**

Errors, as Corder¹⁰⁶ believes, can be significant in three ways: 1) they provide the teacher with information about how much the learner has learned; 2) they provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned; 3) they serve as devices by which the learner discovers the rules of the target language. He elsewhere postulates that “errors provide feedback; they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques, and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or need further attention.”

The notion of using errors as a major pedagogical tool was based on three arguments:

1) EA does not suffer from the inherent limitations of CA restrictions or errors caused by interlingual transfer

2) EA, unlike CA, provides data on actual, attested problems and not hypothetical problems and therefore forms a more efficient and economical basis for designing pedagogical strategies.

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3) EA is not confronted with complex theoretical problems encountered by CA e.g. the problem of equivalence.

Moreover, EA has to concern itself with the applied goal of correcting and eradicating the learner’s errors, the systematic study of which gives valuable indications of language learning strategies and hypothesis. The systematic analysis and classification of errors can be of great application in error prediction which is of great importance and utility to language teacher.

Sridhar\textsuperscript{107} claims that the goal of EA is quite pragmatic. By identifying the areas of difficulty for the learners, EA could serve in the following ways:

1. determining the sequence of presentation of target items in textbook and classroom
2. identifying the level of emphasis, explanation and practice
3. providing complementary lessons and exercise
4. selecting items for testing the learners’ proficiency.

It is important to know that EA does not explain anything explicitly. It shows error types, not why they occur. In order to understand why they occur the information provided by CA is necessary. In other words, both CA and EA have to be incorporated for the analysis of errors and identifying the sources of those errors.

The significance of errors and their frequent occurrence can bring a lot of indications for the language teacher. If a regular pattern of errors could be observed in the performance of all learners in a certain context, the errors could be interpreted as not evidence of failure, but of success and achievement in learning. They signify the points which are considered difficult, and where the L2 learners show more resistance in learning a certain item as a result of various factors by casting light on the high frequency of errors.

b. The Notion of an Error: Error or Mistake

As the first step to understand what an error is, let’s differentiate between a mistake and an error. A mistake takes place when learners fail to perform their competence. It is performance phenomenon which can be the result of memory limitation, competing plans, and lack of automaticity, or it can be a one-time-only event, and the speaker who makes a mistake can recognize it as a mistake and correct it if necessary. But an error is systematically produced by a learner and is not recognized as an error. Corder\textsuperscript{108} defines an error as being: “...error tends to be reserved for wilful and negligible breaches of a rule which is known, or ought to be known, or is thought to be known by the offender.” On the other hand, Els\textsuperscript{109} believes that it is not always easy to identify errors. He adds that “the notion of error presupposes a norm, and norms, in turn, are dependent on, amongst other things, the medium (spoken or written language), the social context (formal or informal), and the relation between the speaker and the hearer (symmetrical or asymmetrical)”. In the same way Nickel\textsuperscript{110} confirms that it is not easy to clearly differentiate between an error and a mistake. Strevens in Tran-Thi-Chau\textsuperscript{111} claims that the identification of an error in nature is subjective, and adds that for two educated native speakers it is possible to differ whether items are acceptable or unacceptable and whether they should be counted as errors or not. Besides, the strategy employed by Tran-Thi-Chau\textsuperscript{112} in order to determine acceptability or non-acceptability of an error is using native speakers. Tran-Thi-Chau believes that an acceptable utterance is one that has been or might be produced by a native speaker in a context. However, it is stated that there may be certain sentences that are grammatical but meaningless or that there are many sentences found in fairy tales and science fiction which would be unacceptable in everyday English.

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\textsuperscript{108} Op Cit. P: 47.
\textsuperscript{109} Op Cit. P: 5.
\textsuperscript{110} Op Cit. P: 122.
\textsuperscript{111} Ibid. P: 122.
Jain\textsuperscript{113} states that errors, being systematic and asystematic, can be emerged in a third form which can be labeled as mistakes. To this idea, it is added that:

Besides systematic and asystematic errors, the learner, like the native speaker, seems to make unsystematic errors too. They are slips of tongue or pen caused purely by psychological conditions, such as intense excitement, and/or physiological factors, such as tiredness, which change from moment to moment and from situation to situation: errors under these circumstances are ipso facto unsystematic. From the pedagogic point of view, one may usefully dismiss them as 'mistake'...

Lennon\textsuperscript{114} in interpreting error definition, identification, and distinction believes that there are a lot of controversies in these issues and finally he tries to present his own definition of what an error is in the following way: "a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts."

It has to be understood that errors are only errors from a teacher's or researcher's perspective, not from a learner's, meaning that an error by referring to the learner's interlanguage can not be interpreted as error, but regarding L2 norms, they are considered as deviant forms. In fact this is the learners' interlanguage which may determine the domain of the error and its seriousness, and judgments based on some already determined norms will not suffice.

2. Sources of Errors

The most dominant classification of errors, as it has been observed up to here, is categorizing them into two groups of interlingual or intralingual. Intralingual errors, also known as developmental errors, are those errors which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules

\textsuperscript{113} Op Cit, P: 206.
apply. But interlingual errors are defined to be those errors which result from the transfer of learner’s native language rule into the L2.

a. Types of Intralingual errors

Intralingual errors demonstrate the learner’s effort to build up hypothesis about the L2 based on his limited experience or training. These errors, as Richards suggests, have been classified into four basic groups:

1. **Over-generalization or transfer** happens when the learner uses a “previously available strategy in new situations”. In other words, these errors are the instances of the cases where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. Although these overgeneralizations can sometimes be useful and help the L2 learners, there are some others which can be impossible to apply to any context and as a result will become misleading. The examples, as Richards states, are the cases such as *he can sings*, or *we are hope*. He discusses that sometimes overlearning of a certain structure, simplicity, and redundancy reduction can be introduced as the main causes of this phenomenon.

2. **Ignorance of Rule Restriction** is the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. *I made him to do it* or *the man whom I saw him* ignores restrictions of certain rules which are not suitable for this context. However, it may be noted that these are also the result of analogy or overgeneralization.

3. **Incomplete Application of Rules** is “the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterances.” For example, a question form sentence may be produced in statement form. The question marker, i.e., the auxiliary is taken as a redundant feature and as a result dropped out. The cause of this phenomenon is explained by Richards as being: “The second language learner interested perhaps primarily in communication can achieve quite efficiently communication without the need for mastering more than the elementary rules of question usage.” He adds that
motivation to achieve communication may exceed motivation to produce grammatically correct sentences.

4. False Concepts Hypothesized is in fact the faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. For example, any -ing form among Iranian learners of English, as we will observe in the following chapters, is an indication of progression. Or as what Richards states for example, the form *was* may be taken as a marker of the past tense and *one day it was happened* can be an indication of the past.

b. The diversity of Inter-Intra classification

It has also been claimed that it is not always possible to distinguish the sources of errors as interlingual, or intralingual. There can be observed a lot of controversies among the scholars who have discussed the sources and the main causes of errors. In the following, some of the assumptions concerning the sources of errors committed more frequently and the way these errors can be interpreted will be brought into view.

Ellis*, suggesting that an error can be applied to both these two phenomena, i.e. inter and intra, proposes a doubtful account of the difference between the concept of transfer as it is and intralingual: “where one researcher identifies the source of an error as transfer, another researcher identifies the source of the same error as intralingual.” As a result, one major criticism of the WV of CA is that this hypothesis lacks the predictive power and without it, the hypothesis is a contradiction. Moreover, it fails to determine the exact source of errors. Of these controversies, it is concluded that if clear explanatory statements about errors are often not possible, the value of EA as a tool for investigating L2 acquisition is questionable.

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116 See also Els, 1984; Ellis, 1994; Richards, 1974; Lennon, 1991.
117 Op Cit, P: 62.
Ellis adds that CA from the very beginning of its development has shown a strong tendency to assert that any L2 error that showed a similarity to an L1 item was the result of transfer. To make the point clear, Ellis quotes an example of Jackson who believes that non-inverted wh-questions i.e., how I do this? were evidence of the L1 influence in Punjabi-speaking learners of English. It is concluded that the results like this are not valid unless we can prove that these errors are not developmental. In other words, it seems to be a controversial issue to assign a certain source to most errors that are committed by most L2 learners of English and the tendency to assign both sources of inter and intra to most errors is in fact overcoming this great deficiency of error classification.

Odlin, to present his own taxonomy of errors, suggests three classes or sources for learners' errors:
1. Substitution when using native-language forms in the target language.
2. Calques are errors that reflect very closely a native language structure.
3. Alternation of structure which may also cause hypercorrection.

Dulay and Burt have claimed that most of the errors they have observed in their study with children studying English as a second language were 'developmental', like those made by native speakers in learning their own first language, and a few could be considered "genuine cases of interference." They put errors under three categories: developmental, interference, and unique, the errors which are neither developmental nor interference.

Errors, contrary to what they look, are not easy to identify. In other words, to decide if a language form is erroneous or not depends on some factors which in most cases is hard to decide. There are some reasons for this claim. For example, for something which is assumed to be an error in isolation can be acceptable in context. The notion of context in distinguishing errors is very important. A sentence may have no apparent and formal sign of error, and may still be regarded erroneous. It is in fact the context that determines an utterance faulty or not. Well-

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formed sentences produced by native speakers are mostly ambiguous when taken out of context.

Likewise, Lennon\textsuperscript{121} has asserted that identifying errors is not always possible and to support this, he presents the experiment conducted by Hughes and Lascaratou (1982). They presented thirty two erroneous and four correct sentences to a panel of thirty judges, ten of whom were Greek teachers of English, ten native-speaker teachers of English, and ten native-speaker non-teachers. The panel found that one of the ‘correct’ sentences, \textit{neither of us feels quite happy}, was judged erroneous by two Greek teachers, three native-speaker teachers, and five of the non-teacher native speakers. There was also another sentence over which the panel did not come to an agreement and that was the sentence, \textit{the boy went off in a faint}, taken from Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English. It was judged erroneous by two Greek teachers, nine native-speaker teachers, and nine native speaker non-teacher\textsuperscript{122}. And as a result, Lennon concludes that because of the considerable variations which can be found even among native speakers, identification of errors is not an easy task.

Ellis\textsuperscript{123}, quoting Corder, asserts that an error can be overt or covert. An overt error, as he states, is easy to identify because the deviation is not always clear. On the other hand, a covert error occurs when an utterance or piece of writing is apparently well-formed, but “which do not mean what the learner intended them to mean e.g. ‘it was stopped’ is grammatically correct, but ill-formed as it refers to ‘the wind’.”

Jain\textsuperscript{124} presents three distinct types of errors according to the patterns under which they occur. The errors, being rule-governed, fall into definite patterns and show a consistent system. These \textit{systematic} errors are internally principled and are free from arbitrariness. On the other hand, there are instances of errors, called \textit{asystematic} errors, as opposed to systematic and unsystematic errors, which above

\textsuperscript{120} Op Cit. P: 131
\textsuperscript{121} Op Cit, PP: 180-196.
\textsuperscript{122} Ibid. P: 182.
\textsuperscript{123} Op Cit. P: 52.
all are not consistent, nor are they rule-governed. In other words, it is not possible to give any hypothesis for production and formation of these errors. Unsystematic errors or mistakes have no consistency in their production and it is not possible to trace their sources according to certain rules.

Ellis\textsuperscript{125} postulates that the taxonomy proposed by Corder in judging the sources of an error has been considered as a promising one having been adapted by most analysts. He distinguishes three types of errors according to their systemacity:

1. Presystemic errors occur when the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language. They are random.
2. Systematic errors occur when the learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one.
3. Postsystematic errors occur when the learner knows the correct target language rule but uses it inconsistently. He can correct himself.

To what Corder suggests Ellis adds that type one errors occur when the learner can not give any account of why a particular form is chosen. Type two occurs when the learner is unable to correct the errors, but can explain the mistaken rule used, and type three occurs when the learner can explain the target language rule that is normally used.

Another approach which above all "provides an indication of the cognitive processes that underlie the learners' reconstruction of the L2" is the one proposed by Duly, Burt, and Krashen\textsuperscript{126}. They put errors into four categories:

1. Omission: the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance
2. Addition: the presence of an item that must not appear
3. Misinformations: the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure
4. Misorderings: the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance.

\textsuperscript{124} Op Cit, PP: 202-203
\textsuperscript{125} Op Cit, P: 56.
Ellis\textsuperscript{127}, meanwhile, casts doubt on Duly, Bert, and Krashen's taxonomy as it presupposes that learners operate "on the surface structure of the target language rather than create their own, unique structures." He moreover adds: "if a surface strategy does not represent mental processes, it is not clear what values it has."

To overcome the pitfalls of the taxonomies, mentioned here, the following is proposed as a more promising classification:

1) 'Overextension of analogy' occurs when the learner misuses an item because it shares features with an item in the L2. 2) 'Transfer of structure arises when the learner utilizes some L2 features rather than the target language. 3) 'Interlingual/intralingual errors arise when a particular distinction does not exist in the L1.

It has to be pointed out that over-generalization of target language rules is a phenomenon in which a language learner extends an already learned rule to other contexts. The examples below can make the point clear:

*What did he intended to say?

*Max is happier than Sam's these days.

It can be understood that in these errors one rule is extended or overgeneralized to other situations.

Jain\textsuperscript{128} examines different aspects of errors of different types and tries to shed light on not the errors but on some teaching learning strategies because of which errors find their way in learners' performance. To this purpose, Jain states that second language learners in their attempt to acquire L2 system reduce the target language rules into simpler system through generalizations which are most of the time "restricted in nature and carry with them potential errors through over-application of these generalizations." One significant example of over-application of rules is discussing the noun class in English as having been generalized either as count or non-count. Meanwhile, examples are presented from the contexts where this rule can not be easily applied and consequently errors of various types emerge.

\textsuperscript{127} Op Cit. P: 56.
\textsuperscript{128} Op Cit. PP: 190-91.
Dulay and Burt\textsuperscript{129} in a study proved that most errors, contrary to what behaviorists believed that errors were viewed as the result of the negative transfer of L1 habits, were intralingual. As an example, they in their study gathered five hundred and thirteen unambiguous errors of Spanish children. They occurred in six syntactic structures which differed in English and Spanish. The errors were classified as ‘developmental’, ‘interference’, and ‘unique’. In each case, the developmental (intralingual) errors overweighed the interference ones. This suggested the idea that “L1 and L2 acquisition were very similar.” A similar study was carried out by Tran-Thi-Chau\textsuperscript{130} who proved that most errors committed by learners are inter not intra with the proportion of 51 to 29 percent. This claim is also supported by Richards\textsuperscript{131} when he asserts that one-third of the deviant sentences could be attributed to transfer. This can be concluded that CA can explain or predict not more than half of the errors.

The study performed by Dommergues et al\textsuperscript{132} tried to trace the sources of two major type of errors: Interlingual or over-generalization or analogy errors and errors as a result of interference. They conclude that “Relatively errors decrease monotonically with increasing mastery of the second language whereas analogy [intra-] errors first increase and then decrease.” They finally suggest that morphosyntactic errors are highly predictable when the involvement of both interference and analogy are taken into account. They continue by adding that when a student is presented with an ungrammatical sentence in his second language, the chance that he will accept it as correct depends not only on interference and analogy but also on the stage he has reached in mastering that language. Consequently, it has strongly been supported throughout the literature that in early stages, analogy contributes little to errors while interference is more

\textsuperscript{129} Op Cit, PP: 129-136.
\textsuperscript{130} Op Cit, P: 135.

active, while in later stages, i.e., intermediate and advanced, intra- or analogy is more active. In the same manner, Ellis\textsuperscript{133} quotes Taylor (1975) whose idea is in proportion with what was stated above. He has claimed that learners at elementary levels produce more transfer errors rather than intra. But this is reverse when learners are at intermediate and advanced levels. At these levels, errors are intralingual (over-generalization).

On the whole, this is a hard task to identify the sources of intra-errors. The cause of this problem is diversified and complex such as the chronological order or introduction of the structures, teaching techniques, type of learner, and so on and it is not possible to reveal these errors by the techniques of EA and therefore are judged subjectively by any individual analyst.

Lennon\textsuperscript{134} in his attempt to define and distinguish errors has initiated a new dimension to the field. In this respect, he gives an account of the domain and extent of errors. He states that the domain of the error refers to the amount of (linguistic or non-linguistic) context the hearer needs to recognize the error while extent refers to the amount of linguistic context that the speaker needs to refashion in order to repair the error. In other words, the domain of the error, as he postulates, is the rank of linguistic unit which must be taken as context in order for the error to become apparent. The unit discussed here may extend from the morpheme to the sentence and to the units of discourse. On the other hand, the extent is applied to the rank of the linguistic unit, from minimally the morpheme to maximally the sentence, which have to be deleted, replaced, reordered, or supplied in order to repair production. For example, morphological, prepositional, and article errors have the same extent which is limited to the word but to understand the domain of the errors, some larger linguistic units are necessary.

On the whole, a number of different sources of competence errors can be concluded from the discussion made here:

\textsuperscript{133} Op Cit. P: 62.
\textsuperscript{134} Op Cit. PP: 180-196.
1) *Interference errors* which occur as a result of "the use of elements from one language while speaking another."

2) *Intralingual errors* which "reflect the general characteristics of rule learning like faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply" have been considered as the main source of errors. These type of errors are most of all observable when learners apply deviant L2 rules on the basis of other structures in the TL. This phenomenon is applicable to all aspects of language such as phonology, syntax and lexicon.

3) *Developmental errors* occur when the learner attempts to build up hypothesis about the target language on the basis of limited experience.

As can be understood from the classification presented here, most of the studies follow the same strategy and consider one goal in depth: concentrating on two major error types of inter and intra as they build up the majority of the corpus of errors committed by different learners although different terms have been used to label them. Two great disagreements observable among these studies are that the proportion of inter and intra errors differ from one study to the other and the other is the inability of pertaining certain sources or causes to these errors.

### 3. Criticism of EA

**a. Priority of Errors in EA**

The most important problem of EA has been stated to be its too much concentration on errors.\(^{135}\) To this idea, Els adds that we, in our analyzing learners' errors, concentrate on what they haven't been able to do correctly, and no attention is paid to what they are successful at. In other words, as Brown\(^{136}\) puts it, "the danger of EA goes to the teacher who gives too much attention to the errors committed by their learners, and ignoring the value of positive reinforcement of clear, free communication." He moreover adds that another defect of EA is concentrating on specific languages rather than viewing universal aspect of

\(^{135}\) See also Els, 1984; Ziahosseini, 1994; Brown, 1994.
language. Ziahosseini\textsuperscript{137}, referring to some deficiencies of EA, states that EA above all is concerned with errors and learners' success is neglected. It is not preventive indicating that it allows learners to commit errors.

Meanwhile, Nickel\textsuperscript{138} on the use of IL and its application in language teaching states that any IL consists of a great quantity of correct items that are normally worth mentioning, but it is observed that "in many school systems all over the world there is unfortunately still more importance given to the negative [errors] than to the positive aspects."

\textbf{b. The Problem of Classification}

Another deficiency of EA is stated to be its inability to clearly determine the area in which any definite error occurs concerning learners having different L2.\textsuperscript{139} For Example, omitting an article in English may be a case of simplification with a Spanish speaker but a case of transfer with a Korean Speaker. However, as it is hard enough, EA is not capable of classifying errors under certain categories such as syntactic, morphosyntactic, or lexical. In most cases they overlap.

Additionally, EA has been criticized as 1) it has methodological deficiencies; 2) it lacks explanatory ability; 3) the output of most error analysts are simply lists of categories of errors classified according to frequency of occurrence. Besides, it is criticized as it does not differentiate between explicit ideas that a language learner knows and the implicit application of rules in actual performance; thus, most of it is based on the explicit rules the language learner recognizes and alters his errors, but at the same time retains them in actual L2 use.

Moreover, Ziahosseini\textsuperscript{140} maintains that a learner, in his struggle to learn, has to go through three stages: learn the wrong item, forget the wrong item, and relearn the correct one while the third step does not always happen. Besides, there

\textsuperscript{137} Op Cit. P: 131.
\textsuperscript{138} Op Cit. P: 3
\textsuperscript{140} Op Cit. P: 131.
exists high correlation between difficulty and avoidance and to clearly identify learner's errors is not a workable procedure as there is the danger of escaping from what is called learners' errors. EA does not help beginners who have not learned enough to make errors.

Another pitfall of EA, as it is put by Brown\textsuperscript{141} is that only production errors are extracted and discussed, not comprehension ones. He adds that the reason is clear: errors of production are capable of being investigated, but there has been no serious attempt to consider comprehension errors.

Lennon\textsuperscript{142} likewise criticizes the traditional error analysis as it is not capable of distinguishing the errors and their areas as well. To support this claim, he conducts an experiment in which he investigates a spoken L2 corpus of approximately 21,000 words for errors. They were produced by four female advanced German learners aged between 20-24 based on picture story sequences. Of these words, 568 unambiguous errors were identified. 208 doubtful errors and these were submitted to a panel of six native speakers for acceptability judgments. To provide panel members with the extra-linguistic context, they were given the relevant picture story as a handout. They did not consult with each other. The result showed disagreement in many cases among panel members. For example, 103 cases were rejected by all six members but 53 cases by five members and 22 only by four members and finally 14 cases rejected by three and 5 by two members of the panel. This diverse disagreement among the members of the panel indicated the idea that first distinguishing errors and also their areas is not a simple task.

The results of this experiment and other ideas confirm that classification of errors suffer first from methodological deficiencies and second to identify errors clearly and with enough certainty in some situations is a difficult task. The labels which are used to define errors also overlap and they differ from one group of learners with a certain L2 background to another group with another L2

\textsuperscript{141} Op Cit. P: 206.
\textsuperscript{142} Op Cit. PP: 180-196.
background and therefore, to make generalizations about the errors types of learners with different L2 experience is not possible.

c. Cross-sectional or Longitudinal Studies

Ellis\textsuperscript{143} referring to one serious limitation of EA, observes that one main problem of EA studies is that most studies concerning error analysis and classification are cross-sectional. To this he adds that little care has been taken to separate out the errors made by learners at different stages of development. As a result, EA has not proved very effective in helping us understand how learners develop a knowledge of an L2 over time. He, moreover, suggests that EA can be used in longitudinal studies. To elaborate the difference between cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, it has to be pointed out that a cross-sectional study generally consists of data gathering from a large number of speakers at a single point in time while longitudinal studies are generally case studies with data being collected from a single speaker (or a small number of speakers) over a prolonged period of time. Because cross-sectional data involve large numbers of subjects, there is an experimental format to the researcher. Results tend to be more quantitative and less descriptive than in longitudinal studies, with statistical analysis and their interpretation being integral part of the research report. However, both these types of studies have their own advantages and disadvantages. Tarone\textsuperscript{144} postulates that cross-sectional data provides reliable information about the shared patterns which are most frequently repeated among large bodies of learners; however, there is this danger that the final data “may obscure important patterns of variation over time and across individuals, and patterns such as the influence of one part of the IL system upon another”. One advantage of cross-sectional approach is the disadvantage of longitudinal data. Because there are large number of subjects in the former, it is possible to generalize the results to wider groups.

\textsuperscript{143} Op Cit. P: 98.
\textsuperscript{144} Op Cit. P: 116.
The disadvantage has been stated to be the fact that detailed information about the subjects and their environment is not provided.

Avoiding errors has been considered as one of the most important deficiencies of EA and this is assumed to be one major difficulty that the error analysis deals with in investigation of all L2 learners in general and Farsi learners of English in particular. Their avoiding strategy affects their performance which will have its own effects on the obtained data and the results of the studies.

d. The Avoidance Hypothesis

Avoided errors are those types of linguistic forms which language learners, as a result of some strategies, prefer to escape from. These linguistic forms, if applied by these learners, will have them produce erroneous utterances. Therefore, they prefer not to use them. As Brown \(^{145}\) puts it "they (learners) refrain from expressing their ideas freely using any possible and necessary structure, the acquisition of which has been judged to be more complicated. This happens very frequently as correct forms are overstressed , and learners’ communicative fluency is ignored". Moreover, he, quoting Jacqueline Schachter (1984) and others, states that one disadvantage of error analysis is its disability at revealing learners’ specific errors which they escape from. This procedure is called “The Strategy of Avoidance”.

Ellis \(^{146}\) observes that three manifestation of transfer are: facilitation or simplification, avoidance (underproduction) and over-use. In other words, he believes when learners employ a certain language form more frequently or less than usual, it will normally be an evidence of transfer. It is, however, added that the identification of avoidance is not easy and “it only makes sense to talk of avoidance if the learners know what they are avoiding.”

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\(^{145}\) Op Cit, PP: 206-7

\(^{146}\) Op Cit, P: 302.
Odlin confirming this idea contends that two manifestation of avoidance are 'underproduction' in which learners may produce very few or no examples of the TL structure or 'overproduction', being sometimes the consequence of underproduction, in which some structures are overused.

Corder observes that one important defect of error analysis is the incapability of this procedure to measure what learners refrain from revealing. He asserts that “...the learner himself will place limitations upon the data we work with by selecting from his actual repertoire, where possible, only those aspects of his knowledge which he has most confidence in.” He finally concludes that the learner “will not reveal his hand.”

When ESL students do get to write, teachers tend to view the resulting text as final product to evaluate, which conveys to students the message that the function of writing is to produce texts for teachers to evaluate, not to communicate meaningfully with another person; Thus, when the learners are struggling with the notion of evaluation, the tendency to avoid certain forms seems to be expected or in some situations inevitable.

Schachter in her study comparing Persian, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and American learners of English in using adjective clauses, has concluded that Chinese and Japanese learners have control over adjective clauses and make fewer errors in using them while Arabic and Persian learners do not. She reasoned out that the use of adjective clauses in Persian and Arabic is similar to English while this is different in Chinese and Japanese. In this case, the latter group place the adjective clause before the noun it modifies, and as a result of this difference, Japanese and Chinese learners on the one hand do not use these clauses very frequently, and on the other hand, they use it cautiously and with a high degree of accuracy. To this idea, Schachter in Seliger has claimed that her study has proved that Japanese and Chinese speakers had avoided relative clauses, which

147 Op Cit. P. 37.
148 Op Cit. P. 60.
were troublesome for them, because of the differences between their L1 and English. We can reason it out that one major cause of committing fewer errors by these learners is their avoiding strategy and applying those structures which can fulfill their needs. This supports the fact that the number of errors committed by language learners does not always indicate difficulty as they can simply avoid most structures assumed to be difficult.

However, CA can be a fairly good predictor of avoidance. In other words, different and normally difficult items are avoided by language learners and this can be an almost valid indication of the items more frequently escaped from by the L2 learners.

The phenomenon of avoidance is discussed by Ellis\textsuperscript{151} by quoting Kamintoo, Shimura, and Kellerman's study (1992) in which they have argued that even demonstrating knowledge of a structure is not sufficient. They state that Hebrew speakers of English may know how to use the passive, but their infrequent use of it in the L2 may simply reflect their preference for active over passive in L1 Hebrew rather than avoidance. To this Seliger\textsuperscript{152} adds that avoidance is a purposeful activity and continues that we can be certain that avoidance has taken place if the learners know what they are avoiding and he adds that having the knowledge of a particular structure is not enough. This notion supports the study performed by Kamintoo, Shimura, and Kellerman with Hebrew learners of English.

Moreover, to support this idea, Kleinmann\textsuperscript{153} conducts a study including three groups of learners: Arabic versus Spanish/Portuguese speakers comparing the use of passive, present progressive, infinitive complements, and direct object pronouns among these learners. The point to be noticed here is the fact that Kleinmann, in his study, ascertained that these learners already knew the structures in comparison concluding that the differential behavior between them in terms of

\textsuperscript{150} Op Cit, P: 28.
\textsuperscript{151} Op Cit, P: 305.
\textsuperscript{152} Op Cit, P: 29.
\textsuperscript{153} Op Cit, PP: 93-107.
using or not using a particular language form or structure could not be attributed to the lack of knowledge but rather it could be traced back to their L1.

Kellerman\textsuperscript{154} believes that there are three types of avoidance in language learners. Type 1 occurs when learners know or anticipate that there is a problem and have at least a sketchy idea of what the target form is like. Type 2 can occur when learners know what the target is but find it too difficult to use in the particular circumstances. To make the point clear, the researcher can make a reference to the situations in which Iranian learners are questioned as to why they don’t use certain linguistic forms in their writings and seriously try to avoid them although they are already familiar with these forms. They simply answer that it is only the difficulty of these forms which prevents them from applying them and sends them towards avoidance. And finally type 3 happens when learners know what and how to say, but they don’t show any tendency to use it which is against their own norms of behaviour. He concludes “the extent of learner’s knowledge of the L2 and the attitudes learners hold toward their own and the target language cultures act as factors that interact with L1 knowledge to determine avoidance behaviour.”

One major reason of applying cloze tests by Henning\textsuperscript{155} in his study with Iranian students is the fact that in such a case learners cannot escape from their problems. In other words, Henning exposes the learners to the problematic linguistic forms which they normally prefer to escape from. It implicitly indicates that other possible test forms naturally suffer from one major defect: learners avoiding to reveal their problems.

Els\textsuperscript{156} on discussing the drawback of EA contends by stating that “some L2 learners phenomena can not be captured at all by EA.” He adds that “avoidance does not lead to errors, but to under-representation of words or structures in L2 elements for various reasons.”

\textsuperscript{154} Op Cit, PP: 82-3.
Another remedy, as suggested by Oller in gathering data in error analysis is resorting learners to free composition production. In this case, "the learner can deliberately avoid linguistic areas in which he feels uncertain. He adds that like tests, productive material (translation, precis, paraphrase, re-telling stories) is error-provoking whereas spontaneous production (free composition) is error-avoiding.

To confirm what Corder suggested, according to an unpublished study performed by the author in Kerman Islamic Azad University, 142 writings belonging to Persian English learners (PELs) in their third term of majoring English were analyzed in the use or avoidance of certain clauses and it revealed interesting facts about them. These learners aged between 18-27, fourteen male and 128 female, having been classified into four teaching groups instructed by the same teacher, were wanted to respond to a few topics presented to them. The topics included the titles such as:

- University cafeteria should be able to provide meals at lower cost than private restaurants.
- Smoking is harmful to our health.
- Traveling is refreshing.
- To want to is to be able to.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The area of usage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tr>
<td>Adjective Clauses</td>
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<td>Who in subject position</td>
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<tr>
<td>Whom in object position</td>
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<td>124</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicating the areas avoided by PELs

156 Op Cit, P: 63.
added that “although L1-L2 similarity and inherent complexity (...) have a role, the only factor that consistently predicts avoidance is L1-L2 difference.”

Another study by Dagut and Laufer in Gass & Selinker\textsuperscript{161} with Hebrew speakers has confirmed that avoidance above all is related to the complexity of the structure being used in L2. On working with these speakers in using phrasal verbs which do not exist in Hebrew, Dagut and Laufer proposed that these learners “preferred the one-word equivalent of the phrasal verbs (\textit{enter, remove, save, stop, disappoint, confuse}). Within the category of phrasal verbs, they preferred those that are more semantically transparent (e.g. \textit{come in, take away}) to those that are less transparent (\textit{let down, mix up}).” They finally came to the conclusion that the complexity of the target language structure had a greater impact on learners’ avoiding certain forms than did the differences between L1 and L2.

In a similar study with Dutch learners of English, similar results were drawn. Knowing that Dutch like English applies phrasal verbs, it was concluded that learners did not accept phrasal verbs when there was close similarity between Dutch and English. In this way, learners demonstrate their disbelief that another language could have a structure so similar to their L1.\textsuperscript{162}

In the light of the above discussion it can be concluded that the learners know that there is enough difference between the elements in L1 and L2 and also that this difference is sometimes very significant and that avoidance exists at three levels: 1. avoidance happens when learners know or anticipate that there is a problem. 2. when learners know what the target is but find it hard to use in the particular situation 3. when learners know what to say and how to say it but are unwilling to actually say it because it will result in violating their own norms of behavior. On the other hand, the non-occurrence of errors does not indicate that the prediction of errors in error analysis is invalid.

\textsuperscript{160} See Gass and Selinker (1994) . P: 90.
\textsuperscript{161} Ibid. P: 90.
IV. Design of the Study

A. Sources of Data

This is a cross-sectional study as the participants are not identified individuals and our domain of study is not limited to certain individuals rather we have been dealing with a large number of participants having some shared qualities and objectives in their studies and these qualities will help to make the result of the study reliable.

1. The Subjects

Three groups of 103 Iranian ELT students of B.A. II year, two groups consisting of 35 subjects each and the third group consisting of 33 participated in this experiment in Kerman Islamic Azad University, Iran. These learners had already received an average of five years of instruction in English up to high school level. At the University, they had also received instruction for two terms. It was confined only to sentence level grammar and composition. At the second year level, they were introduced to paragraph level composition practice. This normally lasts for four months, but the experiment was held after two months of instruction because the allotted time and instruction were considered enough for the learners to produce a simple paragraph and reveal their linguistic input. During this period of
two months these learners were taught by the researcher. The learners were provided with sample paragraphs. Writing strategies and techniques such as major and minor ideas, improving a topic sentence, support techniques and conclusion writing were discussed. The learners were subsequently, required to begin writing on at least three topics. Their compositions were carefully scrutinized by the researcher and some of the important syntactic errors were discussed. Their course book, Bailey and Powell's "The Practical Writer With Readings" provided the required insight on these topics. This is after these steps that the experiment proceeded.

Tables 3 & 4 demonstrate the age and the sex of 103 subjects who participated in the experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19-20</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-22</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-40</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>103</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 demonstrating the age of the subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>82.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 demonstrating the sex of the subjects

2. Placement Test

In order to determine the linguistic proficiency of the subjects involved in the experiment, an Oxford placement test, containing 100 items was administered. The test could finally classify the subjects according to the table below. The mean square of the test becomes 55.14 with a standard deviation of 8.7 and variance of 75.63. The relevant reliability of the test is calculated to be 0.679 according to Kurdar and Richardson KR-21 method.
However, the subjects, based on their scores, are finally classified under the levels stated in Table 3. As it can be concluded from the table, the subjects’ level ranges from post-intermediate to basic level with the pick around pre- and post-intermediate and elementary level. In other words, the subjects who participated in the experiment based on Oxford Placement test centered around elementary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-intermediate</td>
<td>75-80</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper-intermediate</td>
<td>72-74</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-intermediate</td>
<td>70-71</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-intermediate</td>
<td>68-69</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-intermediate</td>
<td>65-67</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-elementary</td>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundation</td>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 containing the information belonging to the subjects who participated in the experiment.

B. Methods of Data Gathering

The study is based on two sources of data: 1) grammaticality judgment test, and 2) collecting learners’ errors by analyzing their writings.

I. Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)

Ellis defines GJT as one way of obtaining data on what learners know about the L2 and this can be done by asking them to judge whether sentences are grammatically correct or not. He adds that this method is favoured by some researchers because they believe it provides information about learners’ institutions and thus caters for an internalized approach. Corder believes that grammaticality judgement test by the learner can only be based upon the grammar of his interlanguage. Schachter claims that when attempting to describe the

163 Op Cit. P: 705.
linguistic knowledge of native speakers of a language, linguists make use of two kinds of data: performance data, based on the actual linguistic production by the speaker and intuitional data based on speaker reaction to already produced sentences, such as judgments of grammaticality and ungrammaticality, paraphrase, synonym, ambiguity, etc. and now this standard tool is also applied as a scale for the measurement of non-natives' judgment power. Having some of the objectives mentioned above, the researcher has applied a GJT to obtain some information. The aim is not analyzing the errors of the participants or contrasting the structures of L1 and L2. Rather the main objective is coming to the fact that what proportion of the deviant forms that build up a part of learners' interlanguage is made up of mono and bi-source errors and moreover which error types are more difficult to recognize by the subjects. The hypothesis that the majority of erroneous internalized (fossilized) linguistic forms can be traced back to bi-source errors can be proved and moreover supported when observing the subjects' response to the different stimuli containing bi-source errors. The assumption in taking this test is that the subjects will have more difficulty to locate the errors in the sentences which contain bi-source errors than the sentences which contain mono-source ones i.e., either inter or intra errors. In other words, because the bi-source errors are the errors that are committed more frequently and also to overcome them the learners have to struggle with two intervening sources at a time, i.e., both L1 and L2 and consequently more 'difficult' to recognize and eradicate. They face more difficulties in recognizing these erroneous forms as errors than the other mono-source errors.

For this purpose, a 40-item GJT was constructed. The subjects are required to identify any incorrect items in the collection of the sentences. It has to be noted that for clarity and assurance, the subjects are required to underline the part they identify as incorrect. In this way, the researcher can be certain enough that they have consciously located the incorrect items which have been purposefully selected and placed in the sentences, not identifying the other correct parts as incorrect. The table above shows the items, the area of the errors, and the source of the
errors [appendix 4]. It can be understood from the table that the test contained 11 sentences including only interlingual errors. The deviant form below is an example of the first item in the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>Error area</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Error area</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Error area</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>error area</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>voice</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>inversion</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Preposition +</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>rel. prono.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>insertion</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>correct</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Correct</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>correct</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>Agreement</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>participle</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>noun clause</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>agreement</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Resumption</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>inversion</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>agreement</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Adv. Clause</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>deletion</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>agreement</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Relative pro.</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>inter</td>
<td>agreement</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>article deletion</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Adj. clause</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>intra</td>
<td>subordinator</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>article deletion</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>mono inter</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 including the items of the grammaticality judgment test, the area of errors and their sources, emphasizing bi-source errors

ED: Most Iranian students do not enjoy from their study in their universities.

2. Error Analysis Processes

Ellis\textsuperscript{166} has presented three methods of EA according to the size of the sample in order to collect and finally analyze errors: a) a massive sample including several samples of language use from a large number of learners in order to compile a comprehensive list of errors, representative of the entire group. b) a specific sample consists of one sample of language use from a limited number of learners, and c) an incidental sample involves only one sample of language use.

\textsuperscript{166} Op Cit, P: 49.
produced by a single learner. The present study has preferably selected the first model as we have been dealing with large groups of learners and when errors are repeated more frequently by different learners, it can be more significant than considering only one specimen. To this procedure, Lott adds that using free compositions as well as spontaneous conversations are suitable ways of identifying learners' errors, and consequently the study has preferably resorted to the data extracted from the subjects' writings.

To this purpose, the subjects who participate in the experiment, not knowing the purpose of the study, are exposed to free writing compositions and then in later steps their writing, in order to identify their errors, are analyzed and the committed errors are then cumulated and interpreted. In the next step, the collected errors are classified and provided with labels and put under scrutiny for interpretation.

a. Identification and Labeling of Errors

To fulfill the second step, i.e., identifying errors and giving certain labels to them, the researcher has preferred to analyze only morphosyntactic errors because the main goal of this research is working on errors of structure and not lexicon or phonology. Any lexical or spelling errors, not having been the topic of our discussion, have also been discarded. The norm for selecting and labeling any deviant form as "error", Lennon's interpretation has been adopted by basing our judgment on any deviation from the norms of the TL as he says: "A linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts."

Meanwhile, the samples are just examples of deviant forms selected for our purpose and to account them as our data, all errors presented have to appear more

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than five times in our analysis. In other words, the errors with low frequency are not the aim of our interpretation as they are “random errors” as Corder calls them or mistakes, the occurrence of which do not follow regular patterns.

However, Sridhar\(^\text{169}\) proposes a more simplified procedure:

1. Analysis of the sources of errors (e.g. mother tongue interference, overgeneralization, inconsistencies in the spelling system of the TL etc.)
2. Determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error (or the seriousness of the error in terms of communication, norm, etc.). However, as the errors here are considered and interpreted in similar modality and context, the communicative aspect or the contextual properties of the errors have been disregarded.

On the other hand, one of the most ordinary methods of error analysis, as Els et al\(^\text{170}\) (1984) have presented, follows the steps given below:

- Identification of errors
- Description of errors
- Explanation of errors
- Evaluation of errors
- Prevention /Correction of errors

The classification cited above is too general to include any detailed analysis of learners’ errors and besides as one of the pitfalls discussed by Els is that first it is very hard to identify errors since “the notion of errors presupposes a norm, and norms, in turn, are dependent on, amongst other things, the medium (spoken and written), the social context (formal and informal) and the relationship between the

\(^{169}\) Op Cit. P: 222.
\(^{170}\) Op Cit. P: 47.
speaker and hearer...” and it is added that for something which may be an error in isolation may be acceptable in context or vice versa. To this classification, we can also add what Corder\footnote{Op Cit, P: 370.}, as a method of describing deviations, has presented. He has discussed the following major steps which, to some extent, are similar to what has been presented above:

One) recognition of idiosyncracy,

Two) description, and

Three) explanation.

He, besides, claims that two types of errors in general can be presented and interpreted: authoritative and plausible. An authoritative interpretation is applied to the situation when we ask the learner to state his intention in mother tongue for producing a certain erroneous form while a plausible interpretation is attributed to the situation where the learner is absent, and we have to do the best we can do to infer what he intended to say from his utterance, its context, and whatever we know about him. As a result, he proposes a semantic-based model. Following this model, we understand that errors are classified according to the following format:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Graphological phonological</th>
<th>Grammatical</th>
<th>Lexico-semantic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, he, by presenting an example, claims that this method of describing errors suffers from some pitfalls, the most important of which being the fact that it does not cover perfectly all aspects of deviation. He resorts to the example of an error when a learner says:
ED: I am waiting here since three o'clock.

He states that the error here is not wrong selection or omission by selecting *am* in place of *have been*. Instead, he has selected the wrong tense as he hasn’t yet mastered the tense system of English and this problem can not be applied to any of the cases stated in the table above.

Dulay and Burt\(^{172}\) in their study proved that most intralingual errors were deviations from the norm in L2. These intralingual phenomena are investigated by studying 513 errors of 179 Spanish-speaking children between 5 and 8 years old. The data obtained showed the following deviant forms:

- Developmental errors: those errors that are similar to L1 learning errors (intra)
- Interference errors: those errors that reflect Spanish structure (inter)
- Unique errors: those errors that are neither 'developmental' nor 'interference' errors.

Considering the methods discussed above, the author has preferably resorted to the traditional EAH which can be said to have been following a uniform method of analyzing errors consisting the identification of errors and providing them with suitable labels which depends on their linguistic complexity and the exact nature of the deviation of the items.

**b. Classification of data into error types**

The next step after preparing the necessary data or gathering the errors and classifying them under certain areas or labels is subdividing the errors into their sub-categories. This is only after this step that the sources of the errors are possible to identify and to explain.

Ellis\(^{173}\) believes there are different ways of explaining errors, one of which as the simplest way is introduced to be based on a traditional EA undertaken for

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\(^{173}\) Op Cit, P: 54.
pedagogic purposes. This method is helpful because “the linguistic categories can be chosen to correspond closely to those found in structural syllabuses and language text books.” He as an alternative also quotes the method of error analysis employed by Politzer and Ramirez (1973) in their study. They begin with more general categories such as morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. Both these procedures, as Ellis\textsuperscript{174} claims, are capable of detailed description and quantification of errors. Additionally, the method Dulay, Burt, and Krashen used to classify errors is called surface strategy taxonomy. They put errors into categories of omissions, additions, and regularizations. They claim that this method is promising as “it provides an indication of the cognitive processes that underlie the learner’s reconstruction of the L2.”

To classify the errors, Richards and Lott\textsuperscript{175} have introduced their own taxonomy. In this model of classification, errors are first of all classified under two major groups: errors of performance and errors of competence. However, errors of performance are committed by both native speakers and L2 learners. Corder has called these deviations ‘mistake’ and that the causes of these deviations are when the speaker suffers from stress, indecision, or fatigue. Errors of competence occur when learners misapply or misinterpret L2 rules. In fact, we, as language teachers, are concerned with these type of errors which make most difficulties for the learners. Corder, moreover, states that, using some strategies, we can identify the sources of some errors. He suggests that we can resort to “authoritative interpretation” of errors when the learner is asked to give his/her comments on the committed errors. Of course, this is possible when the subjects are available. To this, Tarone\textsuperscript{176}, when discussing the elicitation of data, adds that both primary data (learner performance in communication) and secondary data (learner comments upon his/her own primary data) should be used. In other words, the secondary data of Tarone here correlates with what Corder has called “authoritative interpretation”. As a result of these suggestions and in order to give a clear and

\textsuperscript{174} Ibid, P: 54.
\textsuperscript{175} Op Cit, PP: 256-261.
reliable interpretation to the labels used for the sources of errors and to give them the distinct sources of inter- or intra-labels, the researcher has frequently tried to turn to the learners and inquired them in order to introduce the exact source of their errors. Astonishingly, he observed that the learners when producing most errors could not introduce a certain cause which help the researcher to trace the sources. For some limited cases, they could discuss the sources of interference, but for most cases they could not put any acceptable interpretation for the errors they produced. In other words, they did not even consider their deviations as erroneous. Above all, they showed their astonishment in producing some obvious deviant forms, but they could not introduce any specific reason for their production. As a result, Corder’s authoritative interpretation was not effective at least for these specific students and in this particular situation. In other words, there are multiple pressures such as L1 interference, L2 developmental errors, the training effect, lack of knowledge, etc. which affect learners’ performance and to trace them all in learners’ interlanguage is not possible. For this reason, the following classification is proposed as a part of the hypothesis which is the goal of the present study. In the following scheme, and as the first step, the errors are classified into two major groups of mono-source and bi-source syntactic errors then each error type will be subdivided into smaller categories.

i) Mono-source errors

Mono-source errors are defined to be those errors, the source of which pertain only to the interference of learners' L1 or L2, and not both. For example,

ED: The bird flied over the house.

is an example of over-extension of English past participle rule which is over-generalized to regular verbs and it is an example of intra-lingual error because the learner here is concerned only with one source of error and they are also called mono-source errors because the source of this certain deviant form can be traced

176 Op Cit, PP: 181-191
back only to English. As a second example to be mentioned here is overgeneralizing present participles in the following example:

ED: The most important factor to select a job is *interesting*.

The source of the specific error in the ED above is English and not Persian because this form i.e., present participle, is absent in Persian and as a result it can be stated to be a mono-source or intralingual error. On the other hand, the example below is an error of transfer:

ED: He enjoyed *from* the film.

The preposition 'from' in this ED has been transferred from Persian into English, or this is an interlingual and mono-source error.

**ii) Bi-source Errors**

To identify the sources of errors with enough certainty is not an easy task. This claim can be supported when the discrepancy among the ideas of the scholars discussing error analysis and the issues related to the sources of errors are observed. Richards has claimed that the sources of most errors are intralingual, while Tran-Thi-Chau has proved them to be interlingual. However, to identify the sources of errors with enough certainty is a hard task and this difficulty has been observable throughout the literature. This can validate the hypothesis that the most cautious way of interpreting the sources of errors is attributing them to both sources inter- and intra- or classifying them under the category of bi-source errors. To make the point clear, the examples below can demonstrate some of this difficulty:

ED: Smoking cigarettes is caused lung cancer.

To trace the exact source of the deviation in ED above is almost difficult as the source of misusing the passive can be attributed to both L1 and L2, or in other words, it can be the cause of L1 interference or learner's L2 developmental strategy. Ellis, suggesting that an error can be applied to both these two

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177 See Tran-Thi-Chai, 1975; Richards, 1971b; Slinker, 1974.
178 Op Cit, P: 177.
179 Op Cit, PP: 119-143.
180 Op Cit, P: 62.
phenomena, proposes a doubtful account of the difference between the concept of transfer as it is and intralingual: "where one researcher identifies the source of an error as transfer, another researcher identifies the source of the same error as intralingual."

The problem discussed above may be more clearly demonstrated and investigated in the misapplication of third person singular s and the definite article the distinctively. The deletion of third person, singular -s can be an instance of an inter-lingual error as this phenomenon does not exist in Persian, and besides this deletion, as Doskova claims, can be an instance of over-generalization since in English all persons take the zero verbal ending except the third person singular in the present simple and consequently its omission can be accounted for the heavy pressure of other endingless forms and this endingless form is generalized for all persons. Therefore, it can be concluded that the errors of deleting third person singular -s can be attributed to both L1 and L2 or in other words, it is a bi-source error. As a result of these difficulties, the researcher has come to the conclusion that the sources of some errors are traced back to both L1 and L2, and consequently they are labeled as bi-source errors. While there are some other errors which can be traced back only to L1 or L2 and not both like EDs mentioned above, and consequently they can be labeled as mono-source errors.

The case is, however, the same with the errors of misapplying the definite article 'the' for Iranian L2 learners of English. In using this article, these learners face two obvious hurdles. The first is their L1 interference as there is no equivalent item in Persian that can syntactically correspond with 'the'. Therefore they will have to be struggling with L1 interference. On the other hand, exceptions and rule inconsistencies in applying 'the' in English have made using this article a very difficult task. One of the main causes of intralingual errors is the inconsistency of L2 grammar rules. In other words, when LLs find some L2 rules obscure or inconsistent, they turn to L1 or other available rules even L2 rules to fill their

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information gap. Therefore the learners in this respect turn to intra-lingual transfer to overcome their deficiencies. All these cases and the ones like this have suggested the fact that the Iranian L2 learners of English resort to a large number of errors as they have to struggle with two sources of interference at a time, i.e., L1 and L2, and for this reason the errors that fall under this category are called bi-source errors.

Besides all the facts mentioned above, one major drawback of the VW of the CA is its failure to predict the sources of errors. If the sources of some errors pertain to both sources, one useful step here is overcoming this shortcoming of the VW of CAH.

On the other hand, in our classification, there are some errors which are labeled as unique. The sources of these errors cannot be easily attributed to any particular source and also that they have very low frequency as well as having no definite and regular pattern. The following examples can make the point clear.

ED: We would have been many problems. Or
ED: If we have been many properties, we fail.

Both EDs above demonstrate obvious deviations from the norms of the target language; however, this is not easy to talk about the sources of the errors as first they do not occur very frequently and second they do not follow a regular pattern in their system. Besides, most of these errors, as will be discussed, occur as a result of lack of enough knowledge especially among adult beginners and elementary learners of English, and as a result, they simply use the deviant L2 forms for which there is no definite explanation. They are sometimes called induced errors as proposed by Ellis. These errors are, moreover, claimed to be the result of instruction or training, or it may be proposed that they occur when learners are led to make errors by the nature of instruction which learners receive. It can be expected too that the errors for which we can introduce no source either in L1 or L2 build up the approximative system of the learner. In other words, this is the

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183 Op Cit, P: 60.  
184 See Richards, 1974. PP: 174-76
system which is a combination of L1 and L2's unique errors and are capable of constructing a distinct system, something like the approximative system proposed by Nemser. These errors are not systematic and therefore do not reflect competence. They are cases when learners internalize faulty rules derived from instruction and in such cases the resulting error will reflect their competence. However, instruction may constitute one source of what Dulay and Burt call "unique errors" while Fisiak has called them "pedagogical errors". In other words, the researcher will have been discussing and giving emphasis to the errors which seem to fall within definite, definable patterns and where a consistent system can be observed among them, and consequently these systematic errors may be regarded as rule-governed because they follow the rules of the learners' L1 grammar or can be the consequence of over-generalization. To sum up, two error types will be neglected throughout the study: those with low frequency and those which are considered to be unique while the goal of the present study is giving the main body of discussion to bi-source errors.

C. Preparing the frequencies

After the errors are gathered and put into concrete groups, the frequencies of errors can be an indication of their seriousness. This is only after this step that we can put our judgments on the items and areas which are regarded difficult or most problematic. The error types with high frequency can have enough indications of learners' interlanguage. The errors with low frequencies will have to be ignored as the low occurrence of the errors can not be significant to the analyst.

D. Identification of area and sources of difficulty

The present study, will first apply EA to collect the data, identify the errors, and analyze their sources, then in the next step and in order to identify the area of difficulty of the bi-source errors, CA can help because the sources of these errors are naturally attributed to both L1 and L2. In case of intra-lingual errors, EA by itself may suffice, but in case of inter-lingual, CA is employed to contrast the

---

L1 and L2 structure to demonstrate the causes of interference more clearly. Contrastive studies are undertaken in order to describe or discover the differences, while EA confirms or falsifies the prediction of the theory. However, EA does not explain anything explicitly. It shows error types, not why they occur. In order to understand why they occur the information provided by CA is necessary. To this suggestion, Tran-Thi-Chau 186 adds that EA alone cannot predict more than half of the errors and the situation is the same for CA. In other words, unless an EA uses CA insights, it cannot explain the causes of a large number of errors, or the interlingual errors. Moreover, this is clear that L2 morphosyntactic errors can be identified through error analysis, but the causes of their occurrence and the sources of some of these errors can be sufficiently explained by using CAH. To this purpose when learners commit mono- or bi-source errors, this is necessary to demonstrate the sources of some of these errors by contrasting the L1 and L2 structures. Besides resorting to the CA, it is essential to select an appropriate linguistic theory for this comparison which seems inevitable. On the other hand, for a description of errors through contrasting them, it is required to follow the principles of a linguistic theory. In other words, the more adequate the linguistic theory, the better will be the linguistic description of errors. The study, to this purpose, prefers to adopt a phrase-structure grammar approach in order to contrast the structures in question. The reason for this selection is that the sentence patterns of English and Persian can be as closely and as adequately as possible modified and as a result, some of the sources of the errors can be identified and discussed in detail. This model is more powerful than a model based on a finite state process and does not fail in the same way 187.

186 Op Cit. P: 121.
V. Presentation and Analysis of Data

A. The Results of Grammaticality Judgment test

The discussion below can support the assumption that recognizing bi-
source errors has been more difficult for the subjects than the errors, the source of
which is attributed either to inter or intra. The hypothesis here is validating the idea
that because learners have more difficulty to locate bi-source errors, in the same
way, they will face more difficulty both to eradicate or to prevent their interference
of L1 and L2 errors. Table 7, below demonstrates the PELs' responses to the
sentences that contained mono-source errors or the items that contain only
interlingual errors. As you notice, the table contains two main parts: part 1 is given
to the correct responses or correct recognition of the subjects to identify them. In
part 2, the failure of the subjects in identifying the deviant forms has been
exhibited.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1. correct recognition</th>
<th>2. Incorrect recognition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>f.</td>
<td>perc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td></td>
<td>281</td>
<td>83.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: The responses to mono-source or inter-lingual errors

See Chomsky, 1957.
Table 7 shows the frequencies and the percentages of each set of response. For example, the deviant form in item 1 has been correctly located only by 18.4 percent of the subjects while 79.6 percent have failed to identify the incorrect preposition insertion in it. Or no. 2 demonstrating item 7 in the test also shows that there have been 15.5 percent of successful recognition of the incorrect pronoun insertion in the sentence containing an adjective clause while 87 percent have failed to recognize the deviation.

In the same way, table 8 below demonstrates the subjects' response to mono-source or intra-lingual errors. The data indicates that, for example, in number 1, item 17, there are 39.8 percent of correct and 58.3 of incorrect identification of the deviant form. In the same way, in number 3, item 25, there are 18.4 percent correct recognition of participle misuse in ED below:

ED: The most important factor to select a job is interesting.

While there have been 84 percent of failure to identify incorrect application of present participle in it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no.</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>perc.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>perc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>81.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>81.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>77.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>459</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: The responses to mono-source or intra-lingual errors

Likewise, table 9 demonstrates PEL's responses to 20 sentences that contain bi-source errors. In the same way, the table shows the frequency and the percent of correct or incorrect response to each item. The following deviant form which is the second item in the main test is an example of bi-source errors:
ED: About 40% of car accidents are happened by old cars and careless drivers.

In fact, not only the problem of over-extension of passive as a result of a large number of inconsistency can be applied to English, but it is also Persian that actively follows this structure and therefore, interference as well as overgeneralization of L1 rule is predictable. Or as an additional example, consider the following deviant form:

ED: A university student has to study carefully and respect to others who help him.

This deviant form being the third item of the table and the fifth item of the test has been correctly located only by 9 percent while there have been 91 cases of failure to identify the incorrect preposition insertion of 'to' in it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>f.</td>
<td>percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td></td>
<td>254</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: The response to bi-source or inter-intra lingual errors
To come to some conclusions and to quantify different types of response, a comparison has to be made here between the data presented in table 7, 8, and 9. It has to be considered that the difference between the frequency of correct responses in table 9 and the other two tables, i.e., 7 and 8, can be significant enough to suggest the fact that the subjects have been facing more difficulty to identify bi-source errors than the errors attributed to one source i.e. either inter or intra. For this purpose, below we present the relevant tabulated contingency table together with the Chi2 value and its significance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Inter</th>
<th>Intra</th>
<th>Bi</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct recognition</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect recognition</td>
<td>78.8</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td>89.3</td>
<td>241.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum</td>
<td>101.3</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>305.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Contingency table of response by sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi2</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11

From table 11, we see that the difference between the two types of correct and incorrect responses to inter, intra, and bi source errors are fairly significant at 5% level. The Chi2 test has indicated that the tabulated value of 6.58 at 2 degrees of freedom at 5% level is greater than 5.99 and this signifies the idea that the two variables, here the variables "response" and "sources" are not independent and this can support the notion that the recognition of bi-source errors for the subjects in controlled group, table 9, has been more difficult than the other mono-source errors.

Besides, we can refer to the maximum correct responses of the learners in bi-source table, i.e., table 9, which does not exceed 31 but this is 41 for intra- and 52 for inter-lingual errors. In other words, regarding the frequency of correct
response, we can suggest that the difference among the degree of correct response in this situation indicates that the subjects have faced less difficulty to recognize mono-source errors and more difficulty to locate bi-source errors.

B. The Results of Error Analysis Processes

To collect the necessary data, 200 samples belonging to the controlled group were gathered. The subjects were required to select two topics from among the suggestions below and write their paragraphs on them.

- When selecting a job, which factors do you consider important?

- What are the most important difficulties of learning a foreign language? Or what are the causes of most of the errors that language learners make when learning a foreign language?

- For some people “money” is the most important thing. Money for them is everything even sometimes more important than their life. What do you think? Discuss.

- Some people believe that childhood is the happiest period of life. What do you think? Discuss.

There has been an attempt to select familiar topics that can tap learners' interest and in this way to reveal their linguistic output. Each learner was required to have two compositions produced at two different times. The compositions were later on gathered, and after reading one by one, put under careful analysis. The identified morphosyntactic errors were extracted and put under certain categories, and as the next step, the frequencies were prepared.

On the whole, 1719 identified errors belonging to 200 writing samples are classified under 20 classes and each class, in turn, is classified under some smaller,
more concrete categories. For example, all errors belonging to the class of nouns are placed under the following subdivisions:

1. mispluralization,
2. misusing nouns as adjectives,
3. mis-singularization,
4. misusing a noun as a verb.

The frequency of each area of occurrence are pointed out as an indication of their seriousness in the learner's linguistic input. Grouping the errors under these certain areas above all depends on the frequency of their occurrence. In some cases and as a result of the diversity of errors and where the number of frequencies is not large enough, they are presently ignored, even though their occurrence, if attributed to larger population, may be significant. Moreover, a few samples of the learners' writings and the sentences in which these errors have appeared have been brought in appendices 2 and 3. Therefore, it is possible, by referring to them, to become familiar with the partial context in which the errors have appeared.

In the following, those deviant forms, the sources of which can be traced back only to both sources of L1 and L2 will be discussed. However, mono-source errors will be ignored as they are not the goal of this study. It is important to know that the selected sentences which display the deviations are picked up from the subjects' samples and the underlined parts demonstrate the items under discussion.

### 1. Errors in the Use of Nouns

On the whole, 183 errors of misusing nouns have been identified. 68% of these errors belong to bi-sources. These errors are subsequently sub-classified under smaller categories as the table below shows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of errors of nouns</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mispluralization</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns as Adjectives</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missingularization</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun as verbs</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>185</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 demonstrating the area, frequency, sources, and percents of noun misuse.

a. Mispluralization

Of 185 instances of the misuse of nouns, 39 ones, i.e., 21.1% are related to the misuse of plural forms. In these deviant forms, the learners misapply the plural English nouns either by transfer or overgeneralization of L2 rules. The sources of the erroneous forms belonging to this area are attributed to both mono or bi sources with the proportion of 13 to 26 respectively. As it can be understood from the collection of errors, the majority of the errors of mispluralization pertain to both sources of L1 and L2.

Jane\(^{188}\) believes that one significant example of over-application of rules is discussing the noun class in English as they have been generalized either as count or non-count. In other words, the learners reveal their weaknesses in applying English plural forms by confusing count and non-count nouns. This confusion is brought about both by transfer of L1 rules and overgeneralization of L2's. The examples below, having been selected from students' writings, can demonstrate the situation more clearly. The underlined part in each sentence shows the deviation which is particularly considered in each context.

ED: The experiences show that childhood is a good time of life.

**L1 Source**: In Persian, 'experience' is both count and non-count or is used as a singular or plural noun without the limitations of English grammar rules.

\(^{188}\)Op Cit. P: 197.
P1: *taērobehæ* ?ou nešan midæhæd ke bæčegi douran xobi *æst.

experience his show that childhood period good is.

E: His experience shows that childhood is a good period.

Moreover, in Persian and in some specific contexts, the terms *experiment* and *experience* refer to the same phenomenon, and considering the fact that *experiment* is count while *experience* is non-count, it is plausible they are over-generalized or misapplied by these learners.

**L2 source:** In English, *experience* is both a count and non-count noun and this can be an evidence of confusing these different functions.

DD: [U]*process of gaining knowledge or skill by doing and seeing things. We all learn by experience.*

[C] event, activities which has given one experience. *an unpleasant experience.*

Besides, Fallahi[^189], considering the L2 source of error of misplurals, goes one step further by saying that one reason of overgeneralization of English rules is the false analogy of the cases such as the following:

Transformations _____ informations
Leaves _____ grieves

***************

ED: She likes these *works*.

The misapplication of *works* has been repeated for 12 times throughout the analysis.

**L1 source:** In Persian, the term *kar* meaning *work* is countable and used vastly by Persian speakers in different contexts without the limitations of English.

P: ou: *?in karha ra doost daraed.*

she these works likes

E: She likes this work.
The term work is used as both count and non-count but bearing different notions.

**DD:** Work [C]: product of the intellect e.g. the *works* of Beethoven; public works, the building of roads and dams, etc.

[U]: what a person does to earn a living; use of bodily and mental power; sth. to be done; that which is produced by work

***************

**ED:** We should love all the times of life.

**L1 source:** *Times* is an equivalent for *douran* or *dafae?at* which is plural in Persian.

P: ma bayaed tae?ame dourane zendegi ra doost bedarim.

We should all times life love do

**E:** We should love all time of life.

**L2 source:** Over-generalization of L2 rules

*Time* appears both as a count and non-count noun indicating two different notions. However, they are confused or misapplied by Iranian L2 learners of English.

**DD:** Time [U] all the days of the past present and future; the passing of all the days, months, ... portion of time

[C] occasion; used to indicate multiplication; period of time, more or less definite

***************

**ED:** Parents provide everythings for them.

**L1 source:** The source of the mis-plural form here can be traced back to the semantic concept of the term as it appears both in learners’ L1 and L2. ‘Every’ means all or as it semantically indicates, plurality is emphasized over indefiniteness and thus plural -s is overgeneralized. Meanwhile, everythings in Persian means all things as the sentence below indicates:

P: valedein hae?eh ğiz bae?aye anha farahem mikonend

parents all things for them provide

---

112
E: The parents provide everything for them.

L2 source: one major source of confusion is L2 definition for the combination of every with one, thing, etc. It means “all” in meaning although being singular in form. In other words, everything is almost the same as all things ard refers to “all and not one single entity”. This misconception can be attributed to other indefinite pronouns which in effect convey a plural conception.

b. Misusing Nouns as Adjectives:

Although being large in number, the source of these specific errors is applied to mono-sources, or intra.

c. Missingularization:

The acquisition of correct noun class regarding their generic, singular, and plural forms is one of the problems that takes a long time to master for language learners. 82 misuse of singular noun forms, 48 bi and 34 mono, indicate that the learners have serious difficulties to correctly use noun forms.

ED: They can watch cartoon.

L1 source: About 25 errors like ED mentioned above are repeated by the students. The word cartoon in this sentence is used in its generic form by the Persian student of English as it appears in Persian while the structure of zero article or generic form in the two languages is different. The generic form of the noun refers to the general or universal meaning. Quirk et al believe that the generic use of the nouns denotes the class or species without specifying them and to indicate it, the forms below can be used:

\[\text{\texttt{}}\]

\[\text{\texttt{}}\]


1) An elephant never forgets.
2) The elephant never forgets.
3) Elephants never forget.

As it can be understood, *elephant* as a count singular noun takes zero article in its generic form. In this reference, it may also appear in plural. But this is different in Persian. In Persian, the generic reference can be used without any article.

P: fil heivane ba hoštī ast.

   elephant animal intelligent is

E: An elephant is an intelligent animal.

As the example indicates, the Persian learner of *English* normally transfers his L1 rule, i.e., noun without article or plural -s, to his L2 to show its generic use. This problem cannot be overcome unless the article system of the L2 is mastered. It means that there is close connection between the article system and the correct use of nouns in their generic references. Meanwhile, the generic form of count nouns in Persian can simply appear in singular form without any preceding article while in English the countable noun form is either plural or preceded by an article. The difference mentioned here makes the main portion of the problems accounted for L1 interference. On the other hand, another obvious difficulty, concerning bi-source errors of noun class, is misunderstanding count and non-count nouns. For Persian L2 learners to distinguish the count and non-count class is very difficult and leads to serious difficulties because there are a lot of major semantic and cultural differences between the two languages regarding these differences. For example, when some nouns such as bread, toothpaste, soap, money, to name only a few, are considered count in Persian, they are non-count in English. Quirk et al. maintain that in some related languages, the nouns corresponding to information, money, news, and work are count nouns, but in English they are non-count. Meanwhile, when the following nouns in English
appear only in singular, non-count form. there are their plural equivalents in Persian\textsuperscript{193}:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (non-count/singular)</th>
<th>Persian (plural/count)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-wealth</td>
<td>-servet\textsuperscript{a}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-information</td>
<td>-ette\textsuperscript{a}at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-grief</td>
<td>-qosse\textsuperscript{a}ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-advice</td>
<td>-n\textemdash es\textemdash ye\textsuperscript{a}h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-clothing</td>
<td>-le\textsuperscript{a}asha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-entertainment</td>
<td>-s\textemdash erg\textemdash a\textemdash mi\textemdash ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-progress</td>
<td>-pi\textemdash shra\textemdash fi\textemdash ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-despair</td>
<td>-nom\textemdash in\textemdash ha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L2 source:

In the same manner, L2s' rule inconsistency among noun plural and singular forms can be assumed to be another major source of difficulty. For example, when some English nouns such as fruit, stone, food, chicken, fish, hair, rain, etc. are taken count in one context, they can be considered non-count in another context. One can easily be convinced when he discovers that there are not definite rules to classify nouns as count or non-count. Todd and Hancock\textsuperscript{194} believe that the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is neither wholly logical nor wholly linguistic. They add that a noun normally treated as uncountable may become countable when we refer to a variety: Lactose and fructose are both sugars. Or to a specific amount: one sugar or two? They finally add that the division between countable and uncountable nouns is language specific and arbitrary. Moreover, because most abstract nouns are assumed to be non-count and appear in singular form, they may appear in plural mostly having

\textsuperscript{193}Op Cit. PP: 260-70.
\textsuperscript{194}Op Cit. P: 123.
been dependent on the context in which they appear. On the other hand, abstract nouns normally have no plural: music, dirt, homework, etc. but some can be classified as count nouns where they refer to an instance of a given abstract phenomenon: injustices, regrets, kindnesses, pleasures, etc. There are some other situations in which the nouns are used with article "a" denoting countability while this is not true: this is a pleasure to see you, or that was a pity to lose it, or he answered with a nod. However, we can state that there is a distinct rule that can determine when in a language a noun can necessarily be count or non-count and this points out the importance of context in determining the countability of a noun and this is the place where the students show their weaknesses.

The next difficulty of using the singular or plural form of the noun is using the quantifiers which are used equally with both count and non-count nouns. Nouns can be preceded by certain quantifiers such as a lot of, some, any etc. which are used to modify both count and non-counts: some bread, some boys, a lot of time, a lot of money, a lot of teachers, while there are some others which are used to modify either count or non-counts: many boys, much money, a little time, a few boys, little time, few societies, and as a result of this inconsistency among the use of quantifiers, over-generalization may occur.

ED: he has no problem.

There is a tendency among the Iranian EFL students to use "no" only with singular nouns even when it is important to use the plural form, and this misapplication has been repeated for 13 times in the total error analysis.

L1 source:

P: ou: hič moškeli nədarəd.
    he no problem not has
E: he has no problems.

As it can be understood from the ED above and according to the L1 rules, "no" is used only with singular nouns while this is not true for the L2 they study and as a result, transfer can be expected.
L2 source:

Eastwood\(^{195}\) state that *no* can modify both singular and plural nouns *no* boys or *no* boy Quirk et al.\(^{196}\) assert that *no* as a determiner can be used in three ways: *no* pen, *no* pens, *no* music and Swan\(^{197}\) confirms that *no* can be used both with singular and plural nouns Therefore, the tendency to use *no* specifically with singular nouns can be assumed as a result of rule inconsistency of L2 rules

ED. he hasn't any problem
The situation in the ED above is the same as "no" when the PELs tend to use only singular noun forms with 'any" However, *any* conveys different senses when used with plural negative sentences or singular affirmative forms

L1 source:

P: ou: hič moškeli nədərəd
he any problem not have
E: he hasn't any problems

As it can be understood from the sentence above, the Persian version for *any* is "hič" meaning nothing in Farsi and is used to modify only singular nouns

L2 source:

*Any*, according to the L2 rules, can have two semantic modifications It may indicate a negative sense with plural count head noun, or it can mean "it doesn't matter which" when it is used positively with singular nouns These two definitions and applications can cause confusion Besides, *any* the same as *no* can

\(^{196}\) Op Cit, P 255
\(^{197}\) Michael Swan 1982 *Practical English Usage* Oxford Oxford University Press P 412
be used invariably with both count and non-count nouns. Rule inconsistency in using *any* can be one main factor of confusion as well as overgeneralization in producing errors.

d. Misusing a Noun as a Verb:

The source of the errors belonging to the misuse of the nouns as verbs is attributed to mono-source errors.

### 2. Errors in the Use of Prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of errors of preposition</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insertion</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>mono &amp; bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misusing <em>for</em> for infinitive</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misusing preposition</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>mono &amp; bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>260</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 demonstrating the areas of preposition errors and the relative frequencies as well as the percents and sources

Misusing prepositions covers a large number of errors committed by PELs. There are certain reasons beyond this deficiency. Quirk et al on the difficulty of learning prepositions claim that learning prepositions is not so easy as the prepositional meaning is so varied and it is more difficult to describe the prepositional meanings in terms of certain labels. Prepositions distribution and their associations with certain verbs or adjectives and nouns do not occur according to certain definable rules. Language teachers fail to introduce clear and well-defined rules for teaching prepositions because in most cases they fail to provide their learners with clear cut boundaries and definite classification which make the acquisition of prepositions a feasible activity. To support this claim, we can resort to 260 errors of prepositions investigated in the learners' writings. Another important point, mentioned above, is the idea that most prepositions are
assumed to be in association with certain items, either verbs or adjectives. However, we know that there are always exceptions that violate these rules and as a result, errors of preposition will increase maximally as the exceptions increase. For example, the rule says that the verb *to go* is followed by *to* as a preposition:

E: they may go to cinema.

But the same rule becomes erroneous when used in the following manner:

ED: they may go to home.
ED: they may go to abroad.
ED: they may go to there.

Richards believes that analogy seems to be the major factor in the misuse of prepositions. The learners coming across a particular preposition with one type of verb, attempt by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs. He moreover adds that one major cause of overgeneralization of prepositions is some pattern exercises.

Prepositions, according to their syntactic functions, are classified under three large groups: 1) Postmodifiers as in the example the man in the line asked me the time. 2) Adverbial which can function in the following ways: a) adjuncts: at night they hold the meeting, b) subjunct: from my viewpoint, this is not possible to prove, c) disjunct: in all fairness, she did try to phone the police, and d) conjunct: on the other hand, we didn't have time to meet him. 3) Complementation can have two major forms of a verb as she is talking on the telephone and of an adjective as he was surprised at visiting me. Each class in turn has its own complexity and exceptions which will normally take a long time for L2 learners to master. However, the researcher has come to a lot of problems in order to classify the errors of preposition. The number of random errors or mistakes seems to exceed those error types which were systematic and were capable of being classified under certain definable groups. However, the following classification is preferred over others.
a. Preposition deletion

The major source of preposition deletion is attributed to mono-source errors and consequently are not included in the discussion below.

b. Preposition Insertion

105 cases of inserting prepositions indicate that PELs have to struggle with serious difficulties to overcome their using prepositions. There has been an attempt to classify these errors under smaller and concrete categories. then this is possible after this step to put more valid interpretations on the causes of these errors or identify the sources of each group. However, there are some errors of prepositions which can not be classified as any of the groups mentioned above. These errors, having been called random errors, are illustrated in the following instances:

ED: No one expect them on doing it.
ED: It is best period of life with one reason.
ED: They can enjoy on life.
ED: Money makes them well-known through people.
ED: They depend with their parents.

It is not so easy to locate the sources of these deviant forms because, as Jain believes, they are not systematic and they are called mistakes. The other deviant forms with systematic variations and occurrences can roughly be classified under the categories below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Deviant form</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to use from</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to speak with a language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to speak in a language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expression</th>
<th>Mono</th>
<th>Bi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to speak to a language</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to notice to</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to need to</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to consider to</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to face with</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to face to</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to answer to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to enter to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to enter in</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to help to</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to teach to</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to attend in</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>respect to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to enjoy from</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to give to</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to travel to abroad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to go to home</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to reach to</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to apply off</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| of insertion                  | 24   | mono and bi

**To speak with a language**

ED: They must make the students to speak with foreign language.

**L1 source:** 'with' in English corresponds very closely with *ba or be* in Persian.

P: an mærd be ?engelisi hærf mizæd.

that man with English spoke.

E: That man spoke English.

**L2 source:** In English “to speak with” is used informally to denote communication.

199 Op Cit, P: 206.
E: She is speaking with her boy friend.

To speak in a language

ED: we should speak in that language.

L1 source: “To speak a language” can simply correspond with one of the following L1 forms: to speak in a language and to speak with a language.

P: ma bayaed be an zaaban sohbât konim.

We should in that language speak

E: we should speak that language.

L2 source: In some contexts to indicate certain purposes, the preposition in is associated with the word “languages”, and this provides the possibility of rule overgeneralization.

E: we were taught to ask questions in Spanish.

E: to read the novel in English was more interesting to me.

E: in English, there are a lot of prepositions used to denote different purposes.

To need to

L1 source: The preposition for niyaz dashtân meaning “to need” in Persian is be which corresponds with to in English.

P: ma be doctor niyaz darim.

We to physician need.

E. We need physicians.

L2 source: In English, one important source of misusing to as a preposition and transferring it to other contexts is the fact that it bears two general functions in English and it is possible to confuse the roles: to as a preposition and to as an infinitive. In the ED above, to might have been misused as preposition and overgeneralized to this context. Besides, there are some sentences which indicate that that verbs in general are followed by a to form as an infinitive, irrespective of the fact that it varies from context to context.

E: they were needed to receive their help.
To face with

ED: we face with many problems.

L1 source: The Persian version for to face is 'robero ſodan' which is almost always preceded or proceeded by the preposition ba meaning with.

P: ou: ba moškelate ziadi robero ſod.
he with problems a lot faced
E: he faced a lot of problems.

L2 source: the verb face in the passive form takes the preposition with.
E: When coming here, they were faced with a lot of problems.
E: At that time, our country was faced with job deficiency.

To face to

ED: We face to this problem in society.

L1 source: the same as ‘face with’, face to also corresponds to Persian version as “to” in English can mean ba in Persian.

P: ma ba ſin moškelat robero hasstim.
We to this problem face.
E: we face this problem.

L2 source: in some idiomatic expressions, the preposition to follows face although in these contexts it is a preposition not an infinitive, the learners overgeneralize the rule, either the preposition or the infinitive, to other contexts.

DD: face up to (sth): recognize and deal with, honestly and bravely
E: you should face up to the fact that you are no longer young.
E: we have got to face up to the situation.

To answer to

ED: We have no teacher to answer to our question.
**L1 source:** In Persian, the verb *javab dadan* which is used with the preposition *be* corresponds to the verb *to answer* in English without any following prepositions.

P: *mo'alem be so'ale man javab naedad.*

Teacher to question my answer did not

E: The teacher didn't answer my question.

**L2 source:** In English, *answer* as a noun is followed by the preposition *to,* but this is carried to other contexts where *answer* is a verb.

E: Her answer to the question was not correct.

***************

**To enter to**

ED: She entered to the big hall.

**L1 source:**

P: *ou: be salon bozorg vared zod.*

She to hall big entered

E: She entered the big hall.

As it can be understood from the Persian sentence, the Persian version of the verb *enter* takes the preposition *to* which is equal to *be* in Persian. Therefore, transfer is expected.

**L2 source:** Although in English *enter* is not formally followed by the preposition *to,* it can be proceeded by the preposition *into* which has different meanings. *Enter* in its idiomatic usage is used with the compound preposition *into* which is a combination of *in* and *to* and this provides the possibility of overgeneralization.

DD: to enter into sth (with sb). begin, open : to enter into conversation

  to enter into sth. (a) enter into details. begin to deal with them (b) sympathize with.

Besides, as an intra source of error, the verb *enter* can be followed by the infinitive *to* and this may indicate *to* as a preposition.

E: He entered the contest to win not to lose.

***************

124
To enter in
ED: he entered in the big house.
L1 source: in Persian, vared Žod:u, meaning to enter, is proceeded by the preposition be which is an equivalent for both prepositions to and in.
P: ou: be xaneh bozorg vared Žod.
He in house big entered.
E: He entered the big house.
L2 source: Enter as a phrasal verb and in combination with the compound preposition into which is a combination of in and to can be the source of some confusion, and this provides the possibility of overgeneralization.
DD: to enter into sth (with sb). begin, open : to enter into conversation
to enter into sth, (a) enter into details, begin to deal with them (b) sympathize with.

To help to
ED: I help to the development of my country.
L1 source: In Persian, the verb komæk kærdaen, to help, is used with the preposition be, an equivalent for to in English.
P: ali be mën komæk kær.
Ali to me helped.
E: Ali helped me.
L2 source: There are two sources of confusion in L2 for the learners: first when help used as a noun is followed by the preposition to.
E: your help to the poor satisfied us.
E: Janet’s help to me astonished my family.
Second. help as a verb. either in active or passive form. is followed by infinitive to.
E: she was helped to bathe the baby.
E: I helped Allen to decorate the room.
To teach to

ED: he should know how to teach to them.

L1 source: The Persian version for the verb to teach is دَآرس دادَه which proceeds by the preposition 'بِ', an equivalent for to in English. In other words, the verb دَآرس دادَه in Persian is almost always associated with the preposition 'بِ' and this facilitates the transfer of the preposition.

P: او میداند چگونه ب آنها داَرس بدهند.
he knows how to them teach

E: He knows how to teach them.

L2 source: one source of L2 confusion can be attributed to the over-generalization of the infinitive to either in passive or active voice.

E: they teach me to fly a helicopter.
E: he taught me to speak a few words in Arabic.
E: he was taught to fly the helicopter.

Using infinitive to can happen more frequently when the verb teach is followed by to as an adverb of purpose:
E: he teaches to make money.

To respect to

L1 source: In Persian، احترام گزارش، meaning to respect, is preceded by the preposition بِ، which is the same as to in English.

P: من بِ معلم احترام می‌گزارم.
I to teacher respect

E: I respect the teacher.

L2 source: In English، respect as a noun is used to indicate a different meaning and in this case it is followed by the preposition to.

DD: with respect to: reference. relation. concerning. Without respect to.

paying no attention to.

E: with respect to your degrees. you may be employed.

***************
Travel to abroad/ home/ there
ED: he traveled to abroad several times.

L1 source: in Persian, the verb *mosafar et kardan* as a verb and *mosafaret* as a noun is followed or preceded by the preposition *be*, which is the same as *to* in English.

P: ahmad be xarej mosafaret kardeh ast.
Ahmad to abroad has traveled.
E: Ahmad has traveled abroad.

P: ou: ba otubus be xaneh rasft.
he by bus to home went
E: he went home by bus.

L2 source: In English as a general rule, we use the preposition *to* after the verb *go*, but there are always exceptions with certain adverbs which violate the rule.

E: he went to the market to buy groceries.
E: he goes to her flat every other day.
E: I went there to visit him.

Rule inconsistency can be introduced as one major source of the errors of overgeneralizing the application of the preposition *to* after the verb *go* and with certain adverbs.

To reach to
ED: She reached to the station at ten.

L1 source: *rasidan* *be* means *to reach* which takes no preposition while in Persian both as a verb or a noun. it is proceeded or preceded by the preposition *be*.

P: ou: saet dagh be istgah rasid.
She at ten to station reached.
E: she reached the station at ten.

L2 source: when used in its idiomatic form, *reach* can take the preposition *to*:

DD: to reach (to), to stretch as far as:
E: your voice will not reach to the audience.
E: he will fit an extension so that the flex can reach (to) the socket.

*********************

Of-insertion errors

Of 26 errors of of insertion, 13 are considered to be bi-source.
ED: Some of people haven’t any money.
L1 source: of in the sentence above can be an equivalent for az in Farsi meaning a part from a whole.
   Some of people any income haven’t
E: some people don’t have any income.
L2 source: however, in English of-partitive is used with some and other indefinites according to the rule below200:

   It is typical of indefinites (some, any, one, etc.) which have both a pronoun and a determiner role to fuse these roles in of-expressions where the final part is a personal pronoun or a noun preceded by a definite determiner:
   -some are doing well.
   -some students are doing well.
But:
   -Some of the students are doing well.
   -Some of these students are doing well.
   -Some of them are doing well.
The inconsistencies in the use of partitive is so diverse that causes the learners to use of-phrases invariably without considering the limitations and the rules governing them.

*********************

ED: we need to good possibilities for learning of English.

**L1 source:** In this sentence, the learner intends to include the possessive form to learning exactly the same as Persian. In Persian, in order to indicate possession, the possessive forms of both animate and inanimate objects are expressed by means of the coupling of the two nouns concerned with coordination of the particle -e known as “kasre or ezafe”. In this function, the ezafe construction is considered as equivalent to the ‘of-phrase’ structure in English.

P: ma ba’ray yadgiri-e engelisi emkanat niyaz darim.

We for learning of English possibilities need.

E: To learn English, we need some possibilities.

**L2 source:** In English, when using gerund with a following of phrase, this is necessary to include a determiner:

The playing of ball games or the learning of English.

But if the determiner is deleted, the ‘of phrase’ also has to be reduced to the relative noun phrase: playing ball games or learning English.

For the L2 learners, the rule mentioned above is not concrete enough. It can be claimed that the main cause of the deviations in ED above is the rule inconsistency and overgeneralization of L2 rule.

Because of + clause

ED: Because of they think they need it.

**L1 source:** because can have different translations and interpretations in Persian and consequently can be misused in different ways. One deviation is when because is followed by the preposition of indicating that a phrase, and not a clause will follow, while in Persian, it makes no difference whether after the subordinators such as because of, in spite of, regardless of, etc. a phrase or a clause follows. It means that Persian learners can use any items invariably after these subordinators and without the limitations of English rules.

P: conkeh anha fekr mikon^nd be an niyaz dar^nd.

because of they think to that need they

E: because they think they need it.
L2 source: In English, 'because of' is used with the following noun phrase especially in reduced clauses, not full clauses, and rule inconsistency in using because can be the major cause of errors here. Besides, for L2 learners to use these reduced forms correctly, this is very important to understand the difference between a phrase and a clause.

c. Misusing “for” as To-infinitive

One of the areas in which the Iranian L2 learners face major difficulties is misusing the preposition for when they intend to express their purpose. In this context, they replace the preposition for for the infinitive to which here functions as an adverb of purpose. This deviant use of for has also been observed among French L2 learners of English. Zobl has claimed that these learners tend to resort to their L1 if the corresponding L2 rule is obscure. He notes that the following errors are common in French learners of English:

ED: they have policeman for stop the bus.
ED: He do that for to help the Indians.

Therefore, the for + infinitive error corresponds closely to the L1 structure of these learners. However, Iranian learners, the same as French L2 learners, as a result of their L1 interference and L2 transfer of similar rules, commit a large number of errors of this type and it has been observed that these errors remain in the learners' interlanguage up to high levels of proficiency. The examples below can demonstrate the point more clearly.

ED: We must spend time for learning English.

L1 source: for indicating purpose in English corresponds with bāraye in Persian which functions in the same manner. However, for is not applicable for infinitive to because for as a preposition can not sufficiently function as an adverb of purpose.

———

ED: he came here for seeing me.
ED: they go that city for visiting interesting places.
P: ma baraye yadgirie engelisi bayed vaqt sarf konim.
   We for learning English must time spend.
E: To learn English, we must spend time.

L2 source: Although in English the infinitive to is widely used to express purpose, the preposition for is also exceptionally used to bear almost the same function. Moreover, there are a lot of verbs and adjectives in English which are proceeded by the preposition for. This will normally violate the general rule that the purpose and intent is not necessarily stated by infinitive to, rather the preposition for can also be applied. On the other hand, there is this misconception when stating purpose: this is also possible to use the preposition for with a noun or a pronoun that follows it.

E: he came here to borrow some money. This can also be stated using the preposition for:
E: he came here for some money. Or
E: he came here for it.

Given below are some other alternatives in which the verbs bear the preposition for not necessarily indicating purpose:
E: I blamed her for punishing the little child.
E: We apologized for coming late.
E: We're hoping for having a nice day.
E: I praised her for passing her tests.
E: She admired him for giving her all the money she wanted.
E: Did you thank him for lending you the money?

d. Preposition Misuse
The errors pertaining to this area, although large in number, are mostly attributed to mono sources but some of them appear to have been affected by both mono and bi.
ED: If I interest to my job, ...

**L1 source**: As it can be understood from the sentence above, the Persian speakers misuse the preposition *to* for *in*. The source of the error can be traced back to Persian as the preposition *be*, an equivalent for *to*, is transferred to this context.

P: اگر من به کارمند لاهم کشم....
   if I to my job interested be
E: If I am interested in my job, ...

**L2 source**: The same as other situations in which the infinitive *to* can cause confusion, in the examples like above, the same phenomenon can happen:

E: She is interested to know what has happened.
E: They were interested to begin first.

******************

ED: he think to money.

**L1 source**: the preposition *to* in the sentence above is pertained to the preposition *be* in Persian as the example below demonstrates:

P: او به پول فکر میکند.
   he to money thinks
E: he thinks of money.

The correct preposition which is ignored by Persian learners of English is *of*, which, as it has already been discussed, has little function in the learners’ L1 and consequently is ignored in most cases.

**L2 source**: Here we are again concerned with the confusion of *to* as a preposition and infinitive:

E: I didn’t think to see you there.
E: they don’t think to let us be there once more.

******************

ED: Students are satisfied of him.
As the example indicates, misusing *of* for *from* or the vice versa is one of the errors which has been repeated a few times throughout the analysis. The sources can be investigated both in L₁ and L₂.

**L₁ source:** *Both *of* and *for* go back to one equivalent in Persian which is *az* and nearly functions in the same way as both *of* and *from*.

*P:* danešamozan *az* ou: razi hæståend
  
  students from him are satisfied

*E:* They are satisfied with him.

In fact *az* in Persian functions in a few different ways. For example it is used to modify time, distance, classification, attributes, origin, material, and cause.

While in English they may function in more diverse and meanwhile different categories mentioned above or in some others.

*P:* *az* sa?t panj ta hæft (time)
  
  From o’clock five to seven

*E:* From five to seven o’clock

*P:* *az* inja ta park (place)
  
  From here to park

*E:* From here to the park

*P:* læbase ou *az* æbrišær æst. (material)
  
  Dress her from silk is

*E:* Her dress is made of silk.

*P:* ou *az* xañævadeh poul dari æst. (origin)
  
  He from family rich is

*E:* he is from a rich family.

*P:* yeki *az* an pænj nafar (part of a whole)
  
  One of that five persons

*E:* one of those five ones
He died out of hunger.

**L2 source:** Using prepositions is highly inconsistent especially with adjectives. In fact, adjectives associate with different prepositions quite invariably and do not follow any particular rule, and this can be one major cause of confusion as well as over-generalization. The list below demonstrates some of the invariability among adjectives and the prepositions attached to them:

- to be fond of
- to be late for
- to be afraid of
- to be curious about
- to be worried about
- to be eager for
- to be satisfied with
- to be jealous of
- to be sorry for

- to be scared of
- to be confident of
- to be tired of
- to be keen on
- to be proud of
- to be proud of
- to be nervous of
- to be surprised at/by
- to be annoyed at/about

Meanwhile, using *of*, *off*, and *from* as English equivalents for Persian *æz* is fairly invariable and fall under different headings:

- To indicate position: the bottom of the road
- To indicate attribute: the wisdom of Socrates
- To indicate origin or status: a man of means
- To indicate material used: a sword of gold
- To indicate content: a cup of coffee
- To indicate cause: she died of pneumonia
- To indicate possession: a cousin of my father, the wealth of the mayor
- To indicate part of a whole: most of the money
- To indicate weights and measurements: a pound of tomatoes
All varying applications of _of_ in English and the limited Persian application can cause transfer and overgeneralization of some of the rules.

DE: We are **aware from** all the news.

L1 source: Misusing _from for of_ can be traced back to both sources of L1 and L2. As it was mentioned above, in Persian, the PELs transfer **æz** from their mother tongue to their L2 as the deviant form below demonstrates:

P: ma æz hæmeh xæberha agah mišævim.

We from all news become aware.

E: We become aware of all news.

Although in English there are definite but invariable patterns according to which prepositions attach to their relevant adjectives of verbs, this is interesting to know that in Persian a preposition does not directly attach to the adjective, and prepositional determinacy contrary to English is above all due to the verb type that appears in a sentence, not the adjective. Besides, as far as the positions of the prepositions is concerned, in Persian, a preposition may appear before or after the verb or the adjective and not necessarily following it as it appears in English. In other words, the position of the preposition is not fixed in Persian:

P: ou: be xaneh ræsid.

He to house reached

P: ou: ræsid be xaneh.

He reached to house

L2 source: The same as other prepositional difficulties, rule inconsistency can be considered as one major factor of deviation among prepositional misuse.

ED: At end, having a job is important.

The high frequency of misusing the preposition **at** can be an indication of the fact that Persian learners encounter some major difficulties in using it appropriately.
**L1 source:** the following list shows how L1 has influenced the learners to incorrectly use *at* as an equivalent for Persian *daf* in various contexts:

- **P:** *daer axaer*  
  *at end*  
  E: *in the end*
- **P:** *daer zendegi*  
  *at life*  
  E: *in life*
- **P:** *dær jameh*  
  *at society*  
  E: *in the society*
- **P:** *daer yek ru:z*  
  *at one day*  
  E: *in a day*
- **P:** *daer in doure*  
  *at this period*  
  E: *in this period*
- **P:** *be rahaye bad*  
  *at ways bad*  
  E: *in bad ways*

**L2 source:** As it can be understood from the deviations mentioned above, the rules of using prepositions are invariable and normally rule inconsistency can be one major cause of deviations in this area.

***************

ED: In the result, we have no job.

**L1 source:** Misusing *in* for *at* has been repeated a few times throughout the study. Misusing *in* for other prepositions has been observed with other forms such as *in the first* or *in the other hand*. The source of this deviant form can be traced to L1 as the sentence below demonstrates:

- **P:** *daer natijeh ma hie ?oqli nasdarim.*  
  *at result we no job not have*  
  E: *At result, we have no jobs.*

In Persian, *daer* can be an equivalent for both *at* and *in* and there are not certain reasons why learners use both these prepositions incorrectly as far as their first language is concerned.

**L2 source:** as it was mentioned before, rule inconsistency among prepositions can be one major factor of deviations in this field.

***************
ED: It is related with the people.

**L1 source:** *with* in English can be assumed to be an equivalent for *ba* or *be* in Persian. The verb *ertebat dashtan* is associated with these particular prepositions and thus transfer can be expected.

P: *râfteh ou be mardom ertebat darâd.*

behaviour his with people relate is

E: it is related to the people.

**L2 source:** In English *relate or related* as a verb or adjective is used with the preposition *to,* but when used as a noun, i.e., relation or relationship, it can be used without any limitation. In fact, prepositional determinacy is due to discourse categories, the speakers’ intention, and the topic to be discussed and therefore, it is assumed that there is no limitation to attribute a certain or limited number of prepositions to certain verbs or adjectives.

E: his relationship with her is denied.

E: I have broken all my relations with them.

E: He is a near relation of mine.

E: he is a relation by marriage.

E: With relation to your abilities, you will be the winner.

E: The relation between mother and children is not friendly.

E: My relationship with her brought about some problems.

E: Your relationship to the issue was unbelievable.

ED: They took me to park *at evening.*

**L1 source:** *at* as a preposition can be an equivalent for *dâr* in Persian and therefore, the learners transfer their L1 nearest equivalent to the L2.

P: *anha mân ra dâr ếb be park bordând.*

they me at evening to park took.

E: they took me to the park in the evening.

**L2 source:** In English, the preposition *at* is in close association with time expressions such as:
at ten at midnight
at noon at dawn
at night at last
at a quarter to nine

The deviant form *at evening* is a misconception of the rule mentioned above. *Evening* which is an expression of time has been preceded by *at*. In other words, the learner has ignored rule restriction and over-generalized it to other similar contexts.

ED: Most of their life pass by playing.

L1 source: In Persian, *ba* or *be* means *by*, and therefore, transfer can be expected.

P: bīstāre zendegie anha ba bazi migozārād.

most life their by/with playing pass

E: most of their life passes on playing.

L2 source: In English the verb *pass* as a phrasal verb can take the preposition *by*:

DD: Pass sb/sth by: pay no attention to. I can’t pass the matter by without a protest.

Besides, as an additional source of deviation, the preposition *by* is over-used in passive construction which can be the cause of overgeneralization.

E: The parcel was passed to me by her.

Moreover, the preposition *by* can be used to function as an adverb, not necessarily determined by the verb, but by the adverb following it.

E: they passed by the road

ED: Father prepare everything to us.

L1 source. In Persian, *to* as a preposition can be traced back to *bzaraye* or *be* which conveys nearly the same meaning.
father prepares everything for us.

**L2 source:** In English, *prepare* as an adjective is followed by the preposition *to* especially in passive construction:

E: We are prepared to supply the goods you ordered.

Besides, when *prepare* is followed very frequently by the infinitive *to*, this can also be a cause of misconception.

E: We prepared the children to leave the house.

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### 3. Errors in the Use of Articles

As the high frequencies of the errors in the use of articles indicate, PELs in most contexts have to struggle with both L1 and L2 sources to master the English article system. McEldowney\(^{202}\) states that the same type of errors of article persist in the English of school children, college students, university students, English teachers, scientists, and other graduates. She recognizes three type of errors among them:

a. Omission of a/the/-s

b. Wrong insertion of a/the/-s

c. Confusion of a/the/-s

This is believed that this area of universal errors probably exists because in article usage, we are dealing with a system of interrelated units. Thus, in this case on the one hand we can anticipate L1 interference, and on the other hand the source of errors are traced back to the L2.

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Master\textsuperscript{203} claims that the English article system is one of the most difficult aspects of English grammar for nonnative speakers and one of the latest to be fully acquired, and he adds that the most difficult is to state the rules explaining article usage in English even for native speakers.

On the other hand, it becomes more complicated when we understand that in the standard Persian there is no word that can closely correspond to the definite article \textit{the} and this absence of definite marker can cause the difficulties which arise in the forms having been presented in the collection of errors. Besides, Faghih\textsuperscript{204} in his study entitled “A contrastive Analysis of the Persian and English Definite Articles” after contrasting a certain taxonomy of the use of definite articles in Persian concludes that:

Finally, due to the fact that Modern Standard Written Persian does not have a definite article it is speculated that the acquisition of the English definite article \textit{the} will constitute a problem. That such a problem is faced by Iranian students also be perceived in view of the fact that the English definite article \textit{the} not only has a low perceptual salience, but also it has a high degree of frequency and a variety of distribution.

The other problem concerning the acquisition of article system is that it is not possible to teach the article system without resorting to the teaching of determiners as they can suitably substitute any articles. On the other hand, this is not a suitable teaching technique to present \textit{the}, \textit{a}, \textit{an} distinctively and separately from other determiners. In fact, determiners are related constituents both semantically and syntactically because it is possible to use them interchangeably. The examples below demonstrate the case more clearly:

1- Water is scarce in this city.
2- A lot of water is wasted here.

\textsuperscript{203}Peter Master. 1990. “Teaching the English Articles as a Binary System.” In \textit{TESOL QUARTERLY} 24: 2. PP. 461-478

3- He drinks much water.
4- Some water is on the floor.
5- The water you drink is not pure.
6- We have no water to drink.

To the examples mentioned above, we can, moreover, add the plural -s which is used for general ideas for zero article. All the determiners used to modify water in the instances mentioned above can indicate the flexibility and variability of nouns and determiners in English.

In the same way, McEldowney, discussing the article system of English in detail, has recognized some major sources of difficulty, one of which is called "overlap". She believes that one source of confusion is the use of articles which easily overlap. For example, one form has several functions: a + N can mark particular or general reference: a cat is an animal; or the + N can indicate a general meaning: the cat is an animal. The interchangeability of a + N, the + N and N + s can be illustrated when one function can be carried out by several forms. For instance, depending on context, general reference can be marked by one of five forms:

-A tiger is a member of the cat family.
-The tiger is a member of the cat family.
-Tigers are members of the cat family.
-The tigers are members of the cat family.
-Fur is thick hair covering certain animals.

These general references can provide the possibility of frequent overlaps and it is possible to assume that these overlaps can be the source of overgeneralization among most L2 learners of English.

The definite article the is used to mark the noun or noun phrase it introduces as definite. In other words, the refers to something which can be identified in the contextual or general knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer. However, to bear these functions, the can be placed in different positions
bearing different functions. When *the* is deleted, it violates L2 rules from different view points.

In the table below, the errors pertaining to articles have been presented with their relevant frequency and the areas they belong to. In the next step, each areas are classified under more concrete categories and discussed in detail.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of error</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deleting <em>the</em></td>
<td>199</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inserting <em>the</em></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misusing <em>the</em> for <em>a</em></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deleting <em>a</em></td>
<td>91</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inserting <em>a</em></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>346</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: errors of article and the areas belonging to it

Article *the* has been classified by Quirk et al\textsuperscript{206} under the following categories. Their classification is regarded as a basis for subdivision of 199 errors of article.

1) Immediate situation
*The* here may be used to describe cases where the reference of *the* is derived from the extralinguistic situation. For example: the students are noisy (at a school yard). Have you passed your course? (a student asking his classmate) Have you fed the cat? (mother asking her daughter)

2) Larger situation (General knowledge)
In this case, the identity of the referent may be evident from knowledge of the larger situation which speaker and hearer share. The situation may be worldwide, or restricted to a country

the prime minister the last war the president the sun
the north pole the earth the church the sky

3) Anaphoric reference: direct

\textsuperscript{206} Op Cit, PP: 95-112.
This is attributed to the situation where the uniqueness of reference of some phrase, the X, is supplied by information given earlier in the discourse.

Allen bought a radio and a TV set, but he returned the radio.

In this context, there is a complementary role for the definite article and the indefinite article: the first reference to an object will be indefinite, but for the next time, it will be considered as contextually identified.

4) Anaphoric reference: indirect

This case arises when a reference becomes part of the hearer's knowledge indirectly, not by direct mention.

John bought a bicycle, but when he rode it, one of the wheels came off.
The situation makes it clear that the bicycle already has wheels, and it isn't necessary to mention it directly.

5) Cataphoric reference:

By the cataphoric use of the may be understood the use of the definite article in a context where what follows the head noun, rather than what precedes it, enables us to pinpoint the reference uniquely. In practice the cataphoric use of the definite article is limited to cases where the modification of the noun phrase restricts the reference of the noun, so that its reference is uniquely modified. The italicized postmodifiers of the following nouns justify the use of the: 

- The head of the department
- The children playing in the garden
- The cars made in Iran
- The noises which they make

6) Sporadic reference

The is sometimes used to refer to the institution of human society. The examples below can demonstrate some of uses of sporadic the:

- The theatre
- The papers
- The ten o'clock news

\[206\text{Op Cit, PP: 266-270.}\]
The logical use of the

The term logical is applied for the cases where the uniqueness of the referent is to be explained not so much by knowledge of the world, as by appeal to the logical interpretation of certain words. These words are postdeterminers and adjectives whose meaning is associated with uniqueness: ordinals such as first; general ordinals such as next and last; also same, only, and superlative adjectives are some examples.

The first flight
The only one
The same habit
The last train
The best choice

8) The use of the with reference to body parts

With reference to parts of the body and following a preposition, ‘the’ is often used instead of possessive pronouns my, your, their, etc:

Mary banged herself on the head.
They pulled her by the hair.
I shook him by the hand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uses of the definite article</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediate situation</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larger situation (general knowledge)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaphoric reference (direct)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anaphoric reference (indirect)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cataphoric reference</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sporadic reference</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The logical use of the</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The with body parts</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15: Article deletion errors and revealing their relevant sources according to the classification suggested by Quirk et al (1985)
a. Errors of Article Deletion

Article deletion, either the or a/an, has been observed widely among PELs. Various causes can be investigated and introduced for the errors mentioned here. Simplicity of the L2 rules can be a plausible explanation for this deletion. The other reason is inconsistency of L2 rules concerning the use of the article system of English. The next idea is substitutability of other constituents for 'the' and other articles and this unstable use of articles can cause confusion. One way of escaping from these problems by L2 learners is deleting this grammatical constituent from their utterances. As the table above shows, from 199 errors of article deletion, 156 of which are assumed to be bi-source errors which in the following will be put under scrutiny.

1) The Omission of the from Immediate Situation

ED: The family of girl ask for a lot of money.

'The' in immediate situation may be used to describe cases where the reference of the is derived from the extralinguistic situation. For example: the students are noisy (at a school yard).

L1 source: Persian, unlike English, does not exactly apply an overt element functioning as a definite marker to modify a noun. This is only the extralinguistic and contextual elements that can help the participants to observe a noun as definite or indefinite. The tendency toward deleting the definite article can be simply traced back to the idea that Persian lacks such an element and definiteness is conveyed by other elements which sometimes is phonological rather than being lexical. Consequently, this deficiency is likely to be transferred to the learners' L2. A look at 51 errors of this type can simply support this assumption. Therefore, it is possible to observe a large number of article deletions in Iranian students' writings; however, this is not the only explanation for the deviation from the L2's norms.

P: xanevadehe doxter teqazaye poole ziyadi kerdand

family girl ask for money a lot did
E: the family of the girl asked for a lot of money.

P: Yeki: az moškelat qanoon ast.

one of problems law is

E: one of the problems is the law.

L2 source: As it can be understood from the classification mentioned above, the use of article for the immediate situation is applied to the situations where the reference of the is derived from the extralinguistic situation. In other words, the speaker or the writer, regarding the linguistic and non-linguistic elements or discourse, has to understand whether the is necessary or not or the item being spoken is definite or not and this kind of relationship is already clear to the speaker and listener. In such cases, it is the shared knowledge that simply helps them to designate the elements of a sentence as definite or indefinite because in most situations these elements are physically present and visible and the context naturally determines the need for an article. Besides, there are several exceptions of article usage with certain nouns which makes the task of learning English article system more complicated. The list below is an example of the case:

a) We go to/return from church, school, college, prison, hospital, market.
b) We go to bed.
c) We go to sea.
d) We work at sea/market.

To demonstrate the case contextually, McEldowney has presented two passages containing the description of a bird from a general viewpoint and in the second one, the noun phrases are particular in references and consequently article insertion varies from one context to the next one. In other words, the use of article above everything is determined by the subject matter as well as the situation and contextual categories. One bird is described in two passages in which one noun having the same function is modified differently by two different articles:
Passage 1
The Kiwi is a New Zealand bird. It has a pear-shaped body resulting from the absence of tail feathers and the loss of the breast muscles. Kiwis are flightless birds living in forest areas where they make nests in the ground. They eat worms, grubs, and berries.

Passage 2
The bird on my right is a Kiwi. You will notice that it has a pear-shaped body. It has a very long bill with nostrils at the tip and some whiskers sprouting from the base. There are three front toes each ending in a strong curved claw. These are balanced by the short hind toe. The feathers are brown and very coarse.

Therefore, the correct use of the in these cases depends on the ability of the learner to understand what the situation is like and how the contextual elements are related. In other words, grammar rules alone are not sufficient unless the situational and contextual categorizations are put into consideration by the speakers. But for the Persian learners, to use grammar rules and to resort to them is easier and more important than considering the situational and contextual elements of the discourse, and this has been regarded as one of the weaknesses of Persian learners whose linguistic usage overweighs their linguistic use. To the ideas mentioned here, we can also quote some ideas belonging to McEldowney who says:

Apart from overlap in the central area of article usage, there are, on the fringes, idiomatic uses which have the potential of interfering with central article usage. For instance, it is difficult to teach He is at home, or He is in hospital without in effect also teaching He is at window or The pen is in box.

2) Cataphoric Reference
In cataphoric use of the article ‘the’, the head noun being modified by the article is followed by a modifying phrase or clause and thus its use is restricted

207 Op Cit, PP. 95-112.
to a certain context. Therefore, in this situation, the contextual determinacy is provided by the phrase or the clause which restricts the noun by modifying it, so that its reference is uniquely modified.

ED: payment of a job must be enough. (with modifying phrases)

L1 source: the L1 interference arises on the ground that the basic problem which governs article usage among PELs has no similarity with the Persian construction. However, confusion, as in case of immediate situation, reveals itself when we understand that there is no overt grammatical item in Persian that can directly correspond to the definite article ‘the’ in English. Definiteness in Persian, as it was mentioned before, can be expressed in other ways, even it is sometimes phonological, rather than being lexical. Consequently, PELs tend to transfer this lack of article usage to their L2.

P: dæstmozde yek soql bayæd kæfi bææd.

E: The payment of a job must be enough.

ED: these are factors that everybody must know. (with modifying clauses)


E: these are the factors that everyone must know.

ED: it has a few problems for people who want to learn a language.

P: an çænd moæskel bæraye æfradi keh mixahænd yek zæban

E: it has a few problems for people who want a language to learn has

ED: it has a few problems for the people who want to learn a language.

Therefore, there is enough evidence that one source of the cataphoric errors of article can be attributed to turners’ L1.

L2 source:

Ibid, P: 104.
One problem of misusing articles is that definiteness is not merely indicated through 'the'. There are some other constituents that can function in the same manner as the examples below demonstrate:

a. this factor is important.
b. the factor is important.
c. these factors are important.
d. those factors are important.
e. several factors are important.
f. a few factors are important.
g. my factors are important.

These examples indicate that confusion in the use of definite and indefinite is predictable as the rules invariably vary from one situation to another, and this can grow when the learners face the examples like the cases below although the nouns are followed by a defining clause or phrase. In other words, the general rule that signifies the cataphoric use of articles is simply violated. This is assumed to be one main cause of rule inconsistency which directs the L2 learners to commit some of the deviant forms of their L2.

a. An old man in the bus begged me for some money.
b. A young lady in blue is waiting for you outside.
c. A dictionary that contains everything we need is not available yet.

3) Sporadic Reference of the

'The' in its sporadic usage refers to any human institution like the theatre, the papers, the radio, the news. etc. or to modern communication and transportation such as the bus, the train, the post. But in this position 'the' is optionally used with words referring to seasons: the spring, the fall.

ED: Society where we live is responsible for it.

L1 source: the same as other deviants of article usage. Persian lacks a definite overt constituent to represent definiteness.
P: Jame?h maesoule an æst.

    society responsible that is
E: The society is responsible for it.
ED: They speak about them in TV. and radio.

P: anha dær bareh anha dær radio væ televizion sohbæt mikonænd.

    They about them in radio and TV speak do
E: They speak about them on the radio and (the) TV.

Therefore, the transfer of L1 rule can be expected, and here article omission, from L2 context which is a reflection of L1 rules is observed.

L2 source: Rule inconsistency and exceptions belonging to article usage is introduced as the source of confusion. To support this claim, the researcher can point out to the following items which can be used without any article when used in sporadic reference:

- television or the television
- drama or the drama
- winter or the winter

Some abstract nouns such as telephone, means of transportation, communication, news, drama, art, are simply used in their sporadic reference without any preceding article when the purpose is giving reference to the general application of these words. The underlined words in the following sentences can show some part of the problem:

a) communication has rapidly advanced in our time.
b) winter and summer are the same for me.
c) drama has appealed a lot of viewers.
d) he travels by car/bus/plane/train/tube/boat.
e) he is always late for dinner.
f) they are at school but we are in college.

4) The Logical Use of The
Quirk et al. elaborate the logical use of 'the' for the cases where the uniqueness of the referent is to be explained not so much by knowledge of the world, as by appeal to the logical interpretation of certain words. These words are postdeterminers and adjectives whose meaning is associated with uniqueness: ordinals such as first; general ordinals such as next and last also same, only, sole, and superlative adjectives:

E: what is the first flight to Chicago?
E: they are the same for these people.
E: we can catch the next train.
E: he is the best among his friends.

ED: Most important factor is income for teacher.

L1 source: as the deviant forms in ED above indicates, there is a tendency among PEs to delete the when used in its logical use. One important source of this tendency is that Persian language does not overtly employ a definite marker like 'the' in its structure:

P: mohemtærin čiz bæraye moælem dæramæd æst.

most important thing for teacher income is

E: the most important thing for the teacher is the income.

L2 source: First and other ordinals are used at least in two positions: as a postdeterminer and as a conjunction. As a postdeterminer, in most contexts, it has to be modified by an article, but as a conjunctive adverb indicating order, there is no need for an article. and overgeneralization arises when the two functions are confused:

-As the first step, prepare the materials. (postdeterminer)
-First, prepare the materials. (conjunction)
-we all visited the beautiful, blonde. fïth American artist. (postdeterminer)
-we, last of all, visited the artist. (conjunction)
-who was the man who first stepped on the moon? (conjunction)

309 Op Cit, P. 270
Besides, Quirk et al.\textsuperscript{210} believe that even sometimes as a postmodifier, it is possible to drop the article \textit{the} out:
- he won first prize.
- At the wedding: he was best man (groomsman).

\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*

ED: \textbf{Main problem} for them is speaking language.

\textbf{L1 source}: The same as other cases of article misuse, article \textit{the} is ignored by PELs as their L1 lacks this constituent:

P: mæs?ælehe \ææli bæraye anha sohbat kærdæne an zæban æst.

\begin{quote}
problem main for them speaking the language is
\end{quote}

E: the main problem for them is speaking the language.

\textbf{L2 source}: We can use other constituents in the contexts like the above to convey definiteness without resorting to 'the'. In other words, it is possible to apply other constituents as the examples below indicate:

- One main problem is speaking the language.
- His main problem is speaking the language.

In these examples, although uniqueness is indicted by \textit{one} and \textit{his}, the L2 learner ignores them as to him the constituents that can bear definiteness is limited to the article \textit{the}.

\textbf{b. Inserting Article “a”}

Although not large in number, incorrect insertion of article “a” can be traced back to both sources of L1 and L2.

ED: he has a good facility.

\textbf{L1 source}: In Persian, unlike English, the article \textit{yek}, as an equivalent for ‘a’ is actively used in various contexts without regarding the countability or uncountability of the head noun it modifies.

P: ou: æz yek emkanate xobi bæxordar æst.

he from a facilities good has

\textsuperscript{210}Ibid, P: 270.
In discussing the incorrect application of ‘a’, we come to one main difficulty which is assumed to be the main source of this error and that is the differences that exist in English and Persian between the rules that govern count and non-count nouns. For PELs, to correctly use *a, the*, or even zero article, this is necessary to distinguish count and non-count nouns. In the previous chapter, we discussed how PELs come to serious difficulties when learning count and non-count nouns and this failure is transferred to the use of articles, no matter it is *the, a*, or even zero article. The examples below demonstrate the case more clearly:

**ED**: it is important for me to have a good income.

**P**: dastæne yek dəramade xob bærye mæn mohem æst.

to have a income good for me important is

**E**: it is important for me to have good income.

**ED**: Getting money is a way of obtaining a better life.

**P**: bedæst aværdæne pool yek rahe ræsidæne be yek zændægiæ behtær æst.

getting money a way reaching to a life better is

**E**: Getting money is one way of reaching better life.

**ED**: Everyone has a good interest to his job.

**P**: hærkæsi yek ælaqæ xobi be zændægiæ daraed

everyone a interest good to life his has

**E**: everyone has good interest to his life.

All the errors mentioned in the EDs above can be traced back to learners’ L1 as they ignore the uncountability of the head nouns that ‘a’ modifies.

**L2 source**: In English, nearly the same as Persian, article ‘a’ is used to tap different purposes and is applied almost invariably with different expressions that violate the general rule of using ‘a’ with countable singular indefinite nouns. The following examples demonstrate the invariable use of ‘a’ more clearly:

**E**: she has a bad cold.

**E**: I have a headache.
L2 source: In English, nearly the same as Persian, article ‘a’ is used to tap different purposes and is applied almost invariably with different expressions that violate the general rule of using ‘a’ with countable singular indefinite nouns. The following examples demonstrate the invariable use of ‘a’ more clearly:

E: she has a bad cold.
E: I have a headache.
E: what a fool!
E: he has a temperature.
E: he answered with a shake.
E: he answered with a nod.

Besides, as English rules belonging to count and non-count nouns vary from one context to another, in the same way, the rule inconsistency and exceptions of L1 rules lead L2 learners to commit the deviant forms like the ones mentioned above. For instance fish. food. stone. rain. chicken, fruit, and many others, depending on the context, are considered both count and non-count. Although the context can clearly determine whether the given noun is count or non-count, observing any of these nouns with ‘a’ can encourage the overgeneralization of the rule.

4. The Errors of Concord

A large number of errors pertaining to the problems of agreement indicate that PELs have serious difficulties in this area. Lack of agreement has appeared in different forms: using singular verbs for plural subjects, or vice versa, dropping the third person singular -s, misunderstanding the abstract subjects and considering them as plural are the major ones. To locate the sources of these deviations, it can be claimed that deleting some grammar morphemes in some second language learners happens as these elements are redundant and do not
serve any functional need. Besides, as Richards\textsuperscript{211} believes simplification and redundancy reduction are the main causes of transfer. L2 learners, by deleting some elements from the L2 structure try to simplify the use of their L2, and this is observable in violating the rules of agreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of errors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>71.7</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronoun-antecedent agreement</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determiner-head noun agreement</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject complement-verb agreement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>244</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: The errors of agreement and the relevant sources as well as the frequencies

To discuss the sources of these deviant forms, the researcher has classified the collected errors of concord under different groups and categories and then the main sources of interference have been identified.

Of 244 errors of agreement, 229, i.e., 93% are assumed to belong to bi sources.

a. Errors in subject-verb agreement

176 deviations in providing subject-verb agreement is an evidence of the fact that there are serious problems for PELs to provide the required agreement in some areas especially between subject and verbs. Table 17 demonstrates further classification of these error types, i.e., subject-verb agreement, then through this classification, the sources can be investigated.

\textsuperscript{211}Op Cit, P: 174.
Errors of subject-verb agreement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Errors of subject-verb agreement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deletion of third person -s</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>60.3</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors of copula</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors of do and does</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors of have and has</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inversion in there is and there are</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>176</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17: The errors of subject-verb agreement, the areas, frequencies, and the related sources

Of the total number of the errors of subject-verb agreement, 140 belong to bi source errors.

i) Deleting Third-Person Singular -s

63% of the errors of agreement, having been repeated at high frequency, are the deletion of third person -s ending. In fact, this inflectional suffix performs two major grammatical functions: indicating singularity as well as present simple tense in English. It is clear, in the case of these errors, both sources of L1 and L2 interfere and are assumed to be the major causes of these repeated errors.

ED: he need a car.

L1 source: The deletion of the inflectional suffix -s from the L2 structure can be an instance of an inter-lingual error as this phenomenon does not exist in Persian verb forms. Rather, the simple present in Persian is made by prefixing the particle mi- to the present stem of the verb followed by the personal inflectional suffixes.

In other words, all nouns take their own prefixes and suffixes to indicate singularity, plurality, and even tense. In the following, the conjugation of the present simple of the verb ‘goftan’ meaning ‘to say’ is presented:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First person</td>
<td>migoyəm</td>
<td>migoyeem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second person</td>
<td>migoyee</td>
<td>migoyeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person</td>
<td>migoyəd</td>
<td>migoyənd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Therefore, in the case of Persian, the third-person singular is not the only exception which is different from other persons, rather all persons take their own prefixes and suffixes, and the affixation is not limited to the third person singular.

P: ou: radio gu:s mikonæd.
    she radio listens.
E: She listens to the radio.

P: mæn radio gu:s mikonæm.
    I radio listen
E: I listen to the radio.

Moreover, in those structures which begin by the empty subjects of 'there is' and 'there are', there exists the possibility of misunderstanding the correct subject as well as misusing the right subject-verb agreement.

P: moșkelate ziyadi dar yadgérie yek zæban vojdu daræd.
   problems a lot in learning a language there is
E: there are a lot of problems in learning a language.

The Persian sentence above indicates that a singular verb is used for the plural subject of 'moșkelat' which is plural. In Persian construction, the verb remains singular with inanimate subjects and plural with animate ones. This exception may be transferred to their L2 by the PELs.

**L2 source:** Adding the inflectional suffix -s to the third person is an exception which is applicable in case of the present simple tense and which is restricted to third person singular; besides, this deletion, as Doskova claims, can be an instance of over-generalization since in English all persons take the zero verbal ending except the third person singular in the present simple and consequently its omission can be accounted for the heavy pressure of other endingless forms and this endingless form is generalized for all persons. Therefore, based on the examples mentioned above, it can be concluded that the errors of deleting third

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212 Op Cit, PP: 11-36.

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person singular -s can be attributed to both L1 and L2, or in other words, it is a bi-source error.

The deviations belonging to the misuse of do/does and have/has can be attributed to the both L1 and L2. In the same manner, the difference between do/does and have/has do not exist in Persian and besides, does and has are exceptionally differentiated and thus the rule is moreover made inconsistent for the L2 learners.

ED: He do it a few times a day.

Using do for different persons does not bear any exception in Persian:
P: ou: an ra čænd bar dær rooz ænjam midæhæd.
    he it a few times in day do
E: he does it a few times a day.

Errors belonging to the misuse of have has can be interpreted in the same way as do/does with the same sources.

***************

ii) Determiner-head noun agreement
The problem of determiner-head noun agreement is assumed to be a bi-source error.

ED: this books belong to that boys.

L1 source: in Persian, the concord of determiner and head noun is not provided as it happens in English:
P: in ketabha male an pesærha æst.
    this books belong that boys is
E: these books belong to those boys.

There is no agreement between the head nouns books and boys and the determiners this and that in P above.
   all this factors in life this people affect
E: All these factors affect these people’ s life.
The plural head nouns factors and people are modified by the determiners all this and this in the P above.

P: xarejihaye ziyadi dær iran zendegi nemiknænd.

Foreigners many in Iran live don't

E: Many foreigners do not live in Iran.

P: væqte ziyadi hædær ræft.

time much wasted

E: much time was wasted.

As the two Ps above indicate, the term ziyadi as a quantifier meaning both much and many is used to modify both count and non-count nouns but in English there are different terms which function in different contexts although they bear the same function. This lack of differentiation between the quantifiers used for count and non-count nouns is one major factor of transfer.

Besides, the complexity of the head-noun determiner agreement can be demonstrated more clearly by the examples below which partially reveal the differences between countable and non-countable nouns in English and Persian:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>karha (count)</td>
<td>work (non-count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>næsayeh (count)</td>
<td>advice (non-count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etelaat (count)</td>
<td>information (non-count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>danešha (count)</td>
<td>knowledge (non-count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tæbliqat (count)</td>
<td>advertising (non-count)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mobleman (count)</td>
<td>furniture (non-count)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are a large number of other examples which can be added to this list to indicate how the words which are count in Persian are non-count in English, and in the same way, the determiners which modify them can also be different. In other words, the rules that govern countability and non-countability of some nouns in Persian are not so sharp and clear as they appear and are stated in English. This shortcoming is naturally transferred to the English output by PELs.
L2 source: There are a lot of variations among the rules that govern determiners and the head nouns. On the one hand there are the determiners that are used invariably with both count and non-count nouns:
A lot of time/ A lot of books
A great deal of money/ A great deal of books
Some money/ some books
All books/ all book
No books/ no book

On the other hand, the learners in order to use the head nouns and the determiners correctly should master two aspects of English grammar. First, they should realize the count and non-count nouns. Second, they have to distinguish the determiners or the quantifiers which are used to modify count and non-count nouns.

### 5. Errors of Adjective Clauses

The main bulk of the errors in the area of adjective clauses pertain to pronominal retention which has been termed "resumption". Other errors of adjective clauses among PELs are not so important to require discussion. As it has been noticed in the educational system of Iran, little attention is devoted to the teaching of adjective clauses and normally the learners reveal some sort of obvious weaknesses when they set to using them in their speeches or writings. Table 17 demonstrates the errors of adjective clauses and the areas belonging to them and the assumed sources of each.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of errors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resumption</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misplaced</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative pro. misuse</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject deletion</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative pro. deletion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 17 containing the errors of adjective clauses and the relevant areas
a. Errors of Resumption

Resumption, or pronominal retention, as Hyltenstam\textsuperscript{213} has labeled it, is attributed to the insertion of an additional pronoun in the structures in which an adjective clause has been used. The retention may occur in almost different erroneous forms, some of which are demonstrated in table 18 with the relative frequencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of misuse</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject adjective clause</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object adjective clause</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional adjective clause</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb adjective clause</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 containing the errors of resumption and the relevant areas

As the data indicate, most errors of resumption, around 45 out of 56, center around the cases where the relative pronoun is first in object and then in subject position.

i) Relative pronoun in Subject Position

ED: we can see some films that they can help us.

LI source: Schachter believes that Persian the same as Arabic, and unlike Japanese and Chinese, is not a pronominal retention language. In other words, in Persian, the subject of object pronoun is optionally retained while they have to be deleted in their English counterparts.

P: ma mit\œvanim filmhaie bebinim keh anha mit\œvan\œnd be ma kom\œk
we can films see that they can to us help konand.

do

E: we watch the films which can help us.

\textsuperscript{213}Op Cit, P. 35.
ED: there are many people that they think childhood is a bad time.
P: voj̣ed daraed æfrade ziadi keh anha fekr mikonænd bačegi dourane
badist.
there is people a lot that they think do childhood time
bad is
E: there are a lot of people who think childhood is bad time.
As it can be understood from the deviations in the two sentences above, where the relative pronoun modifies an animate or inanimate, there exists the possibility of pronominal retention.

L2 source: two L2 sources can be hypothetically introduced as the main sources of resumption. The first is the over use of ‘that’ first as a complementizer in noun clauses and second substituting it for who, whom, and which in adjective clauses. The role of ‘that’ in these different positions is likely to be misunderstood or confused. That as a complementizer which functions optionally in noun clauses may overlap with that as a relative pronoun which is overused in various positions in adjective clauses. Therefore, for PELs, this is plausible to overuse ‘that’ in the same way that they apply it in noun clauses where it is followed by a noun or pronoun where it functions as subject to the noun clause:
E: The man thinks that......
E: The student believes that......
E: I assume that we......
E: They understand that.....
The overuse of the forms like the above may presumably lead to similar forms like the ones below:
ED: The man that he thinks...
ED: The student that she loves....
ED: These errors which they commit them.....
The second assumption can be laid on the idea posed by Richards who states that the sources of pronominal retention is the "practice effect". He maintains that "this is not fit to drink it" is nearly the same as "the man whom I saw him" where the learner has been taught to include object pronoun in the first sentence which as a result of analogy is likely to be applied to other similar contexts.

ii) Relative Pronoun in Object Position

The first thing to mention about misusing relative clauses in which the relative pronoun is in object position is that from 27 deviations belonging to this area, only in 5 cases the learners have preferred 'which' over 'that' and in other 22 cases, 'that' has been preferred as the relative pronoun. The reason for this preference is almost clear. 'That' as a complementizer is used invariably in noun clauses. Besides, in adjective clauses, it is regarded very frequently as a substitute for 'who', 'whom', and 'which' in subject or object positions as this may lead the learners to commit fewer errors and give more confidence to them.

ED: They have desires which they haven’t achieved them.

L1 source: Persian and Arabic, unlike French, Italian, and Swedish allow pronominal retention and therefore, the transfer of L1 structure is plausible.

P: anha xastehaie daraend keh anah ra bedæst nayaværdæn
they desires have which them achieve not them

E: they have desires which they haven’t achieved.

L2 source: Richards states that the source of pronominal retention in any position is the practice effect or analogy. As an example of the case, he states that "this is not fit to drink" is nearly the same as "the man whom I saw him" where the learner has been taught obligatorily to include object pronoun in the first sentence which as a result is transferred into the next one. In the same manner,

rule inconsistency among the rules governing the application of relative pronouns concerning their forms, functions, and the degree of substitutability can cause some part of the confusion.

iii) Relative Pronoun as Object to Preposition

ED: These are the most factors that I pay attention to them.

L1 source: In Persian, the object pronoun is retained in the adjective clause no matter the relative pronoun is subject, object, or object to preposition. The condition is the same for these three positions and this is possible to assume that transfer of Persian forms is likely to happen.

P: inha əvameli hæstånd keh ma be anha tævæjoh darim
these factors are that we to them attention pay

E: These are the factors to which we pay attention.

L2 source: This is a fact that in English almost always a preposition leads to a noun phrase. To leave a preposition without the following noun phrase looks odd to PELs who have always visited a preposition followed with an object. Therefore, one plausible interpretation for the inclusion of the relative pronoun in a sentence like the ED above is following the obligatory rule of inserting an object pronoun after any preposition and as a result, analogy can be expected. Leaving the object pronoun out normally violates the general rule that prepositions usually lead to an object. In this case, rule inconsistency may be one main cause of pronoun retention among these learners. Violating the rule is especially plausible when the inserted relative pronoun is 'that' and not 'which', because in the case of 'which' and other WH relative pronouns, the learners are already familiar with the following forms:

E: Who are you talking to?
E: Which page did you take the idea from?

\[\text{\textsuperscript{215}Ibid, P. 176.}\]
But the form is almost odd when ‘that’ is inserted as the relative pronoun. However, in this study, in all eight cases of pronominal retention, the relative pronoun is ‘that’ not ‘which’.

6. Errors in The Use of Adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of misuse</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjective as a noun</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective as adverb</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective as verb</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 demonstrating the errors of adjectives with the relevant areas

As it can be understood from the table 19, only 24 errors of misusing an adverb for an adjective pertain to bi source errors which will be discussed below.

a. Misusing Adjectives as Adverbs

ED: Most people can’t save money **good**.

**L1 source:** In Persian, the same form is invariably used to modify a noun or a verb. In other words in Persian, there is no difference between the form of an adjective and an adverb.

P: bištāre mārdom nemītēvanēnd xōb puːl jām? konēnd. (xōb as an adverb)

most people not can good money save

E: Most people can’t save money well.

P: moʔešmē ʃoqle xōbē æst. (xōb as adjective)

teaching job good is

E: Teaching is a good job.

As the two Persian sentences above indicate, PELs do not differentiate between ‘xōb’ as an adjective and adverb because they have the same form in Persian.

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L2 source: In English, to change adjectives to adverbs of manner, the learners have to follow one general rule: including the suffix -ly and achieving the necessary adverb of manner. Nevertheless, the rule is violated from two sides. On the one hand, all adverbs of manner do not lead to -ly as the examples below demonstrate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slow</td>
<td>slow(ly)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hard</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>fast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last</td>
<td>last</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, all words that lead to -ly do not constitute an adverb of manner, rather they can either make an adjective or adverb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lovely</td>
<td>only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friendly</td>
<td>recently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yearly</td>
<td>manly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brotherly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it can be observed, the rule inconsistency and the exceptions belonging to this area are the main causes of deviations like the sentences below:

ED: They play friendly and lovely.
ED: Can he do this job good and fastly?

Furthermore, another cause of misusing adjectives for adverbs by PELs is observing the contexts in which adjectives are placed after linking verbs and this exception violates the general rule of adjective insertion in a sentence. The adjectives in these contexts function as subject complements and this function may provide the misconception for the learners that they can establish their own hypothesis about using adjectives without any restrictions as the deviations below indicate:
ED: he goes to university very comfortable.

**L1 source:** In Persian and in a context like 'this, the learners can use the same item to function both as an adverb and adjective without the limitations of English.

P: ou: xeili rahat be danešgah miræved. (ra'at as an adverb)

He very comfortable to university go

E: He goes to university very comfortably.

P: in sændæli xeili rahat æst. (rahat as an adjective)

This chair very comfortable is

E: This chair is very comfortable.

As it can be understood from the Persian sentences, 'rahat', an equivalent for comfortable, is both an adverb and adjective and therefore transfer is plausible. In other words, in Persian, the same form is used for both the adjective and adverb.

**L2 source:** Besides, adjectives are actively used after some verbs, namely linking verbs, which here they function as subject complements that modify the subject as the examples below indicate.

E: He feels very comfortable.

E: He looks very comfortable.

E: He sounds comfortable.

E: She appeared comfortable.

Overusing these forms can indicate the presupposition for the PELs that the rule can be overgeneralized to other contexts with action verbs.

To go one step further, the following linguistic forms are also possible to occur:

E: She turned to be old.

E: She grew excited.

E: She became angry.

As a result of these forms, one may predict that the deviant forms below may occur:

ED: They can communicate easier.

ED: They could cry loud.
ED: They sleep peaceful.

7. Errors in the Use of Adverb Clauses

One important point to be mentioned here is that since PELs have difficulty with the adverb clauses, they actively prefer to avoid them; therefore, the small number of deviations does not indicate that these learners have little difficulty with them, rather it reveals the fact that they escape from using them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Misuse</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverb for Infinitive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense Agreement</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause as Phrase</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrase as Clause</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Although-but</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 demonstrating information on the errors of adverb clauses

a. Misusing an adverb clause for infinitive
ED: he must have enough money until he use from them.
L1 source: “ta” in Persian as an equivalent for until in English carries several meanwhile different functions. The same as until, it can be used both with clauses and phrases:
1. with phrases:
   a. to indicate distance:
P: ou: az xaneh ta danešgah david.
   He from home to university ran
E: he ran from home to university.

b. To indicate time:
He until o'clock eight wait did
E: he waited up to eight.

c. To indicate purpose/reason
P: ou: xaneh mand ta bexahæd.
He home stayed until sleep
E: he stayed home to sleep.

2. with clauses
a. to indicate reason:
P: ou: ræft ta mæn dærs bexanæm.
He went until I study do
E: he went as I wanted to study.

b. To indicate distance:
P: ou: ræft ta be mædreseh ræsid.
He went until to school reached
E: He went as far as the school.

c. To indicate time:
P: ou: televizion tæmaša kærd ta mædar amæd.
He television watch did until mother arrived
E: He watched television by the time mother arrived.

d. To indicate condition:
P: bišær dærs bexan ta movafaq savi.
More study do until success do
E: study more to succeed.

Considering all these functions for ta as an equivalent for 'until', the PEls are expected to transfer some of the functions into their L2.
L2 source: The only function which has been attributed to *till* and *until* in English is using them as subordinating conjunctions bearing some sense of time. However, these conjunctions are used with both phrases and clauses although their functions are the same in any of these contexts. The inconsistency in using these subordinators with both phrases and clauses can be the sole plausible explanation for learners’ confusion and the errors they make belonging to this area.

E: They lived here until 1985. (with phrase)
E: She waited until ten. (with phrase)
E: He lived with us until you moved in. (with clause)
E: They watched TV. until the electricity went off. (with clause)

8. Errors of Word Order

Errors of word order fall under two major classes: errors with the use of adverbs of frequency and adverbs of manner. In other areas, the frequency of errors is either zero or very few. For example, in some areas such as S V O or the adjective-head noun order, the least possible difficulties occur in spite of considerable differences between the two languages. It seems that the learners have no serious difficulties in using these forms and therefore, errors reduce to zero.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Misuse</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs of Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs of Manner</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective-head noun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 containing errors of word order

ED: Money *always* is not the most important thing.

L1 source: In Persian, adverbs of frequency are used almost invariably without assigning a definite position to them, rather they can shift according to some
conditions especially the level of emphasis given to them. In other words, Persian grammar is not so strict as English in describing the rules of word order.

E: he always comes to class after all students.
E: he is always the last student to class.

E: he never invites us.

As the Persian sentences reveal, adverbs of frequency can appear in different positions without the limitations of English. As a result, the transfer of L1 rules is plausible.

L2 source: Although it is prescribed that the adverbs of frequency in English possess a definite position, some invariability can be observed among them.

E: He is always late to class. (after linking verbs)
E: He always gets up late. (before action verbs)
E: He does not always leave on time. (after negative auxiliary)
E: Never does he know when to leave. (initial position)
E: They have always been looking for a better job. (after auxiliary and before ‘be’)

The rule, as it can be understood from the above instances, is inconsistent enough to lead to confusion and overgeneralization.
9. Errors in the Use of Noun Clauses

The major deviations belonging to misusing noun clauses relate to one certain area which is misusing a clause for an infinitive phrase. The errors of this area are repeated very frequently among PELs as a major difficulty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of misuse</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Misusing a clause for infinitive</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That deletion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22 showing the errors of noun clauses

ED: Many factors cause that we can’t get a good mark.

L1 source: The verb ‘ba?es ,"odazn’ as an equivalent for ‘cause’ is followed by a noun clause in Persian.

P: avamele ziadi ba?es misazvad keh ma nesyvanim yek nomreh xob  
   factors many cause that we not can a mark good begirim.

get

E: Many factors cause us not to get a good mark.

L2 source: A large number of verbs in English are invariably followed either by infinitive and gerund or a ‘that clause’ and in this respect, the rules are highly inconsistent and contain a lot of exceptions in their usage. The examples below show some part of the problem:

E: he suggested to stay home.
E: he suggested that we stay home.

And in the same manner the following pairs are possible:

E: I consider him to be the best candidate.
E: I consider that he is the best candidate.

Both forms being correct, the learners can not recognize why and in what way one form is preferred over the other. In other words, as the examples below indicate.
rule inconsistency among the infinitive and noun clauses affects the learners’ performance more closely.

E: she believes that........
E: He postulates that........
E: We imagine that........
E: We understand that........

But we can visit the following forms too:

E: She intends to.......  
E: She decides to........  
E: She wants to.........  
E: She wishes to........

The following pairs are considered correct:

E: He persuaded me to change my mind.
E: He persuaded me that his plan was preferable.

Or in the same way, the following forms are possible:

E: The police warned us not to leave the shelter.
E: The police warned us that he is a dangerous person.

However, the following structures are considered incorrect:

ED: It caused that........
ED: He decides that........
ED: He wants that.......  
ED: He intends that.......  

All these linguistic forms indicate that rule inconsistency among noun clauses and infinitive phrases is affecting the L2 learners and here PELs’ performance.

The next plausible interpretation for overusing a clause for an infinitive phrase is when there are two subjects for two different verbs in a sentence. The example below can make the point clear.

E: We decided to hold a meeting.

In this sentence, ‘we’ is the only subject to both ‘decide’ and the infinitive ‘to hold’.
E: We wanted them to hold the meeting.
But in this sentence, 'we' is subject to the verb 'want', but not to the infinitive 'to hold', rather 'them' is subject to infinitive, and this is where the learners either avoid these structures or prefer the less complicated structures. Additionally, the learners will face double burden of problems when they are exposed at the negative and passive forms which are more complicated:
E: He wanted me not to lend them the money.
E: He wanted to have been visited by the manager himself.
As we proceed, the complexity of the structures determine the degree of avoidance as well as the learners' resorting to erroneous forms.

ED: Some people are enthusiastic that they learn a foreign language.
L1 source: In Persian, an adjective functioning as a subject compliment, is followed by a noun clause while the structure being used in English is an infinitive and not a noun clause.
P: ba?zi māردom ?ælaqemændnd keh (anha) yek zæbane xareji yad begirænd.
   some people enthusiastic are that (they) one language foreign learn do.
   E: Some people are enthusiastic to learn a foreign language.
The great number of the deviations like the above indicate that FELs have serious problems in this area. As the examples below indicate, for one form in Persian, there are two counterparts in English:

P: mæn xošhalem keh......
   I happy am that....
E: I am happy that......
E: I am happy to......
P: anha qamginand keh......
   they sad are that....
E: They are sad that......
E: They are sad to.....
P: ou: negæræn æst keh......
   he worried is that......
E: She is worried that......
E: She is worried to......

L2 source: when an adjective is used as a subject complement, the following structures are possible to happen:
E: we are interested in reading magazines.
E: They are happy to stay.
E: they are happy that you can stay.
E: They are so happy that you can not imagine.

In other words, a prepositional phrase, an infinitive phrase, a that clause, and finally an adverb clause can follow a subject complement, and therefore, the rules governing the use of phrases and clauses are not consistent and transfer is possible to occur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>deletion</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insertion</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>mono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23 demonstrating errors of copula

**a. Errors of copular Deletion**

The present study is to elaborate the errors of copula as bi source errors. Some grammar morphemes in some ILs happen as these elements are redundant and do not serve any functional need. Richards believes that simplicity and redundancy reduction are the main causes of transfer. In other words, great number of errors in this field prove that copular elements are considered redundant by the PELs. On the whole, the examples below demonstrate some errors of copular deletion which are repeated more frequently among PELs.

ED: we don't interest to our job.

**L1 source:** The major reason for copular reduction by PELs is that in their L1 and in some cases the copula is reduced to what is called 'kasre' which is phonological rather than a lexical element and this is plausible that the learners transfer this reduced Persian form into their L2.
However, to investigate the causes of these errors, we should consider the prepositional and other structural differences of the two languages. These differences can cause confusion and interference.

**L2 source:** when used in different contexts, ‘interest’ can take different functions:
1) She interested the little boy by encouraging him. (as a verb)
2) She is interested in correcting my errors. (as subject complement)
3) Her interest is correcting me in front of others. (as a noun)
Inconsistency in the functions that ‘interest’ takes can probably lead to confusion and transfer.

ED: They able to learn a foreign language.

**L1 Source:** In Persian for a context like the ED above, the linking verb is either reduced to ‘kasreh’ or it is preferably deleted.

P: anha mitævanænd yek zæbane xæreji yad begirænd.
They able one language foreign learn

E: They are able to learn a foreign language.

**L2 source:** ‘Able’ as an adjective can be changed to ‘enable’ as a verb; however, the similarity between the two forms may lead to confusion. Besides, using a large number of items like this as subject complements which function almost the same as a verb may cause some problems for the learners. Another source of confusion is using ‘can’ as a verb indicating ‘ability’, but the difference is that when using ‘can’, there is no need for a linking verb.

ED: My job related on my future.

**L1 source:** In Persian, unlike English, an overt ‘be’ form functioning as a linking verb is not inserted in a structure like the ED above, and therefore, it is preferably
deleted by PELs. In other words, the Persian verbless form is transferred into English.

P: Soqle mën bæstegi be ayændarb: mën daræd
   job my relate to future my have

E: My job is related to my future.

The absence of 'be' from Persian structure can indicate the possible transfer of L1 structure.

**L2 source:** In English, and in some contexts, the presence of a 'be' form is considered redundant and is deleted. The examples below demonstrate some part of the deletion of 'be' from their structure.

1) The job related to my future.
2) The man coming here is our new teacher.
3) The article written by him has appeared in the press.
4) The man young and motivated presented his article.

As it can be observed, the deletions here can cause confusion as they are not in proportion with the general rule of using 'be' as a linking verb, and therefore, it is considered as a redundant item by most PELs. Besides, Persian does not apply subject complements very frequently in different contexts and these learners prefer to replace a verb form for these adjectives exactly the same as their first language.

**L1 source:** The Persian version for 'to be afraid of' is 'tarsïdæn æz' which in Persian is used as a verb, and not as an adjective without any following linking verb.

P: æz sohbat kærdaen mitærsæd.
   He from speak do afraid

Or as a second alternative, the following structure is also possible:

P: mitærsæd sohbat konæd.
   He afraid speak do
E: He is afraid of speaking.

Meanwhile, 'hæstæn ou bodæn' in Persian are equivalents for 'be' in English and to convey this idea, they are, most of the time and especially in spoken Persian, reduced to 'kasreh' which is a phonological item, not lexical and this specific reduced form can be one major reason of 'be' deletion by PELs.

P: ?in kelase mænè (mæn æst).

This class my is (my is)

E: This is my class.

On the whole, the rules of applying 'be' for different purposes are highly affected by different factors and these differences can be considered the reason of transfer. The most plausible interpretation for the deletion of 'be' from English structures is 'be' reduction to kasreh in Persian.

L2 source: The adjective 'afraid' is presumably misunderstood as a verb by PELs because of the similarities that exist among 'afraid', 'fear', and 'frighten'. Besides, the learners become familiar with 'afraid' in their early stages of learning and it is assumed as an easy item which is overused by elementary learners while 'frighten' is acquired in later stages.
VI. Principal Findings and Conclusions

The conducted tests and the processes of error collection and analysis have presented significant indications which are assumed to be in proportion with the results of the study. The data, belonging to each area, reveals some facts which both pedagogically and theoretically assist the researcher to come to certain conclusions. In fact the obtained conclusions falsify the results of the studies which have tried to assume definite sources for their subjects' errors. The study, by observing bi-source errors, puts a hypothetical question about the validity of those studies, the goal of which is attributing the sources of errors only to one source and introducing a sharp classification of inter or intra as the sole sources of errors. Meanwhile, the most important point to notice about these studies is that
they have achieved contradictory results. While the present study casts doubt on this notion by observing the fact that to attribute definite sources, either inter or intra, for most errors is not practically possible, the sources of most errors pertain to both sources of L1 and L2 and therefore it is possible to term them bi-source errors.

Moreover, the study, by observing the error analysis processes and its close connection with avoidance hypothesis, concludes that there is a significant relationship between the degree of errors and the learners' tendency to escape from using some particular structures. In other words, it is proved that the learners tend to avoid those items of their L2 with little fundamental role in the basic structure of English sentences. Besides, as a result of the error analysis processes, the phenomenon of avoidance has been classified into two distinct types of partial and perfect avoidance and the consequences of both of them are discussed. This is also discussed why and in what circumstances the learners tend to avoid some items partially or perfectly.

Another aspect of the study is discussing the relationship between 'difference and difficulty' which has been supported by the proponents of the strong version of the contrastive analysis. They believed that the more the two languages in contrast are distinct, the more the learners face difficulty to acquire it and consequently they resort to errors more frequently. In other words, they have argued that difference equals difficulty. However, this notion, based on the nature and the error types and frequency, is partially falsified throughout the study. Meanwhile, the most important source of difficulty, having been investigated in the study, is based on the ground that the learners try to assign a few linguistic forms that exist in their first language to one form in the target language. In fact, they transfer a few forms invariably and equally as equivalents to different contexts of their L2. But only one of these forms correspond correctly and closely to the L2 forms while the learners, as a result of some semantic or syntactic

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similarities, invariably resort to over application and transfer of these forms, and the strong pressure of transferring some L1 forms leave some deviant constructions which have been observable in various areas of the present study.

Furthermore, and as another important finding of the study, is the close relationship which is observed between rule inconsistency in different areas and the number and frequency of errors in the same or other areas. For example, the most inconsistent rules can be observed among the rules governing articles, prepositions, agreement and nouns and because of this inconsistency, errors grow and increase drastically. Meanwhile, the learners commit other deviations in the areas such as determiners, verbs, pronouns, etc. as a consequence of their misusing nouns or articles.

A. Findings of GJT

The main objective of conducting the GJT is determining the degree at which the PELs can identify different syntactic errors pertaining to various sources. The error types selected for learners' recognition are the ones that appear most frequently in the PELs' writings. By conducting the test and analyzing the test results, the researcher tried to shed light on some issues about the notion of difficulty of certain linguistic items which the PELs have always been dealing with. Because the results of the error analysis processes are affected by avoidance hypothesis, it is not possible, in this situation, for the subjects to escape from different linguistic forms, of course on the recognition level. If the test results can be considered as the reflection of these learners' performance, then the data and subsequent indications are capable of revealing valuable facts about the notion of difficulty among these subjects, the intervening sources that may block learning and their contribution to error production, and assigning certain facts about the causes of overproducing them. The learners' response to the test reveals the sources of the errors and the relationship between the sources and the degree of difficulty and the inclination to avoid certain syntactic elements.
The test was composed of two major error types: the items that contained either inter- or intra-lingual errors and those that contained errors pertaining to both the sources. After the analysis of the subjects’ response to the test, it was proved that the errors which belong to the latter group obviously proved to be more difficult to identify than mono-sources. In other words, the subjects clearly faced less difficulty in locating the errors with one source and more difficulty in locating and identifying the bi-source ones. The assumption made here can be supported regarding the error analysis process. In fact, there is close correlation between the results of GJT and error analysis processes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Error</th>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Correct Recog. %</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insertion</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Article</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>mono</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. for adv.</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>bi</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24: the results of GJT belonging to four areas of prepositions, agreement, article, and adjective misuse.

Observing table 24, we can see that the test items of the GJT belonging to four areas have been brought into view: prepositions, articles, agreement, and misusing adjectives for adverbs. Following each area are the sources and the frequencies. The reason for the selection and discussion of these specific items is that first the subjects have revealed a lot of difficulty in identifying the errors.
belonging to these areas, and second the great number of errors collected throughout the process of error collection and analysis of subjects' compositions have proved that the PELs in these areas resort very frequently to deviant forms, and they are the most persistent errors ever committed because empirically it has been proved that they are the difficulties which are more prevailing among intermediate and upper intermediate language learners.

1. Misusing Adjective for Adverb

Table 24 demonstrates that the subjects have been dealing with some serious difficulties in identifying the erroneous forms belonging to some areas one of which is discriminating the function and the form of adjectives and adverbs of manner. The seriousness of the problem is made more clear when we observe that only one subject from among 103 has succeeded in locating the incorrect form in the incorrect sentence below:

ED: The birds in the morning sing very nice.

This is the minimum frequency obtained from the GJT results belonging to an item containing a bi-source error in the area of adjectives. However, this is not easy to discuss the causes of the learners' failure to locate the errors in this and the deviant forms like this as they are varied and controversial. For example, the transfer of the learners' native language rule can be one plausible interpretation for this deviation as adjectives and adverbs in Persian take the same form. The other likely prediction is the inconsistency of the L2 rules concerning the rules governing adverbs of manner because some adverbs of manner such as well, slow, fast, hard, last, high do not necessarily end in -ly, and moreover that some items such as lovely, friendly, yearly, only, etc., despite ending in -ly, do not constitute an adverb of manner. Another interpretation can be laid on the assumption that adjectives are normally placed after a class of verbs called linking verbs, and this is against the general rule that governs the location of adverbs of manner.

On the whole, the interpretations suggested here are assumed to be the most effective factors in shaping learners' interlanguage. Meanwhile, some other
possible sources have been predicted to leave their own influences: L1 habits, teaching methods and practice effects, styles of course materials, L2 habits, discourse categories, as well as some other specifications. In fact, as it was discussed before, identifying the exact sources is not possible and it demands more research work in all intervening fields. The present study has tried to restrict its scope to the most concrete aspect of the situation which is examining the two mono and bi source errors.

2. Errors of Article Misuse

In the same manner, the low frequency of recognizing the deviant forms belonging to the area of article reveals that this area is likely to be hard for the learners to use as they are seriously influenced by two sources of L1 and L2. For instance, the following deviant forms contain errors of article deletion and the learners' response to correctly identify them are respectively 9.7, 6.8, and 5.8 percent.

ED: The scientists can solve a lot of problems in society.
ED: Cigarette is a harmful thing for health of human being.
ED: Smoking has harmful effects on body.

The small frequency of correct recognition of article deletion from these sentences reveal that the PELs deal with serious problems to master the article system. In other words, the acquisition of the article system in English brings about some major problems both in teaching and learning. Taylor\textsuperscript{217} states that even native speakers of English show the tendency to drop the definite article. Master\textsuperscript{218} believes that the acquisition of English article system is one of the most difficult aspects of English grammar for non-native speakers to fully master. Although the articles rarely cause misunderstanding when misused in their speech.


\textsuperscript{218}Op Cit, P: 462.
This is only when they use them in their writing, they understand they don’t have enough skill to use them correctly. Likewise, to non-native speaker, some definite syntactic items such as articles and prepositions and some inflectional suffixes are assumed to be redundant. By referring to the results of the GJT, we can conclude that the subjects have revealed the same tendency as the native speakers but certainly not for the same reason. For them, the source of deviation in article deletion can be the interference of L1 rules as there is no overt grammatical item in Persian which can correspond closely to English definite article and that since the article system in Persian and English follow entirely different rules, the transfer of the L1 rules is highly plausible. In other words, definiteness in Persian is indicated almost by phonological categories while this is syntactic in English. Furthermore, the rules that govern the article usage in English vary as a result of different factors such as the contextual categories, syntactic properties, extralinguistic features and some others which all together make it sometimes a hard task to apply the articles properly. On the other hand, the linguistic rules which modify the application of articles in English are presented in a decontextualized mode, while we know that it is not possible to apply the articles correctly unless the discourse categories are taken into consideration.

The substitutability of other categories for ‘the’ is another area which is ignored both by language teachers and textbook writers as these categories are presented separately without following the idea that they may function in the same manner as articles. If the learners understand that the function of some determiners is almost the same as the definite article, then to drop it and even to misuse it will be less likely to occur. These learners, instead of overusing the articles, can turn to using determiners which may function in a better way with fewer errors.

There are few attempts in the literature to provide a coherent grammar for teaching the articles as a system. Grammar books select different approaches to discuss the English grammar system in general and sophisticated article rules in particular. However, there are two major and dominant approaches in this respect.
They select either a grammatical-category approach or a perfectly alphabetical approach. Meanwhile, the mode of presentation among grammatical-category approach is not the same at all. For example, while Eastwood begins his book by discussing simple sentence, Thomson and Martinet begin it by discussing articles in a separate section from other determiners. This mode of presentation discussed here may bring the implication that articles like other sentence components are isolated entities which can be modified and exemplified in isolation. Observing the article system in detail including all exceptions and inconsistencies and separated from the determiners may bring the misconception that they are different categories, while definiteness can be conveyed not only by ‘the’, but by other items such as ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘these’, ‘those’, ‘my’, ‘our’, and other possessives. Consequently, one source of confusion is the mode of presentation and discussion by teachers and textbooks.

Besides all the facts mentioned here, it is essential to note that the textbooks presently used in Iran, suffer from two main deficiencies. First of all, the books which are prepared for PELs do not base their content on the difficulties that are specific to these learners. In fact, most grammar books, which are now in use in Iran, are prepared by the authors who do not have the required knowledge about the structure of their readers’ L1 nor have they tried to anticipate the major problems that these specific readers may come to. These writers, in practice, have presented the grammar points one by one without regarding the possible difficulties that these particular learners may face. In other words, in their books, they have adopted a general viewpoint towards English grammar without benefiting from the scientific implications of the contrastive analysis in order to predict the problems of their specific learners. Moreover, there is a tendency to separate the teaching of article system from other determiners and sentence components. To know how to use articles properly, the learners should first master the nouns as one of count, definite, postmodified, and generic. In fact, we can

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understand that learners have major difficulties in classifying the nouns under the suggested categories. This is impossible for PELs to clearly classify nouns under counts and non-counts as the English and Persian noun class in this respect bear a lot of differences. Besides, they have no conception about the other two categories, i.e., postmodified and generic nouns and it can be understood which aspect has to be the earlier concern of the language teachers and also grammar books: to help learners to distinguish different noun forms and the rules that govern them.

As an evidence of the situation, we can refer to the study conducted by McEldowney in discussing the article system of English. In this study, she recognized that there exist some major sources of difficulty, one of which is called “overlap”. She believes that one source of confusion is the use of articles which easily overlap. For example, one form has several functions: a + N can mark particular or general reference: a cat is an animal; or the + N can indicate a general meaning: the cat is an animal. The interchangeability of a+N, the + N and N+s can be illustrated when one function can be carried out by several forms. For instance, depending on context, general reference can be marked by one of five forms:

-A tiger is a member of the cat family.
-The tiger is a member of the cat family.
-Tigers are members of the cat family.
-The tigers are members of the cat family.
-Fur is thick hair covering certain animals.

These general references can provide the possibility of frequent overlaps and it is possible to assume that these overlaps can be the source of overgeneralization among most L2 learners of English.

see Todd, 1986; Swan, 1982.
3. Preposition Misuse

Inaccurate Preposition insertion is another area in which the PELs have revealed their failure to handle. By referring to table 24, we can observe that the subjects have shown little success to locate the errors in the sentences below:

ED: A university student has to study carefully and respect to others.
ED: When you enter a new place for the first time, you may face with many problems.
ED: I help to my mother to do some shopping.

The degree of correct recognition of these deviations is 14.6, 7.8, and 28.2 percent respectively. The low frequencies indicate that the subjects have serious problems with the recognition of preposition insertion. The sources of these errors and others like these are both the interference of learners' L1 and the analogy of L2 rules. The prepositions which are incorrectly inserted here are transferred directly from the subjects' L1. Likewise, a lot of variations can be observed among the prepositional L2 rules that obscure the rules of preposition usage. A large number of exceptions and uncertainties govern the prepositional system. In the same way, learning prepositions is not so easy as the prepositional meaning is so varied and it is more difficult to describe the prepositional meanings in terms of certain labels.

Swan claims that learning prepositions is difficult because most of them have several functions and there are many verbs, nouns, and adjectives which are used with particular prepositions. In other words, prepositional determinacy here is made known by the nouns, verbs, or adjectives and not other categories. Besides, preposition distribution and application do not follow clear-cut rules and to present general rules without exceptions and inconsistencies is not practically possible. Therefore, one source of the deviations in this area is certainly rule inconsistency.

On the other hand, the results of the GJT is in proportion with the results obtained from the error analysis processes. 105 collected errors of preposition insertion from the total number of 265 misuse of prepositions indicate that almost

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all subjects have inserted one preposition incorrectly at least for one time. In other words, in this area the large number of deviant forms, in spite of avoiding the verbs or other constituents that carry prepositions and therefore can negatively affect the subjects' performance, show the seriousness of the problem.

Misusing prepositions is influenced by different factors, two of which are the teaching procedures and the mode of presentation by grammar textbooks. Because the rules that define and modify the prepositions usage can not be put into limited and definable boundaries, it seems very difficult for the language teachers to incorporate a systematic procedure in order to teach and to present them. Likewise, prepositions are highly affected by some categories such as syntactic properties, contextual implications, and discourse categories. Besides, most of the prepositions have several different functions; for instance, the dictionary lists eighteen main uses of 'at' which vary according to the context and other considerations. In the same manner prepositions can have very similar uses, i.e., there are similar prepositions which are used to express the same idea such as time, place, or even movement. Meanwhile, there are many verbs, nouns, and adjectives which are used with particular prepositions, and therefore it is very easy to make mistakes; however, considering all these restrictions, there are not clear rules that can assist the learners to use the prepositions correctly, and the problem is made more complicated when the learners understand that there are different positions for the prepositions and any change in the position may heavily affect the meaning.

As an additional hurdle in using prepositions is mastering the difference between adverbial particles and the prepositions, and this is the place where most PELs face serious problems as the difference between their L1 and the target language rules in this respect is big. Besides, the rules of L2 in this category are complicated, inconsistent, and invariable and this makes the task of teaching, discussing and presenting them a very complicated task. This complexity is one main hurdle for both learners and teachers. Grammar books also present
prepositions in different styles and discuss them from different view points. Some prefer to present them with the verbs, adjectives, and nouns with which they associate; others may consider the alphabetic order or discuss them according to the meaning they bear. Some others discuss them by classifying them under certain subjects and topics such as the prepositions of time, place, direction, etc. irrespective of the context in which they occur. However, the domain of diversity and mode of presentation is so varied and diversified that the teaching and modification of prepositions have been introduced as one of the most complicated tasks in the course of language teaching.

4. Errors of Concord

Errors of concord pertain to the misuse of subject-verb agreement as well as deviations in the use of determiner-head noun and pronoun-antecedent. In other words, the difficulty that the PELs have in this area is distributed to all these areas but not equally as the most important area with which the learners have to struggle with is deleting third person singular -s. In fact, of all the collected errors of concord, 60.3 percent pertain to the errors of third person singular -s deletion. The results of GJT reveal some facts about the sources of these errors and the reasons of over producing these deviant forms. Only 15 percent of correct recognition of the error in the following ED suggests that the problem is really serious:

ED: when a person need a job, he cannot find it everywhere.

The inflectional suffix ignored here belongs to the subject which is a person, not an abstract one, and this is made more complicated when the subject is either an abstract idea or gerund and infinitive as the deviant forms below demonstrate:

ED: Unemployment create problems for all people in a country.
ED: Smoking bring some important problems for the family.

Doskova (1969) claims that most errors of agreement of deleting the third-person singular -s can be an instance of over-generalization since in English all persons take the zero verbal ending except the third person singular in the present simple and consequently its omission can be accounted for the heavy pressure of other endingless forms and this endingless form is generalized for all persons.
Therefore, based on the great number of errors committed by the subjects, it can be concluded that the errors of deleting third person singular -s can be attributed to both L1 and L2 or in other words, it is a bi-source error.

The deviations belonging to the misuse of do/does and have/has which are over-used incorrectly can be attributed to both the L1 and L2 sources as Persian does not exceptionally differentiate the corresponding verbs, and the difference made such in English is a great exception which has made the acquisition of agreement system in English more complicated. Furthermore, the researcher has identified different syntactic and linguistic L2 sources that may provide the required background for the PELs to commit errors of agreement. Some of these sources are presented below:

a. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are assumed to be the sources of some problems for the PELs. One area of deviation belongs to the misconception that some of these pronouns are generally plural because they cover a class of entities referring to a group, and not merely one person, and thus they can be used with plural verbs or antecedents. Around 15% of misusing subject-verb agreement can be attributed to the cases where an indefinite pronoun is the subject. The misconception also affects learners’ performance in committing further errors in other areas such as mispluralization or missing singularization.

ED: Each language have different accent.

One plausible interpretation for the deviation above pertains to the fact that in standard Persian, the subject-verb agreement is provided on the ground that singular verb is for inanimate subjects while plural verbs are provided for the animates. As a consequence, the distinction mentioned here is likely to be transferred to the learners’ L2.

b. The phrases and clauses that come between the subject and verb

In a situation where it is hard to identify the correct subject, the learners commit errors of concord. These learners are attracted by the clauses or phrases
that appear between the subject and the main verb, and as a result, the intervening elements mislead them.

ED: A child in these houses know them.
The ED above indicates that the learner is attracted by the phrase “in these houses” which ends in plural ‘houses’ and it is likely that this is misapplied as the real subject.

ED: A teacher who can teach the young boys and girls make some attempt.
In this sentence, a clause appears between the subject and the verb and consequently the learner fails to identify the real subjects and is affected by the plural words ‘boys and girls’ that precede the main verb.

c. The difficulty of subject identification

PELS are likely to face certain problems in identifying clearly the singular subjects. In other words, the learners in this situation have difficulties to know that first, a subject does not have to necessarily be a person, and second that abstract nouns are also third-person singular subjects. 23% errors of subject-verb agreement belong to cases like this.

ED: Having a good life bring a comfortable life for me.
ED: To learn a foreign language have important problem.
ED: The quality of the job depend to it.

Moreover, the PELs have little notion about the singularity of the infinitive or gerund. They reveal their weaknesses in this area when we observe that they either avoid using gerund or infinitive as subjects, or they misuse a plural verb for them. The following ED form can make the point clear:

ED: Visiting new places are interesting for some tourists.
The deviation can be interpreted in terms of learners’ difficulty to locate the gerund as the correct subject.

All the deviant instances mentioned above confirm that the PELs have problems in identifying some abstract subjects as singular and this lack of ability heavily affects their performance. Besides, regarding the deviant sentences in the GJT and the results of the test, it can be concluded that learners’ failure to locate
the subject correctly may maximally increase the number of deviant forms in the following areas:
- errors of mispluralization
- errors of missingularization
- errors of article
- errors of determiners
- errors of agreement between subject-verb, determiner-head noun, and pronoun-antecedent

In other words, the learners’ error types increase as the students have difficulty to work with the English noun system, and therefore they resort to committing errors belonging to all these areas.

d. Inversion in ‘there is’ and ‘there are’

The other source of difficulty is using the inverted structure of ‘there is’ and ‘there are’ where the verb precedes the subject, and this is exceptionally different from the learners’ L1. When the learners begin their structures by the empty subject ‘there’, identifying the correct subject is almost hard for these learners because on the one hand there are drastic differences between the target and mother tongue and on the other hand the exceptions in the target language add more problems to the situation.

5. Problems of Count and Non-count Nouns Recognition

Likewise, one area in which the learners have difficulty and which is assumed to be one major source of deviation is their inability to locate the difference between countable and uncountable nouns. There is a lot of difference between Persian and English count and non-count noun system. Any misconception in this area may lead to overproducing various errors in other related areas such as articles, determiners, and agreement. For Persian L2 learners, to distinguish the count non-count class is very difficult and ends in serious difficulties because there are a lot of major linguistic and non-linguistic differences between the two languages in this area. For example, when some
nouns such as equipment, soap, bread, advice, to name only a few. are considered count in Persian, they are considered non-count in English. In the same manner, the nouns corresponding to information, money, news, and work are count nouns in Persian, but in English they are non-count. Meanwhile, when the following nouns appear only in singular and non-count form in English, there are their plural equivalents in Persian.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English (non-count/singular)</th>
<th>Persian (plural/count)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-wealth</td>
<td>servætha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-information</td>
<td>ettelaat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-grief</td>
<td>qosseha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-advice</td>
<td>nasayeh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-clothing</td>
<td>lebasha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-entertainment</td>
<td>særqærmiha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-progress</td>
<td>pišræfta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-despair</td>
<td>nomidiha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The degree of difference among the plural and singular nouns mentioned above can partially indicate the depth of the difficulty that the PELs have to be struggling with.

Likewise, L2 rule inconsistency among plural and singular noun forms can be assumed to be another major source of difficulty. For example, when some English nouns such as fruit, stone, food, chicken, fish, hair, etc. are taken count in one context, they can be considered non-count in another context. Todd and Hancock\(^2\) believe that the distinction between countable and uncountable nouns is neither wholly logical nor wholly linguistic. They add that a noun normally treated as uncountable may become countable when we refer to a variety: Lactose and fructose are both sugars. Or to a specific amount: one sugar or two? They


finally add that the division between countable and uncountable nouns is language specific and arbitrary. Moreover, because most abstract nouns are assumed to be non-count and appear in singular form, they may appear in plural mostly having been dependent on the context in which they appear. To this Quirk et al.\textsuperscript{224} add that abstract nouns normally have no plural: music, dirt, homework, etc. but some can be classified as count nouns where they refer to an instance of a given abstract phenomenon: injustices, regrets, kindnesses, pleasures, etc.

The next inconsistency that occurs in the use of non-count nouns is that they change from count to non-count when they appear in different contexts. For example, ‘stone’ is generally non-count but in the following context is considered count:

\begin{itemize}
  \item[\textit{E:}] they threw stones at the old man.
\end{itemize}

This exception can be observed among some other nouns such as fish, fruit, work, water, food, and many others. In the same way, some nouns such as police, sheep, fish, etc bear the same singular and plural forms without regarding any differences between them. These exceptions, as a result, cause confusion and leads to the misapplication of nouns in different areas. The point to be noticed is that neither the language teacher refers to these inconsistencies, nor the grammar books emphasize them. In other words, the deficiencies of learning these points for the PELs are not seriously considered, and in most situations they are neglected.

There are some other expressions in which the abstract nouns are used with article “\textit{a}”: \textit{this is a pleasure to see you} or \textit{that was a pity to lose it} or \textit{he answered with a nod}. In other situations, “\textit{a}” is used with singular count nouns to denote introduction and not singularity: \textit{he is a dentist}. and this can additionally cause confusion. However, we know that there are clear rules that can determine when in a language a noun can necessarily be count or non-count: however, since the rules are presented in a decontextualized fashion, to establish the necessary context for this purpose has not been actively pursued.

\textsuperscript{224} Op Cit, PP. 245-47.
The next difficulty of using the singular or plural form of the noun is using the quantifiers which are used equally with both count and non-count nouns. Nouns can be preceded by certain quantifiers such as a lot of, some, any, a great deal, etc. which are used to modify both count and non-counts: some bread, some boys, a lot of time, a lot of money, a lot of birds, while there are some others which are used to modify either count or non-counts: many boys, much money, a little time, a few boys, little time, few societies, and as a result of this inconsistency among the use of quantifiers, over-generalization is very likely to occur. To overcome some part of the problem, it seems to be necessary for the learners to identify nouns as one of count, indefinite, postmodified, and generic. Meanwhile, as Master (1990) claims, teaching these concepts is not a good method nor is it easily possible to overcome all the linguistic and non-linguistic differences that govern noun classes. In an experiment, Lisovsky, cited in Master, created an exercise in which he asked his students to identify a noun as count, definite, postmodified, and generic before they selected the correct article. He found little correlation between the students' ability to classify the noun and their choices of correct article. Thus, despite considerable time spent on teaching these distinctions, students in an exercise failed to identify the correct article.

To validate his teaching method, Lisovsky introduces the teaching of English articles as a binary system. In this method, instead of classifying the noun class into four groups, a binary system is presented. In this system and in order to facilitate the learning of the noun classification, the noun class is classified into two major categories. To this, the features of definite and specific are put into single identified. This feature alone includes the +definite, +specific features and thus the acquisition of the article system is made more practical.

One major difficulty discussed here is the approach the grammar books select to modify L2 rules. The problem is that the grammar that these books modify is not pedagogical. A pedagogical grammar is an interpretation and

selection for language teaching purposes of the description of a language, based on not only linguistic, but also on psychological and educational criteria. Nevertheless, we already know that the present grammar books lack these qualities and they resort to teaching their materials without regard to the psychological and educational needs of their learners nor do they consider the psycholinguistic properties of the skill and the activity which is going to be covered.

B. Findings of Error Analysis Process

The analysis of the collected errors has yielded some noticeable facts. The data, having been presented in table 25, demonstrate the drastic fluctuation among some of the areas of error. In fact, the inconsistency here reveals the traces of subjects' difficulty in certain areas. Around 60% of sum of the collected errors are restricted within four areas of misuse including the nouns with 183, prepositions with 260, article with 346, and finally agreement with 244. Other 40% is devoted to the misuse of sixteen remaining classes. The difference indicates that the major areas with which the average learners have to struggle with fall under four areas. As it has been discussed in the previous part, the assumed source of deviation attributed to these areas are both L1 and L2, or in a sense, the most over-used syntactic errors of grammar which are repeated at a great proportion is limited exclusively to the errors attributed to both sources of L1 and L2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Error</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Noun Misuse</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Adverb Misuse</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Auxiliary Misuse</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Preposition Misuse</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Tense Misuse</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Article Misuse</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ibid.
1. Difference and Difficulty

There have been some serious discussions around the relationship between the degree of difference between the L1 and L2 and the notion of difficulty. It has already been discussed that the more the linguistic structure of the L1 and L2 are distinct, the more vulnerable are the learners to produce erroneous forms in their linguistic output. However, contradictions have been observed in this study, or at least, it can be claimed that the hypothesis does not function in all cases and for every situation. A glance at the collected errors indicates that in some areas the learners have committed fewer syntactic errors in spite of the considerable differences between their mother tongue and the target language. Of course, these are the basic syntactic elements from which the learners cannot escape. For example, word order in English and Persian follow two distinct structures; however, we can see that the subjects have committed few errors in this particular area. English follows the \( S + V + O \) structure while this is \( S + O + V \) in Persian, and in the same manner, English adjectives precede the head noun: \( \text{Adjs} + \text{N} \), while in Persian they follow it: \( \text{N} + \text{Adjs} \). Meanwhile, in spite of the difference,
very limited number of errors have been identified which can be attributed to this area.

Meanwhile, it has to be noted that the sole differences of the L1 and L2 cannot be considered as the only source of difficulty, rather it is the L2 rule inconsistency that can be the source of most errors. This hypothesis will be put into consideration in detail in the following.

Regarding the relationship between difference and difficulty, the study investigated one significant relationship which can be introduced as a major cause of maximizing the error types. Serious difficulty arises when there is one linguistic form in the learners' L2 for which the learners assign a few linguistic forms in their first language. In such a situation, the learner is attracted by several intervening forms. The confusion arises sometimes as a result of semantic or syntactic similarities that exist among several items in the learners' L1 which may stand only for one item in the L2 they study. This can be interpreted as the cause of having access to a few different meanwhile incorrect items to select from. For instance, PELs very frequently misapply *ta* as an equivalent for *till* and *until* in English. In fact, they misuse the English versions in the same manner and for the same purposes which they use *ta*. These learners assign different applications both as a phrase and a clause to *till* and *until*, while we know that they are used only to denote time in English. However, in Persian, *ta*, as an equivalent for *until*, is applied to denote time, distance, purpose, reason, and condition; as a result, these distinct categories are normally transferred into the learners' L2. In the same way, * internacional* which is an equivalent for *of, from, and off* is used invariably and for various purposes. The Persian *international* is used to denote time, distance, classification, attributes, origin, material, and cause while the English equivalent is used in a more restricted way. It can be concluded that the PELs have more choices in their mother tongue available to substitute for some of the intervening items. All this exposure leads to the transfer of L1 rules into L2 and to overcome the difficulty is almost difficult as the sources of interference are numerous, and as a consequence, they leave fundamental effects on the error frequency.
2. Rule inconsistency, Simplification, and Errors

The tendency to escape from some syntactic items can be assumed as a facilitative device. To this purpose, the learners employ a strategy to simplify their expressions by omitting certain items such as articles, prepositions, copula, and finally reducing some linguistic forms to more simple forms. Deleting a large number of items specifically function words can probably be considered as a simplification strategy. It can be asserted that the more the two languages in contact are similar in their syntactic features, the more the learners show the tendency to simplify their expressions. However, simplification can be considered as an evidence of over-generalization. In other words, the absence of articles as redundant features is over-generalized to other similar situations, or it may similarly reveal itself with prepositions.

Based on the frequency of errors and the culminating errors belonging to certain areas, it can be concluded that where the rule complexity and inconsistency grow, the error numbers grow, too. For example, we can observe a lot of complexity and exceptions among the rules that govern prepositions, articles, and noun countability or uncountability. On the other hand, the avoidance hypothesis functions more effectively in the areas like this. 199 deletion of articles can be an evidence of this complexity.

Considering the ideas discussed here, it is possible to establish an interconnected relationship among rule inconsistency, overgeneralization, simplification, avoidance, and the error types and numbers. The learners, when coming across any uncertainty to use their desired linguistic forms, prefer to resort to one of a few strategies to overcome the problem. The selected strategy may vary from overgeneralization of the rules to simplification or avoidance. The learners, depending on the situation, prefer avoidance to overgeneralization when they feel that deleting a specific linguistic feature does not damage the basic and fundamental rules of English grammar. On the other hand, when the rules are
obscure and inconsistent, they prefer resorting to overgeneralization. As an evidence of the case, we can refer to errors of prepositions, articles and agreement. And finally when the rules are considered different and consequently more difficult from the learners’ L1, simplification is plausible to occur. As another instance, when the learners are doubtful about the use of any linguistic forms, they try to overgeneralize the already known rules to the new situation. If they can not find any familiar rule in their L2s’ repertoire, they may turn to simplification. This phenomena may happen by deleting some function items from their repertoire. Therefore, the strategy employed here is avoidance and the purpose is to simplify the complexity of the linguistic output and the causes beyond this strategy is likely to be rule inconsistency. However, it is possible to conclude that overgeneralization, simplification, and avoidance are interconnected phenomena and they heavily affect each other, and to assign one of these sources and causes as the sole source of interference does not seem to be practical or logical.

In this study, most of the collected errors belong to four areas, i.e. article, prepositions, nouns, and concord, and we know that most of the exceptions and inconsistencies exist among these areas. In other words, the rules that modify the exact use of prepositions, articles, or others are complex, obscure, and decontextualized. All these deficiencies direct the learners to resort to one of the available strategies to fulfil their needs. In other words, rule inconsistency in case of function words ends either in overgeneralization or simplification. In the latter case, the learners resort to avoidance which grows together with the rule exceptions. It may be concluded that learners in their linguistic output commit various errors, the sources of which are rather hard to determine.

3. The Effects of Avoidance

The small number of errors in some areas shows that the subjects, in spite of having great problems in using some linguistic forms based on the results of the GJT, have employed certain strategies to escape from applying certain structures. This does not necessarily mean that they have no serious difficulty in these areas.
Rather they prefer to escape from using the structures which they have difficulty with and consequently, they prefer resorting to other similar structures. In the same manner, there is little correlation between the results of the GJT and the collected errors in some areas. For instance, the subjects' success to identify errors of participle in the deviant form below is 18.4% and the committed errors is only 4.7% of the total collection of the errors.

ED: The most important factor to select a job is interesting.

The deviant form below also has attracted few subjects, only 2.9% , to recognize it as incorrect. This item demonstrates the misuse of passive, the item which is both misused or preferably escaped by PELs.

ED: About 40% of car accidents are happened by old cars and drivers.

On the one hand, we face the discrepancy of the learners' inability to identify the ED above as incorrect, and on the other hand, the subjects in their compositions have committed very few number of errors in this respect. The only plausible interpretation is based on the assumption that because these specific learners have serious difficulties to use participles, they resort to avoidance phenomenon.

The next avoided structure among the PELs is the deviant form although-but combination in adverb clauses. The small correlation between the results of GJT, 12.6 percent and the collected error 0.11 percent, indicates that the subjects prefer to resort to avoidance in order to commit fewer mistakes. In fact, avoidance occurs in adverb clauses or any other linguistic forms bearing a complicated form. In other words, one major problem of the errors analysis processes is avoidance hypothesis which influences the result of the experiment to a great extent, and this will normally lessen the validity of the experiments which are conducted in this manner.

Besides, there is another clear reason to support the fact that the PELs turn to avoidance hypothesis invariably in order to commit fewer errors. To make the point clear, first we classify the constituents of English sentences into at least two basic traditional groups of content and function words. The content words are defined to be the words which refer to a thing, quality, state, or action and which
have meaning. They build up the fundamental constituents of the sentences and are essential to build up a basic English sentence. They are the items like nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. In fact this is not possible to delete these elements from English structures without violating the semantic output of the sentence. The other group, function words are words which have little meaning of their own but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. And they are less basic to the fundamental structure of the English sentences. As is known, these categories, intentionally or not, are simply avoided by PELs and this deletion does not violate the basic rules of English. Their escape builds up the items like articles, prepositions, modals, transitions, and some inflectional affixes. To come back to the study and to evaluate the deviant forms committed by the subjects in their compositions, we understand that there are two major forms of deviation: either misused forms or deleted items. In other words, the subjects have committed culminating number of errors where they have been forced to use content words from which escape is not possible. For instance, to escape from using nouns which may function as a subject or an object in a sentence is not possible, and it can be anticipated that the same noun is misused in different ways. For example, it may be mispluralized or missingularized. In these areas, we can observe the least possible traces of avoidance, but there exist a large number of errors in the area of nouns including the errors of plurals, singulars, and misusing nouns as adjectives or verbs. On the other hand, we are faced with the growing number of the deletions of function words which play no fundamental semantic role in the English sentences. In other words, their function is more syntactic rather than being semantic and consequently are more likely to be deleted. For instance, this is more plausible for the PELs to delete an article or a preposition from a sentence when he is doubtful about the exact use of it.

Meanwhile, language learners may resort to avoidance as a strategy in two ways: we can either observe the complete absence of some items with which the subjects have difficulties such as escaping from certain tenses or linguistic forms like reduced adverb clauses, noun clauses in different positions, participial
phrases, and gerund phrases. In fact the learners rarely take the risk of applying these complicated forms which may cause them to produce erroneous forms. On the other hand, there are some partial deletions or escape as a result of different reasons such as the learners' ignorance, practice effect, their L1 or L2 interference, or fear of making mistakes and some others which are not clear.

Avoidance may occur in the areas of articles, prepositions, copula, and so on. The table below demonstrates the situation more clearly and the areas in which there is perfect, partial or almost no escape. As it can be understood from the table, the major deletions with approximate frequency of each area have happened in the area of function words. In other areas, i.e., content words, both cases of avoidance and misusing a structure may happen, but there is the least possible attempt for deletion. Consequently, we can understand that most of the deletions have happened in the area of function words, and because the learners cannot refrain from using content words, the number of errors in these areas have multiplied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Error</th>
<th>Error Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Noun Misuse</td>
<td>Misuse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Adverbs</td>
<td>Misuse &amp; Avoidance</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Auxiliaries</td>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Preposition</td>
<td>Deletion &amp; Misuse</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Tense</td>
<td>Misuse &amp; Avoidance</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Article</td>
<td>Deletion &amp; Misuse</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. Agreement</td>
<td>Deletion of -s</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. Adjective Clauses</td>
<td>Avoidance &amp; Misuse</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX. Adjectives</td>
<td>Misuse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X. Adverb Clauses</td>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XI. Word Order</td>
<td>Partial Misuse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 26 demonstrating the degree of deletion, avoidance and misused forms among the collected errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>XII. Infinitives</th>
<th>Avoidance &amp; Misuse</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XIII. Participles</td>
<td>Avoidance &amp; Misuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV. Voice</td>
<td>Avoidance &amp; Misuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV. Noun Clauses</td>
<td>Avoidance &amp; Misuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI. Copula</td>
<td>Deletion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII. Gerund</td>
<td>Avoidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII. Determiner</td>
<td>Misuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX. Verb</td>
<td>Misuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX. Pronoun</td>
<td>Misuse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Avoidance and Relative Clauses

Of the total number of errors belonging to the area of adjective clauses, 73% pertain to the resumption or pronominal retention. However, the important point to mention is that Iranian students reveal some sort of difficulty in using adjective clauses in general and some specific forms of these clauses in particular. The small number of adjective clauses employed by PELs and restricting these clauses to one dominant form, i.e., when the relative pronoun is in subject position, can support this claim. Thus, the traces of avoidance is generally detectable in applying different forms of adjective clauses. Meanwhile the problem of PELs with these clauses has already been studied and some results have been achieved. Schachter at Gass and Selinker\(^{227}\) comparing Persian, Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and American learners of English in using adjective clauses. has concluded that Chinese and Japanese learners have control over adjective clauses while Arabic and Persian learners do not. The point to notice is that the use of adjective clauses in Persian and Arabic is similar to English while this is different in Chinese and Japanese. In this case, the latter group places the

\(^{227}\) Op Cit, PP: 69-70.
adjective clause before the noun it modifies, and as a result of this difference, Japanese and Chinese learners on the one hand do not use these clauses very frequently, and on the other hand, they use it cautiously and at a high degree of accuracy. Besides, Schachter in her study concluded that the Japanese and Chinese speakers had avoided relative clauses, which were troublesome for them because of the differences between their L1 and English. We can reason it out that one major cause of committing fewer errors by Iranian learners is their avoiding strategy and applying other similar structures which can fulfill their needs. For example, the following disconnected sentences are the examples of the learners' attempt to escape from using adjective clauses:

- I wanted to be a teacher. A teacher has a good position among my family. My family think that a teacher is useful.

There are many more samples which may support the fact that the number of errors committed by language learners do not always indicate difficulty as they may simply avoid most structures.

One plausible source of the errors of resumption and pronominal retention has been stated to be the teaching effect. It is a fact that in teaching these learners, attention is given to easier and less complicated structures containing adjective clauses where the relative pronoun is in subject or object position assuming that prepositional adjectives and possessive forms or of-which patterns will bring difficulties and consequently not emphasized in teaching while in a study, quoted in Gass & Selinker, Gass (1982) and Eckman, Bell, and Nelson have looked at the problem from a different view point. In the study by Gass, two groups of second language learners were given specific instruction on the use of relative clauses when the relative pronoun appeared in subject or object position, but the second group received instruction on the use of more difficult clauses i.e. object to preposition relative clauses. After the teaching session, both groups were tested on the use of all types of relative clauses. The first group which had received instruction on the use of subject or object relative clause only performed well on
those two types but no others, but the second group performed well in not only object of preposition clauses, but also in the others.

In the same way and in the second study by Eckman, Bell, and Nelson four groups of learners, a controlled and three experimental groups received instruction in the use of three types of relative clauses: subject, direct object, and object of preposition. The result indicated that the greatest improvement occurs in the group that was given instruction in the object of preposition clause. The group with the next improvement was the direct object group and the last was the subject relative pronoun group. The result which can be drawn from both these studies is that learners’ maximum generalization occurs from more marked (or difficult, in the terminology used here) structures to the lesser marked ones. Generalization from less difficult to more difficult does not appear to occur.229

However, there are some other plausible causes. Most text books which are now in use ignore teaching and presenting this area of language systematically and besides, language teachers do not show any serious tendency to present all forms of adjective clauses systematically and contextually. In fact, this is not clear when and where our students have to be initiated with various forms of adjective clauses.

4. The Limitations of the Study

The study suffers from a few limitations which have left some inevitable effects both on the procedures having been used and the achieved results. As the outcomes are based on the collected errors, to accept these errors as the real performance of the subjects is questionable and besides the question is whether the collected errors can be considered as a wholesome manifestation of the subjects’ interlanguage or whether we can accept the collected compositions as the real output of the subjects’ performance or not. We can moreover be doubtful that the subjects are productive enough at any time and in any given situation to

229 Ibid, P. 114.
express themselves freely and that they reveal their weaknesses to the analyst irrespective of the limitations which the study suggests. The fact is that the subjects themselves prefer to resort to some limitations such as avoiding certain structures and linguistic forms which are assumed to be vastly different from that of their first language. The next are procedural and technical limitations imposed on the subjects as a result of the goals that the study has been following and has to restrict itself to. The researcher has considered the latter group more important because to follow the research processes and to push it forward, some limitations are imposed on the situation. For instance, to reveal the errors of the subjects, as the first step, they are required to express their ideas on a few suggested topics, and therefore, the subjects are inevitably required to limit their scope of ideas and linguistic forms into the suggested topics. No opportunity is provided for the subjects to go beyond the borders of these topics and reveal their problems belonging to other areas. To discuss the topics, the subjects have to restrict themselves to certain linguistic forms and ideas, while the opportunity is not provided to them to struggle for instance with different tenses or aspects and other complicated forms. For example, the subjects in this study obtained the opportunity to escape from using past and future tenses as some of the suggested topics were related only to the present and general tenses and not to others. This limitation prevents the subjects to resort to all linguistic forms which are assumed to be problematic to them.

The next limitation which the study itself imposes on the situation is that the main body of the study is devoted to discussing bi-source errors and ignoring the mono-source errors; however, it is not possible to believe that the mono-source errors are less important than the bi-source errors and that to discuss them can not have practical applications for the study.

\[229\] Ibid: P: 114

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5. Recommendations for Further Study

Despite the great number of studies conducted in the CA and other relevant fields, there still exists a surprising level of confusion in the field concerning when, where, in what form, and to what extent L1 influence will demonstrate itself in learners’ use of a second language. In other words, researchers should distinctively manifest different learners’ interlanguage, their differences containing their age, stage, L1 experience, and modality. In fact, studies up to now have presented some generalizations in the CA and EA. To consider CA results valid, and applicable, some obvious and distinctive specifications are necessary, and to this purpose, separating the participants on the basis of their age, their mastery of the target language, their learning stage, and the modality which all seem to be vital to validate the results of the findings in the field seem to be important. Besides, CA and EA have never been able to demonstrate the degree of consistency of the errors which are committed so frequently and the relationship between the error types and the consistency level of the errors. Therefore this question has remained unanswered if there is any relationship between the errors, their frequencies, and the consistency of these errors.

One main criticism of CA, as Brown puts it, is the fact that CA is incapable of investigating learners’ comprehension errors. In fact, CA concentrates on the interference of L1 and L2 on production level. To overcome this difficulty, the researcher recommends searching the methods by which we can make it possible to examine the subjects’ errors on comprehension level, and thus making it possible to find solutions for PELs’ inability to comprehend the spoken English forms.

Another major area, having been neglected in the field of CA, is the relationship between the L1 influence and L2 proficiency. The ideas investigated and discussed up to here are either contradictory or suffer from some obvious limitations. It isn’t clear whether the degree of influence among learners of ESL increases with proficiency level or decreases. In other words, the learners in
different levels of proficiency resort to different sources of interference and it is important to investigate the relationship between the intervening sources. It is also possible to assume that the level may remain constant, or definite patterns of change of development regarding proficiency and L1 influence and the degree of interference may be investigated. The obvious point is that these issues demand further effort and research work.

One major area of interference, presumably neglected up to now, is lexical transfer. The tendency for PELs to transfer L1's terms into their L2 has been recorded throughout the present study. It seems necessary for the researchers to investigate the field considering the causes, the sources of interference and the relationship between the proficiency level and the degree of interference.

Another area which demands serious work is investigating the causes and the sources of interference in the field of learners' oral production. When speaking English, PELs are clearly under the influence of different intervening factors and their pronunciation patterns suffer from a few problems. In other words, the traces of L1 pronunciation, intonation, and stress patterns are clearly observable among Persian speakers of English especially among adult learners. The transfer of sound segments, consonant clusters, as well as intonation patterns into English make the comprehension of spoken English very difficult. This field needs careful research work as the results can assist many people to overcome the problem.

One main barrier in producing reliable results in the field of error analysis hypothesis is investigating the possibility of preventing the learners from resorting to avoidance. As it has been observed in the present study, the avoided areas affect the learners' performance and the frequency of the errors and consequently the results are affected by the learners' avoiding some certain forms. In other words, we are faced with a lot of contradictions as a result of invalid basis for error interpretation. To seek solutions in order to assist language learners to express themselves freely irrespective of some considerations which lead them toward avoidance is essential and demands more research work.

\[\text{Op Cit. PP. 206-7}\]
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Appendix Two
Writing Samples

In this section, 20 samples out of 200 have been selected and presented as indication of the contexts in which the errors have occurred. These samples will provide additional information on the syntactic relationship beyond sentence level and may cast light on the causes and sources of some of the errors. A glance at these paragraphs will reveal some facts about the particular learners that the study has been dealing with, their linguistic level, their main difficulties, the avoidance strategy, and those linguistic aspects which have been ignored in the present study. The insights suggested by the real writings may have a lot of indications for the researchers. To fulfil the activity, each subject was required to select two of the following topics and present his ideas in a 100-word paragraph. The 20 samples presented here are selected quite randomly as an indication of the performance of the whole group.

- When selecting a job, which factors do you consider important?
- What are the most important difficulties of learning a foreign language? Or what are the causes of most of the errors that language learners make when learning a foreign language?
- For some people "money" is the most important thing. Money for them is everything even sometimes more important than their life. What do you think? Discuss.
Some people believe that childhood is the happiest period of life. What do you think? Discuss.

Sample one
The most important difficulty of learning a foreign language is comprehension of word and sentences and correct pronunciation of them. If you don’t understand synonyms of the word at result you can’t answer the final exam. You must first extend your vocabulary. The second problem of learning a foreign language is correct pronunciation of word. Because phonetics and correct pronunciation many of words of the English is very difficult for Iranian students; therefore, the students should hard work, and try to learning synonyms and pronunciation of many words.

Sample two
Some people pay attention money because it is important for them. some people like money more than everything. They are increasing their property and they don’t use their money. Just they are increasing their property every day. They don’t think that the money is not all of the life. They don’t attention their children, their wife, and life. They think about money. The money is important for them. Even they don’t think to their health. They work without rest. They won’t travelling because they are afraid of their money is finished. They afraid that they can’t earn money. As a result, they don’t enjoy from their life and from their world. The money is important as if the people enjoy from life.

Sample three
In my opinion, the happiest period of life can be made by ourselves. Many factors can make our life beautiful. so the happiest period of life depend on ourselves. Happiest period of life depend on what we mean by happy that make this period happy. Some people think that childhood is the best period of life because of its specific condition. For example, other persons answer the child’s requisite, he knows nothing about bad and good, he has no fear, anxiety, and stress. Some
people think youth is the best period because of being energetic, cheerful, young, and ... The other one thinks old period is the best one because the old person has done each work and can now be comfortable and relax. On the whole, there are different views about the best and happiest period of life.

Sample four
For some people money is the most important thing because they can’t solve many of economic problems in their life with money. Money play two main role in some people’s life. Therefore, they try to get more money because they think all of their problems solved by this way; however, one of main problems that became to cause of this thoughts are difference of social classic, for example, in our country, rich people can remove many of problems by money, although this case don’t frank for poor people, therefore, some of people think that money removal many of their needs. In fact, this needs cause to interesting to money. Nowadays, many of problems solved with money especially in our country.

Sample five
For some people, because of some obvious reasons, money is everything. I think they are 2 groups. The people who don’t have any money before becoming rich and the people who is rich since he has been born. The first group know if they don’t have enough money, can’t buy anything, and can’t connect with people who are rich and found that all of things they need can’t provide just by money. They don’t take attention to their family and just work to provide money. Some of them do every work for keeping their money because they think they aren’t anything. If they haven’t money, and their friends leave them. I think it isn’t their problem it is our society’s problem. The people gather around the rich people to take benefit.

Sample six
Money is the most important thing in my future life for three reason. First reason this is that I want to continue my studies in future. Therefore I need very much
money for it. Second reason this is that I decide to go abroad after that I finish my studies in university. Three reason this is that when I come back Iran, I want to build a big building for children in order to learning English language and France language; therefore, this wish need very much money. So for these reason, I think money is very important in my future life.

Sample seven
I think in our society the money is solution of problems. In other hand, nowadays, much of the problems solve with money. We daily see a lot of poor familys have much problems because they don’t have any money. They live difficultly, and they sleep hungrily. When their childs are very sick, they are unable to take them to hospital. Nowadays, rich people live comfortable with the best of life tools. And rich familys can travel to every place of the world if they want, but poor familys can’t go from city to other city even if it be essential for them; however, we shouldn’t forget god.

Sample eight
One of the most important things in the life is respect. All of us like all of the people to respect to us. Sometimes we think the money brings respect. We think without the money, we have shortage. The life is not possible without the money. In another the societies, all of the things are depend on the money. They try earn a lot of money. However, the money is not important. The money is necessary, but it is not important. I believe that the life can beautiful even without the money and so we should think to more beautiful things.

Sample nine
The money is the most important thing in our life. For example, a person hasn’t any money, he can’t provide suitable food and he can’t eat everything that his body needs. Finally, he will become sick. Most of our problems solve by money for example, a person has enough money, he can go to university very
comfortable. They can provide every book and study it. He can buy a big house with modern tools. He can travel to the other countries and know with the other cultures. He can see new things and he can get new experience. He can buy everything he needs. Therefore, the money is the most important thing in our life.

Sample ten
A large number of people think that they were born only to earning money not anything else. They work from sunrise to sunset without thinking about purpose of life. When we think deeply about purpose of life, as a result, we can understand that the aim of life is not earning money, eating, clothing, and etc. If we have came in this world, only for these worthless purpose, what is the reality of life? Money can change the situation of life and prepare house, car, furniture, and etc. to its owner, but a lot of money can change person and human being.

Sample eleven
I think the most important difficulties of learning a foreign language are reading, pronunciation, translation and comprehension. Unfortunately, all of us, we have a lot of trouble with pronunciation when we want to speak a foreign language. Reading is the most important difficult. When we can not read, therefore, we have a lot of trouble with pronunciation. Understanding is very important when we want to speak a foreign language. If we don’t understand, we couldn't to speak a foreign language. All of us, we can to speak with a language that we grow up with it. so learning a foreign language is very difficult.

Sample twelve
Learning a foreign language especially English has some difficulties. For example, pronunciation is one of the most common difficulties of English learners. because the words are not pronounced in the way they are written. Furthermore, English speakers have different accents which are not easy to understand for a beginner. Sounds can also make some problems, as they differ in different languages. For
example, there are some sounds in English which cannot be found in Arabic. To sum up, we can say that pronunciation, spelling, and sounds are the most common difficulties of the majority of foreign language learners.

**Sample thirteen**

There are many important difficulties of learning a foreign language. We don't know the meaning of many words. Therefore, we can't understand them. A foreign language is not our mother tongue, so we aren't familiar with it. We forget the meanings of the words because they are similar to. To find the meaning of the words is consumed. In translating, there are exceptions that we don't know them. We translate them, and it is wrong. Therefore, the most important mistakes are not knowing the meaning of the words, and we don't know the translation.

**Sample fourteen**

Selecting a job depends on personal interesting. Everybody that wants to do that job. If every person selects her job, without personal interesting, it causes many problems for herself and society. Because when he doesn't do his job with interesting, he does his job carelessly and unpatiently. Therefore, it causes that he becomes nervous. And the quality of his job becomes less. But instead, a person that works with personal interesting, he never becomes tired and works patiently. And such a person keeps satisfied across people that he works for them. For example, a teacher that works with interesting students are satisfied of him. At result, personal interesting is most important factor for doing job.

**Sample fifteen**

Selecting a job is one of the most decisions in my life. There are different factors that each of them plays an important role. Interest, ability, situation of job, etc. will be important factors if I want to select a job. Interest is very necessary. If I select a job with no interesting, I won't be successful. The ability in order to doing my job well. Some works need high physical power, so I can't do this job. Situation is
important also. For example, working as a hard worker from morning until tonight. They make working a very hard thing for us.
Appendix Three

The Collection of Errors

In this appendix, all the committed errors, having been taken out of compositions, are collected and presented. In fact the suitable contexts in which the errors have occurred are available, but for precision and clarity the errors and the partial contexts, i.e., the sentences, in which the deviant forms have occurred have been presented. To judge whether a sentence is erroneous or not, one can consider both the isolated sentence and if necessary, the context, i.e., the subjects' writings from which the errors have been extracted.

I. Nouns

1. Mispluralization

1. not having informations is the major problem
2. I learn a new things.
3. To day life has some necessiations.
4. we should have know the informations …
5. choosing a job is hard for the youngs.
6. They don’t pay attention to the money given to them for their works.
7. this job help me for getting many informations.
8. Payments of a job must be enough.
9. English is international communications tool in the world.
10. Experiences show that …
11. We must get a lot of informations about it.
12. If he doesn’t do these works,
13. When she likes these works,
14. Only men able to do hard works.
15. Some works need high physical power.
16. They are happy more times.
17. ...doing their works carefully.
18. When their childs are very sick.
19. He pays attention to his works.
20. they attempt to get money with variety works.
21. They make money with bad works.
22. through good works get money.
23. when I was children, ..
24. They don’t enjoy form their worlds.
25. They can buy everythings.
26. they don’t have limit in their works.
27. they have many thinks.
28. Money is the most important things because they can buy everythings.
29. when they can’t buy everythings...
30. when they had freetimes.
31. Money is the most important things.
32. they think that they can do all the works.
33. He dies everythings.
34. Parents provide everythings for him.
35. We should love all the times of life.
36. Money can buy everythings.
37. I could play with every cheap things.
38. When you want to do many works,..
39. I want to remain a poor people.

2. Nouns as adjective

1. We should have know the informations such as the history place.
2. we should have know the industry place.
3. His grammar language has a lot of different from foreign grammar language.
4. the main problem is the grammar structure.
5. When we see many unemploye people,...
6. In the result, do the every job will be benefit.
7. they use their course university.
8. because expert person are successful.
9. We need some books that they are our guidance.
10. Having a labour job is accepted.
11. Many young boys are unemployee.
12. We need to possibilities education.
13. There is lack of education tape.
14. When we are relax, we can be comfort.
15. It must be safety place that I trust to work with comfortable.
16. When we don't interest to our job,
17. It should be comfort and friendly.
18. ..having a health body
19. All the They people need a health body.
20. attempt to get money with variety works.
21. because money make them happiness.
22. It is our duty to make world a safety place for them.
23. Most of the people especially young generation are unemployment.
24. This reason cause to the child to feel security.
25. The least work we can do for their loveness is ...
26. It is not logical that a part of something take..
27. These can be a good prestige for him.
28. the best way to life and to enjoy ...
29. Money for some people is very value.
30. Our parents feel responsibility.
31. ...and I was very happiness.
32. They are the most value of every person.
33. Money is importance thing.
3. Mis-singularization

1. We should have know the informations such as the history place.
2. therefore, if he learn all the word, ..
3. But learning a foreign language has a lot of problem.
4. we make a mistake in speaking a foreign language.
5. many teachers use the old method.
6. We need to physician.
7. One of the other difficult is not support with parent.
8. If alphabet of a language have been very different...
9. One of the most important reason is ....
10. and for student of foreign language are very strange.
11. one of the basic problem that we have in...
12. and it never had travel to other city.
13. The difficulty of learning a language is having no good teacher.
14. and repeat foreign word..
15. for learn it a good teacher with more exercise.
16. Some of teacher in school don’t have good pronunciation.
17. Some of teacher in school don’t have good pronunciation.
18. He should know a lot of thing.
19. WE don’t have any lab for..
20. We should consult with the other person.
21. One of difficulty is structure.
22. One of the most important problem is..
23. Learning a foreign language have important problem.
24. The problem is having no lab.
25. it is having no good teacher and no lab.
26. Problems of learning a language are don’t having good teacher and..
27. We see that at some school,..
28. We have a lot of word that they have difference.
29. In dictation we don’t write the word.
30. There are expressions that we don’t know them.
31. When he speaks, I can’t understand any statement.
32. There is lack of good teacher.
33. We will have problem in writing.
34. They don’t have any problem.
35. Spelling which causes many bad pronunciation.
36. We don’t have any friend.
37. We don’t know when use auxiliary.
38. I consider this four factor for selecting a job.
39. We have no English tape or film.
40. We have a lot of trouble with it.
41. Money is all thing of life.
42. We can be familiar with different civilization.
43. Money is important for three reasons.
44. He doesn’t have any problem.
45. And he can’t understand the problem.
46. If he want to go to other country...
47. Child means money.
48. We allowed to have child.
49. The world have a lot of danger.
50. They don’t have any problem in ...
51. We don’t have any responsibility.
52. Adults have a lot of problem.
53. To play and to be happy are chief problem for them.
54. Helping to the poor man is enjoyable.
55. They play with match.
56. They don’t notice their friend.
57. In such country...
58. In our country, rich people are the main problem of them.
59. it is the happiest period for two reason.
60. we lived in a small world without any problem.
61. Eating, sleeping, and playing were the most important purpose.
62. some people likes have many books and dictionary.
63. To go out with my friend...
64. we have a lot of idea.
65. All of us were child.
66. money solve any problem.
67. It made problem for family.
68. children are lovely person.
69. noone expect you to do huge thing and....
70. when we are child,....
71. when you are child,...
72. they believe that the money to solve our mistake.
73. because all of thing
74. they want to have other thing.
75. childhood is one of the best period of my life.
76. it is of the best period of my life.
77. I played with all kind of children.
78. children have big wish.
79. they wish they were child again.
80. ...and other important thing.
81. they can watch cartoon.
82. One of the best period that everyone face it is childhood.
83. we can play with all toy.
84. we didn’t understand the problem.
85. it is important for three reason.

86. Noun used as verb
1. it can help me to success in my work.
2. I can connect with people and can relation with them.
3. If we want to success in our job.
4. the people attention to income.
5. When we will write paragraphs, we most mistakes in the grammar.
6. We should most attend and carefulness.
7. We should choose a job that it can relationship with other people.
8. Not attention to learning a language is the other difficulties.
9. Because the people of that area habit to speak with these forms...
10. I will be success in the selecting job.
11. They can’t success in this job.
12. If we don’t access to them,...
13. To day boys and girls like to marriage.
14. He marriage with their daughter.
15. They want to marriage.
16. Without it he couldn’t life.
17. When they obtain it, they loss many thing.
18. They image if....
19. This problems effected on them.
20. All things are change..
21. I think if the children interest in a foreign language, ...

II. Adverbs

12. Adverb modifying nouns
1. Grammar and conversation are the most difficulties of learning.
2. Learning a foreign language needs to enough time and very exercise.
3. All of the languages have specially pronunciation.
4. But mostly of students like to be a doctor.
4. It would have boring and untolarably.
5. When we will write paragraph, we most mistakes in the grammar.
6. We should most attention and carefulness.
7. There is so sounds and some of them are not.
8. Having no money is the most cause of this problem.
9. she face to very thing that ready her for life.
10. they have very reasons for ...
11. children haven’t very problems and very difficulties.
13. Adverb used as adjectives
   1. Everybody know a well job should be ...
   2. Selecting a job is one of the most decisions in my life.
   3. They are happy more times.
   4. I have rememberings form it...
   5. some of the needs are emotionally.

III. Auxiliaries

20. Auxiliary insertion
   1. Problems of learning a language are don’t having good teacher.
   2. Everyone who want to select a job should have consider them.
   3. Our mind would be busy.
   4. They do work and effort day and night.
   5. some of them may could be increase their income.

21. Auxiliary Deletion
   1. People that live in around us not speak to another language.
   2. They no having any problems.
   3. They no expect of their life.
   4. …but don’t everything that is wrong.
IV. Preposition

30. Deletion

1. Listening a radio help to improve a language.
2. Therefore if he learn all of the word that language
3. He can’t connect them together by grammar his language.
4. the end they will be successful.
5. the best way for a right learning new language is that listening to the English tape.
6. every job should be suitable our talent.
7. one of the other difficulties a foreign language is...
8. sometimes the close spelling words
9. we must insist to get one which can...
10. …factor that everybody must be aware it.
11. It is impossible to find a job in this country and this situation.
12. It depends on opinion any person.
13. the place of work are close their house.
14. When we traveling a foreign country,...
15. these are the reasons that our interesting changed ...
16. He needs a lab that he will practice.
17. We should be interested to learn.
18. I know somebody who afraid to speak.
19. Because the people of that area habit to speak with these form.
20. We can communicate others.
21. I think it depends their chance.
22. Most of us ashame to speak .
23. We afraid our classmates.
24. When we want to listen a foreign radio,..
25. Most our problems solve by money.
26. some people pay attention money.
27. They don’t attention their children.
28. just they think money.
29. money give to people security.
30. they don’t pay attention the poor people.
31. they work very hard from day and night to earning money.
32. money isn’t solution all problems.
33. the child nothing know of facts world.
34. it is the period that many of interesting events happen.
35. the children afraid tomorrow.
36. I don’t like to return the childhood.
37. when they want to send them good school.
38. all of thing need in our life can solve it.
39. childhood is the age that there is no responsibility.
40. money is important their life.
41. we can take care ourselves.
42. I think that money is not important that I do everything...
43. when I come back Iran...

31. Insertion
1. He can’t connect them together by grammar his language.
2. he can use from all modern conviniences for learning.
3. He must know culture of people that speak with that language.
4. No one speaks in it in our own country.
5. we should speak in that language.
6. they must travel to abroad for business.
7. we must notice to the location of...
8. In our county, we need to many jobs.
9. In our country we need to many jobs that we don’t notice to them.
10. we need to physician.
11. Our country need to them.
12. we should consider to many factor.
13. then if we don’t consider to this factor...
14. and we face with many problems.
15. Getting money is way of reaching to better life.
16. when we want to select a job, I consider about manager.
17. A person who has to answer to thousands of people.
18. We need a long time to change our mind and approaching to foreign language.
19. we can imagine we entering to new city.
20. he answered to them carefully.
21. I can help to the development of my country.
22. Learning a foreign language needs to enough time.
23. Relation between of people can help.
24. Many student hide of the new language.
25. Our regarding to economical condition of our society..
26. A teacher he must face with his job sensible
27. .have no good teacher for to answer to our questions.
28. People that answer to it live in around us.
29. People not speak to another language.
30. We must hear to cassette player of foreign language.
31. they must make the students to speak with foreign language.
32. We need to one international language
33. The most of problems are ....
34. He should know how to teach to students.
35. He must consider his ability to the job.
36. We face with lack of institutions.
37. We ask for them talk about this job.
38. Learning foreign language need to attention.
39. He must consider to these factors.
40. Some of people haven’t any money.
41. Some of people don’t have any free time to learn it.
42. They face on difficulty.
43. they are encouraged to learning of foreign language.
44. this help to us to learn.
45. When we will face to this problem...
46. We must spend time for learning English and use class of English
47. We need to education in life.
48. The teacher who may be himself doesn’t know this language teaches to them.
49. We need to good possibilities for learning of English.
50. We need to good possibilities for learning of English.
51. I am considering to three factors.
52. When selecting a job, I notice to several factor.
53. They need to food and house.
54. We want learning a foreign language, we need to possibilities.
55. Students must attend in them.
56. It must be fair for continue live.
57. A good job should be according to with my believes.
58. When a person is working, he should use of practice ..
59. We can to speak with a language.
60. Money is important and the people enjoy from them.
61. ..who can’t enjoy form their childhood.
62. they life comfortable with the best of life tools.
63. he can know with the other cultures.
64. we can travel into foreign countries.
65. If they respect to him...
66. They don’t enjoy form their life.
67. they want to continue to education..
68. Money sometimes give to people...
69. he entered in a new life.
70. you have to enter in it.
71. helping to the poor man is enjoyable.
72. because of in their opinion, it is ...
73. we faced to this problem in society.
74. the best way is to help to poor people.
75. one of main problems that cause of this one....
76. it can help to them at life.
77. but I couldn't reach to this purpose.
78. childhood is the period that many of interesting events happen.
79. we can buy for the food
80. we face to very things.
81. He enjoyed of him playing.
82. This reason cause to the child.
83. she can use from their experiments.
84. besides of them, I think...
85. ...and to enjoy of life...
86. what happens around of us.
87. Although they don't understand of meaning all of things.
88. childhood period is the most beautiful of life.
89. we helped to the poor people.
90. helping to the poor people.
91. gun is an instrument for to kill.
92. I couldn't think about many of problems.
93. I couldn't think about left of my parents.
94. All of the people respect to us.
95. In life we need to car.
96. I could enjoy of everything.
97. I just enjoy of things.
98. he force to obey from regulations.
99. when we enjoy from that age,..
the best of memories are in childhood.
If we teach to children,...
we may face with difficulties.
When we enter to the toy-park.
we help to the poor people.
the whole of life is....

32. "For" for infinitive
1. We must use all modern conveniences for learning that language.
2. There is lack of suitable book for learning and reading.
3. There is lack of suitable tapes for learning.
4. I have some reason for choosing a job.
5. I have no problem for going and coming.
6. This job help me for getting ...
7. We don't have any good lab for learning French.
8. Our students for speaking a language need to work in...
9. These factors are very important for doing a job.
10. We must spend time for learning English.
11. The students don't have good sources about this language for learning.
12. We need to good possibilities for learning it.
13. We have to try for solving this difficulties.
14. For finding a job, we should try.
15. Because one of the most things for to learn a language is ...
16. I consider this factor for selecting a job.
17. One of the most important factors for selecting a job is....
18. It is most important factor for doing job.
19. They do any work for getting it.
20. you can go to many classes for preparing yourself.
21. money is important for providing essential needs.
22. people try to make much money for solving their problems.
23. some of them do everything for keeping their money.
24. I liked going to party with my parents for visiting my relatives.
25. we live for playing
26. they continue education for developing education.
27. it is instrument for finding a job.
28. money is not for providing their life.

33. Misused preposition
1. In the other hand,...
2. I love to be close with people.
3. ...that it depend to power of...
4. One of the other difficulty is not support with parent to children.
5. If they don't support with their parent....
6. Most people have two difficulties of learning a foreign language.
7. The second difficulties is related with the speaking people.
8. Relation between of people can help.
9. If alphabet of a language have been very different of our language.
10. At end, a job is a factor.
11. On this purpose, I should...
12. How many yours I work at one day.
13. I like to have friendly relationship between my friends and I.
14. ..and in the result, I work well.
15. In the result, do we have...
16. Most important factor is income for that job.
17. In the first, he must like a job.
18. We make a mistake in speaking a foreign language.
19. The students don't have good source about this language.
20. They habit to speak with these form.
21. Success of my job dependent to my knowledge.
22. All of his time spend for his job.
23. When I interested to my job...
24. My future job related on my major.
25. They will laugh to our bad accent.
26. Selecting a job depend to ...
27. When he doesn’t have interesting to his job..
28. Student are satisfied of him.
29. They have laughed to us.
30. On that time, we had...
31. we had no any responsibility about many things.
32. In this time, we are...
33. they-don’t think to the problems.
34. no one expect them on doing..
35. it is a best period of life with one reason.
36. he had to think to money.
37. In other hand,
38. we can aware from all the news.
39. working at bad ways may cause that people do...
40. he can have a good memory of his childhood.
41. if their families are good, no different form them,
42. we can serving our money to the best way.
43. money protect you of cold.
44. all of their problems solved by this way.
45. because of prevent you of many dangers and..
46. ...interesting to money..
47. it can help to them at life.
48. they can’t enjoy on life.
49. Money is important at life, ..
50. they can’t connect with people who ...
51. in the other hand...
52. if a person have not money on the new country...
53. money makes them well-known through people.
54. it ready him for life.
55. during this understanding, the child…
56. the child nothing knows of facts world.
57. he think to food.
58. toys were beautiful for me.
59. they took me to park at evening.
60. In the whole, childhood…
61. he never think about life.
62. Everybody has some wishes during his life.
63. most of their life pass by playing.
64. It is at the result of playing.
65. we had a different attitude of life.
66. …not to be angry of each other.
67. they spend their life with children as the same age.
68. it is very interesting for them.
69. they sometimes struggle together.
70. They dependent with their parents.
71. I couldn’t think about many of problems.
72. …a lot of problems at the society..
73. it depends to us
74. a person who gain money from correct ways
75. anything depend to money.
76. they no expect of their life.
77. Is money important from the other things
78. It is first thing at life.
79. at this period. they…
80. some of my reasons of this opinion…
81. on the conclusion…
82. it is the most important thing at their life.
83. if we have come in this world,...
84. Money can prepare house, and car to its owner.

**V. Tense**

40. **Progressive for simple**

1. When the person is learning a foreign language,...
2. When a person is working, he should use of specialist well.
3. They are in childhood and their mind is not growing.
4. they are increasing their property.
5. Their needs are growing.
6. some people are thinking that money is the best thing.
7. when man is spending his childhood,...
8. when I was crying, they bought ice cream to calm me.
9. when we are going to a party,...
10. when we are seeing the ...
11. the program that they are seeing...

41. **Perfect tense for simple**

1. The most important goal must have been notice to the...
2. If alphabet of a language have been very different,...
3. Clerk should have a good relation and it never had traveled to other city.
4. ..and I thought a bout one reason.
5. children haven't grown up so much
6. all of these things which I have remembered are...

42. **Past tense for Present**

1. The most important factor shall not be forgotten which we called a good source of income.
2. When we graduated from university, we should...
3. when I selected as job, ... 
4. She hasn’t enough money so she couldn’t buy everything they need. 
5. they heard anything about lie. 
6. the people enjoyed from them. 
7. they lost their money. 
8. they lost all of them. 
9. they didn’t have any time to live with their family. 
10. when they grow up, they remember their toys. 
11. they seldom try and didn’t bring big problem. 
12. some rich people used their money to... 
13. But I remembered that ... 
14. If he became sick,... 
15. some people said „...
16. childhood is the happiest time. 
17. I agreed with them. 
18. we love all the people who loved us. 
19. because all of things need in our life can solve it. 
20. if we had enough money,... 
21. it caused that we 
22. money solved many of problems . 
23. no one faced them to leave home. 
24. I liked to comeback to my childhood. 

43. past for perfect 
1. we must select a job according to what we studied about. 
2. From childish we heard Farsi. 
3. People who reached the enjoyment of being rich. 

44. Present for past
1. In children we have done very foolish acts.
2. They have laughed to us.
3. the people who don’t have any money
4. the people who is rich since he has been born
5. when I grow up
6. all of us were child.
7. ...and I never pay attention to ...
8. their parent always kiss them
9. They play with me sometimes.
10. I play with toys and was very happy.
11. they-buy for me..

VI. Articles
50. Deleting “the”
1. He must know culture of people that speak that language.
2. he must know culture of people that speak that language
3. A sentence may mean a food thing in foreign language.
4. The foreign languages are the best method to have a relation with the people of world.
5. The most important mistake is in pronunciation of language.
6. The most important mistake is in pronunciation of language.
7. If we want to progress in field of learning
8. We must notice to the location of society
9. we must notice to needs of our society
10. one of the difficulties is enough institutes in city.
11. Most important difficulties of learning a foreign language is time taking.
12. most of teacher’s pronunciation are different.
13. I think these are very time taking for students.
14. learning a foreign language is time taking for students.
15. Relation between of people can help.
16. the political of country is without relation.
17. They have relation which it can influence it.
18. Good income is the most important factor for selecting job.
19. Good income is the most important factor for selecting job.
20. Life was simple from beginning to end.
21. Usually grammar of different languages is ..
22. If alphabet of a language have been very different...
23. The difference is between grammar of the language.
24. They spend most of time at the palce that he works.
25. ...the course which young people have studied in university.
26. We must insist to get one which can ....
27. ...and for students of foreign language are very strange.
28. our minds are familiar with letters and words of language.
29. our minds are familiar with letters and words of language we speaking.
30. We have to practice to coordinate with nature of foreign language.
31. We have to practice to coordinate with nature of foreign language.
32. Having a good job is important for all of people.
33. Having a good behaviour with people of work is most important.
34. Having a good behaviour with people of work is most important
35. I can used all of my lessons that I am learning in university.
36. Having a good behaviour with people of work is most important
37. Another factor is prestige of job.
38. they can serve society.
39. when we want to select a job. I consider about manager.
40. Because job is very important in our life..
41. ..and regarding to economical condition of our society ...
42. We must hear to cassette player of foreign language
43. we must hear to cassette player of foreign language.
44. we must hear to cassette player of foreign language to better learning foreign language.
45. First factor which I can say is that
46. I can do my job at best form.
47. Second factor that I consider is the time
48. I pay attention to environment of my life.
49. Second factor is money condition.
50. Second factor is money condition
51. payment of a job must be enough.
52. some of teacher in school don’t have good pronunciation
53. The most of students have bad pronunciation.
54. It is bad pronunciation of teacher.
55. Most important factor is income for that teacher.
56. Most important factor is income for that job.
57. It depend on opinion any person.
58. Therefore, income is most important.
59. Therefore, income is most important.
60. These are factors that must everybody ....
61. One of difficulty is structure rules.
62. One of things that can affect every body ...
63. Some of people haven’t any money.
64. It is most important factor of learning.
65. three factors are important difficulties of learning.
66. But we limited to coming and going to university.
67. Money is main important problem for all of the people.
68. Second factor is the kind of job.
69. Because shortage of language teacher..
70. President of school use another teachers
71. President of school use another teachers.
72. We can call them common factors of choosing a job.
73. Having security is society is important.
74. All the countries use computer to communicate..
75. Interests and aims are factors to select a job.
76. Some sounds are in mother tongue that the people of that language can understand them.
77. It has four problems for people who want to learn a ...
78. Situation of work place is important.
79. Success of job dependent to my knowledge
80. Income is important for me.
81. Final factor is income.
82. If we can not understand meaning of a word...
83. First and most important element is meaning of that language.
84. First and most important element is meaning of that language.
85. First and most important element is meaning of that language.
86. The next is pronunciation of that language.
87. One of the most things for to learn a language is pronunciation of that language.
88. One of main problems is that ....
89. So, society have to prepare enough equipment.
90. The third is salary of my job.
91. The problem of learning is correct pronunciation of word.
92. The problem of learning is correct pronunciation of word.
93. Correct pronunciation of words of English is hard.
94. Correct pronunciation of words of English is hard.
95. Correct pronunciation of words of English is hard for students.
96. A job should be interesting for me and society.
97. Situation of job is important.
98. Situation of job is important.
99. Situation is important.
100. Is my job useful for society?
101. It cause problems for society.
102. Quality of job become less.
103. Quality of job become less.
104. Personal interesting is most important factor.
105. We don’t know meaning of many words.
106. There are things more important that it.
107. ...and kind of work isn’t important.
108. and kind of work isn’t important.
109. there are things more important.
110. he thinks that money is most important in life.
111. the money is solution of problems
112. in other hand, ...
113. he can go to university
114. and environment has influence on it.
115. family is the first place that child...
116. child feel relaxed
117. money don't bring for us thing that we want.
118. he can enjoy all of things he interested in.
119. they can’t enjoy like rich people.
120. they shouldn’t think about problems.
121. they are happier the elders.
122. it is our duty to make world a safety place for them.
123. I believe that money isn’t most important.
124. money give to people society prestige.
125. other group think if they..
126. having good friends is one of reasons..
127. because problem of adults is more than the children
128. the family of girl wants ;
129. most of the people especially young generation are unemployment
130. if you have money in society.
131. to play and to be happy are chief problem for them
132. children’s heart is very light.
133. most of children do everything
134. they have a different world from adult.
135. first day that they went to school.
136. we can’t forget memory of childhood.
137. we faced to this problem in society.
138. money can’t being most important
139. one of main problems that cause of this are...
140. the best way is that to help to poor people.
141. they are difference of social classes
142. rich people can remove many of problem by money
143. in our country, rich person are the main problem of them
144. many of problems solve with money.
145. money isn’t solution all problems.
146. unemployment is other problem
147. money is important at life, but is isn’t only solution.
148. all of things they need..
149. they have no responsibility in society.
150. majority of people expect them
151. money help us to obtain things we want.
152. when man is spending his childhood
153. The child nothing knows of facts of world.
154. The child nothing knows of facts of world.
155. They took me to park at evening.
156. Happiest part of life depends on what we mean by happiness.
157. In past, I wished I was adult.
158. We came back to past.
159. you can see children whose father is dead.
160. They don’t know that it made problem for family.
161. Money can’t bring things like ...
162. Love money is love of world.
we can’t understand the problem of society.

because all of things..

curiosity, interest, and the beautiful world childhood are reasons of it.

ey like to understand all of things that they are seeing.

although they don’t understand of meaning all of things.

Third reason, when I was a child,

I couldn’t think about problems of life.

Young couple without property...

Providing all of needs...

I never pay attention to things that were..

I just enjoy of things that are expensive.

childhood is happiest period.

It is first step at life.

don’t know war and enemy.

...without thinking about purpose of life..

when we think about purpose of life,...

it is important for character ...

I want to build a big building for children ...

Because we are in basic level.

it is hard to learn vocabulary

Learn many words and listen to tape.

All of students after getting degree are sad.

how translate passage of foreign language

the another difficulty is using dictionary.

child spend his childhood in ...

child feel well.

...prepare yourself for entrance exam.

children’s character built during childhood.

Parents always provide everything for him.

Person solve his problems.
193. person solve his problems.
194. Gun is an instrument for to kill.
195. child is free from problems.
196. child is not free to do everything.
197. childhood is period of comfortable and happiness.
198. child don’t have enough understanding.
199. If we teach to children..

51. Inserting “the”

1. They speak Persian in the class
2. The first difficulties is the lack of foreign books.
3. The another reason is we don’t practice.
4. When the person is learning a foreign language,..
5. When we want to translate the text, ..
6. A person who want to learn...
7. We always select a social job.
8. We must selecting a job.
9. Teachers aren’t present in the class.
10. In the result, do the every job will be benefit.
11. The most of problems are..
12. The most of student have bad pronunciation.
13. In the first, he must like a job.
14. We should most attention and carefulness in the writing and the grammar in the English.
15. We most mistakes in the grammar in the writing.
16. We most mistakes in the grammar in the writing.
17. The another difficulty is using dictionary.
18. I will be success in the selecting job.
19. Correct pronunciation of the English is hard for students.
20. They try to learning pronunciation of many words.
21. It has been good application in society.
22. All the time of life are good.
23. We can buy the food, the house, and the ..
24. the others respect us.
25. Lack of a good situation for the most people
26. some people can not find the goal of the life.
27. we should love all the times of life.
28. most of the their time pass by playing.
29. Money is important in the life.
30. It is the most problem for students.
31. Because one of the most things is …
32. These are the most factors I pay attention to them.
33. At the result, learning..

52. “the” for “a”
1. and in the result, I work well.
2. In the result, do we …
3. I think a person can be more successful in the better social situation.
4. The childhood is a best period.
5. On a whole, they can enjoy it.
6. money is the important factor in life.

53. Deleting “a”
1. These are some difficulties of learning foreign language.
2. But when they face difficult thing. they will give it up.
3. so, we can learn foreign language.
4. These problems cause that people no desire for learning foreign language.
5. Unknowing language is a problem.
6. A foreign language is not general language.
7. Because we don’t familiar with the nature of foreign language.
8. the nature of language are letters.
9. ..when we start to learn foreign language.
10. Clerk should have a good and friendly relation.
11. Getting money is way of reaching to better life.
12. We need a long time to change our minds and approach to foreign language.
13. Foreign language is hard.
14. how many hours I work at one day.
15. We must start to learn foreign language
16. we need very good teacher
17. English Language is international language.
18. Leaning foreign language need to attention.
19. WE listen to tape.
20. how they occur in foreign language
21. We need some instrument to learning foreign language.
22. They are encouraged to learning of foreign language.
23. In order to learn foreign language is interest.
24. …and we are successful person.
25. We can call them common factors of choosing job.
26. when we want to learn foreign language...
27. They are the most important difficulties of learning foreign language
28. English is international language.
29. Students must attend in them till learning foreign language..
30. If you development in foreign language,
31. It is hard problem
32. It isn’t good way for searching job.
33. It isn’t good way for searching job.
34. I will be success in the selecting job.
35. A person who live in poor family...
36. It is most important factor for doing job.
37. when we were child,…
38. …like adult person…
39. If rich life don’t cause person forget God,…
40. a girl who is child,…
41. they can live in big house..
42. They like to go to park, to go to party…
43. money is good thing.
44. child sees the world as a toy.
45. I wish to be child.
46. so such idea that …
47. she may lose her health by playing with knife.
48. when I was child,…
49. Money is important thing in our life.
50. I liked going to party with my parents for visiting my relatives.
51. In past, I wished I was adult.
52. Money play essential role in our life.
53. When we become adult,…
54. we like to be adult.
55. Money is necessary thing in life.
56. They want have big house in big city.
57. They want have big house in big city.
58. When they want to send them good school,…
59. we can travelling with happy family.
60. TV is a toy for child.
61. Money is important thing in the life.
62. Money is important thing.
63. I wish I were child.
64. It is instrument for..
65. I think it is fact.
66. Because foreign language is not...
67. because there isn’t suitable job for them
68. we don’t have enough time to listen to tape.
69. He must have house, car, and money.
70. when child was born.
71. childhood is lovely period of life.
72. they like to marriage with rich person.
73. Money give a great character to person who is rich.
74. since child is free from responsibilities,…
75. child doesn’t know anything…
76. they go to institute.
77. If they have problem,…
78. they are finding job.
79. because of in their opinion, it is basic factor in their life.
80. they go to beautiful place.
81. they can’t supply many things such as car, house, etc.
82. some people like big house and expensive car.
83. In this world, child understand that …
84. understanding this world is important for child.
85. The child plays with instrument.
86. they took me to park at evening.
87. they used their money to build mosque.
88. Noone is enemy.
89. we have to learn lesson.
90. They want have modern automobile.
91. they make it for child…
92. when we are child, …
93. there isn’t any different between boy and girl.
94. they can buy house and car.
95. they can buy house and car.
96. Money can prepare house and …
97. a lot of money can change person and human being.
98. a lot of money can change person and human being.

55. Inserting “a”
1. It is important for me to have a good income.
2. Getting money is way of reaching to better life.
3. When they are going to learn a new language, they make a mistake.
4. He must improve his skill to have a good conversation.
5. The foreign languages are the best method to have a relation with the people of world.
6. Everybody has been a good interest to his job.
7. When we have a good and suitable teachers,…
8. We don’t have a modern and new books.
9. he can have a good childhood.
10. if you have a good facility,…

VII. Agreement

60. Subject-verb
1. A person who want to learn a…
2. Therefore if he learn all of the word,
3. The most important mistakes is in pronunciation of language.
4. Having a good job which bring a comfortable life for me..
5. Nobody like to be a farmer.
6. because every person have special ability.
7. ..that it depend to power mentality
8. The first difficulties is the lack of foreigners.
9. the second difficulties is related with …
10. Most important difficulties of learning a foreign language is time taking.
11. Most of teacher's pronunciation are different.
12. when this factors are wrong, what happen?
13. Two reason is the most important difficulties.
14. Every person spend most of time at the place.
15. for young people who has graduated from university...
16. He can find a job which don't have usage for him.
17. If he use something that has learned, he will get...
18. The another difficulties is using dictionary.
19. The second difficulties is that they don't know how use grammar rules.
20. People who wants to learn it
21. People who wants to learn a foreign language..
22. when a person spare his time...
23. A person who give us a hand isn't...
24. A person who work out of home...
25. A person who live in poor family..
26. There is some major factor in selecting a job.
27. Four factor is important for me.
28. She gain successful in this work
29. we know each job need its special..
30. this job help me
31. because he do the duty with satisfactory
32. the problem start when we go
33. it depend on opinion any person
34. Everybody know a well job should be
35. because find a job is another country have a problem
36. lack of developed labs are in my university
37. teaching some languages are limited.
38. Our teacher in school are not good
39. For these reason, our pronunciation are very bad.
40. it cause a lot of problem
41. the place of work are close their house.
42. because expert person are successful
43. learning a foreign language have important problem
44. if the teacher have bad pronunciation
45. he need a lab
46. I think the major problems of learning a language is having no good teacher
47. president of school use another teacher.
48. If someone who want to select a job interested in her job
49. she work in a factory
50. the next is the condition that a job have to have
51. everyone who want to select a job should have consider them
52. these factors is important
53. there is a lot of problem to learn a language
54. there is so sounds and some of them …
55. to day there is only several doctors.
56. I can’t understand when an American speak.
57. Each language have different accent.
58. But for a foreign student that want to learn a language is..
59. it has four problem for people who wants to learn a language
60. the most important difficulty are the …
61. If a foreigner speak with us..
62. but somebody do work in a different place
63. There are different problems that each of them plays important role.
64. some works needs high physical power.
65. selecting a job depend to…
66. everybody that want to do that job
67. if every person select her hob without interesting…
68. it cause many problems for herself
69. he become nervous
70. quality of his job become less.
71. A person that work with interesting
72. He never become tired and work patiently.
73. A teacher that work with interesting.
74. Student are satisfied of him
75. The first thing that make childhood happier is ..
76. it make children happier
77. this make childhood the happiest period.
78. everything seem good to them
79. everyone trust them
80. their exploration make them happy.
81. no one expect them on doing..
82. All the people needs a health body.
83. when a young man want to begin..
84. He think that ....
85. He like money.
86. He forget himself.
87. He realize that he don’t know any place.
88. He realize that he don’t know any place.
89. He think that money is most important in life.
90. He begin to learn.
91. Family is the first place that child enter.
92. child spend his childhood in ...
93. child feel well.
94. she go to school lonely.
95. child feel relaxed.
96. Money don’t bring for us..
97. He feel happy.
98. If a rich person want to go ..
99. Money give a great character to person.
100. ..because money make them happy.
101. The world have a lot of problems and danger.
102. Our world become better.
103. His problems starts.
104. Money sometimes give to people...
105. Somebody haven't any money.
106. Money sometimes give to people.
107. Their childhood have been finished.
108. The problems in childhood is less than another period of life.
109. If a person think he earn them,..
110. We understand a child easily become happy.
111. He never think about...
112. There is less problems in childhood.
113. Everything become nice.
114. If a person have money,...
115. I think their life are made of ...
116. The problem of life haven't mean for them.
117. These causes wastes time.
118. Money play two main role in life.
119. Money protect you of cold.
120. People who is rich since he has been born.
121. Our drawings causes that we ..
122. Childhood have some features.
123. If a person have not money ...
124. Some people likes big house and expensive car.
125. Some people likes have many books.
126. Having money cause we have...
127. Money help us to obtain things we want.
128. In this period, child understand....
129. She face to very things.
130. This reason cause to the child
131. he think to food
132. the child spend a ...
133. a child often neglect many points.
134. they think that money have a lot of worth
135. the happiest period of our life depend on ourselves.
136. what we mean by happiness that make this period...
137. This are the benefits of childhood.
138. money play essential role on our life.
139. A child know nothing about life.
140. all the limit of life are great.
141. Everybody love each other.
142. this is a sense which motivate people.
143. Most of their time pass by playing.
144. All of them thinks that
145. the other reason that cause happiness is...
146. they plays very friendly.
147. If something make you sad,..
148. you are certain that it don’t say it to anyone.
149. no one expect you to do huge thing and ...
150. the use of money depend on people.
151. Everybody love us.
152. He never think about life.
153. Everything have finished.
154. some people is lovely.
155. Many solve any problem.
156. this make them happy.
157. Money make a happy life.
158. Life for them are hard.
159. Safety and security is the most ...
160. everything in our life become money.
161. A person who gain money
162. He have a big factory.
163. Having money provide facilities.
164. A person who have money
165. He can buy anything that he want.
166. Life need money.
167. child don’t have understanding.
168. One of the best period that everyone face it is...
169. hobbies is the most important...
170. Human in that period have good ideas.
171. Everyone of their family make it.
172. nobody blame us.
173. they think they was born
174. another idea that support my words...
175. A person who want to learn a foreign language, he hasn’t information.

61. pronoun-antecedent agreement
1. They want to be comfortable in his job.
2. Clerk should have a good and friendly relation and it never had travel to other city.
3. The first difficulty is the lack of foreign books and information about it.
4. There is not a good method to learn English or other foreign languages.
5. People have different accent.
6. Wrong teaching methods are kinds of this problems.
7. Everybody know a well job should be near their town
8. we have some books that the bookstore don’t have it.
9. it cause many problems for herself.
10. This group of people face himself to get money.
11. People who is rich since he has been born.
62. determiner-head noun
1. but these behaviour are different
2. he doesn't have some problem
3. she must love these language
4. for these reason, our...
5. it cause a lot of problem
6. children must learn this rule
7. they are not able to memorize many word
8. we can see some film
9. we must try and study every books
10. but sorryly, in my country this job have not any profit
11. he will practice that tapes
12. president of school use another teachers
13. we have to try for solving this difficulties
14. because of some tense
15. we have a lot of word
16. but they have different meaning
17. we have a few laboratory
18. but we have a few computer
19. when selecting a job, I notice to several factor
20. they must supply several job for them
21. each language have different accent
22. they habit to speak with these form
23. the another difficulties is using dictionary
24. If I pay attention to these factor
25. four factor is important for me.
26. I consider this four factor for ...
27. All period of life are
28. They can do many works.
29. The most important this problems are…
30. It is good for every people.
31. If you can’t go to these class,..
32. Money could solve all their problem.
33. Money can play two main role in life.
34. When they obtain it, they loss many thing.
35. this needs cause to money.
36. Money is the most important things because they can buy everythings.
37. because of this three main reasons,…
38. I think that this people are sick mentally.
39. This problems affected on them.
40. every governments want to be bigger.
41. they don’t think about everythings.
42. childhood id the happiest period for a few reason.
43. we have come only for these worthless purpose.
44. for these reason, I …
45. this people must know…
46. there isn’t anythings..
47. you can’t understand many problem.
48. Because of this things,…
49. In different country and city,..
50. Most important difficulty of learning a foreign language is time taking or lack of another things.
51. We should consider to many factor.
52. I have some reason for choosing a job.
53. Two reason is the most important difficulties.
54. When this factors are wrong, what happen?

63. Verb Subject-Complement agreement

1. Not attention to learning a language is the other difficulties
2. There is few facilities to learn.
3. I think not familiarizing with a foreign language is the most important difficulties.

4. Personal interesting is most factor.

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VIII. Adjective clauses

70. Subject insertion

1. Everybody that wants select a job he must consider himself..

2. Such people that follow money as a goal in their life they have unpleasant life.

71. resumption

1. My favorite job is the job that it can pleased me.

2. We need to many jobs that we don’t notice to them.

3. The languages have specially pronunciation that we must be should careful about them.

4. We should consider to many factor that some of them are more important.

5. We must select a jobs that our county needs to them.

6. they have relation which it can influence it.

7. every person have special ability that it depend to power mentality.

8. the job in another city I can’t go there.

9. Choosing a job is a great risk that it depends on my future life.

10. A job that we select it must be..

11. A teacher he must face with his job sensible

12. we need very good teacher that he learns us correct English.

13. The important thing that the teacher must pay attention to it is that ..

14. these are factors that everybody must consider them.

15. learning a foreign language has some difficulties that I think we should try to solve them.

16. we must select an interesting job which I like it.

17. He must consider to these factors that these factors are important.
18. we need education that it is useful for us.
19. we need some books that they are our guidance.
20. we have some difficult books that the bookstores don’t have it.
21. we can see some films that they can help us.
22. the most important thing which people always consider it is money.
23. this job that I have selected it shouldn’t very hard.
24. this job that I have selected it shouldn’t very hard that I can’t do it
25. Some tense that they are so similar to each other..
26. we have a lot of word that they have difference
27. the most important thing that we should aware and know about it is income
28. we should choose a job that it can relationship with other people.
29. the other difficulties which most people face it.
30. These are expression that we don’t know them.
31. some sounds are in mother tongue that the people of that language can understand them.
32. In French, there are some words that we pronounce them and different from English.
33. bad pronunciation that people who wants to learn it.
34. Salary is also a case that I pay attention to it
35. We select a job that we don’t like it.
36. my future job related on my major that I studied it.
37. These are the most factors that I pay attention to them.
38. We must to select a job that we interest it.
39. there are different problems that each of them plays important role.
40. People that he works for them.
41. There are exceptions that we don’t know them.
42. we can to speak with a language that we grew up with it.
43. They have done the acts that they were exciting for others.
44. family is the first place that child enter it.
45. If a house that he lives there is not safe...
46. they should think about their problems that their parents have them.
47. parents let their children to go to some place which they like it.
48. childhood is the best period of life that people don’t change it.
49. there are some reasons that they could be discussed.
50. there isn’t anythings that it isn’t good.
51. there are many people that they believe...
52. A person who have money he can to buy all of things.
53. We need computer that it is necessary.
54. they have desires which they haven’t achieved them.
55. One of the best period that every one race it is childhood.
56. we may face with difficulties in life that we can’t solve them by money.

72. misplaced
1. The most important factor shall not be forgotten which we called a good source of income.
2. Choosing a job is a great risk that it depends on my future life.
3. The job shouldn’t very hard that I can’t do it.
4. we may face with difficulties in life that we can’t solve them by money.

73. Relative pronoun misuse
1. They spend most of time at the place that he works.
2. The most important difficulties of learning a foreign language are which we don’t like this language.
3. it should be a place that we can trust every body.
4. it must be in the city that I live.
5. If a house that he lives there...
6. we love all the people whom loved us.

74. Subject deletion
1. If he use something which has learned. he will get ...
2. if they don’t have enough money, can’t buy anything.

75. Relative pronoun deletion
1. The job in another city I can’t go there.
2. The teacher wants to teach a foreign language should know a lot.
3. We see a lot of poor families have much problems.
4. A person hasn’t money he can’t...

76. Tense agreement
1. If I have the chance, I choose a job which had good salary.
2. There are some reasons that they could be discussed.

IX. Adjectives

81. Adjective as noun
1. His grammar language has a lot of different from foreign grammar language.
2. The important difficult is different culture.
3. every job should be suitable our talent.
4. It depends to power mentality and physical of persons.
5. one of the other difficult is not support with parents to the children.
6. The political of country is without relation.
7. the most important difficulties are between grammar.
8. I can live comfortable.
9. because he do the duty with satisfactory
10. from childish, we heard farsi.
11. People haven’t strong basic.
12. Another difficult is understand them.
13. we can ignore all of difficulties
14. people have many difficults to learn it.
15. The next difficult is don’t learn a foreign language.
16. the first difficult is having...
17. Difficulties of learning a foreign language is have not necessary.
18. These are the reasons that our interesting changed to hate.
19. She gain successful in this work.
20. Reading is the most important difficult.
21. they no have responsible.
22. we need their kind.
23. we can to be familiar with different cultural.
24. they far from honest.
25. he can be respectable because of his rich.
26. the people who are not succeed in young.
27. a child doesn’t have any responsible.
28. If we compare a child with an old...
29. Their ideas are without guilt.
30. the psychologicals have different ideas.
31. Healthy is more important than money.
32. They think that money have a lot of worthy.
33. Happiest period of life depend on what we mean by happy.
34. he knows nothing about bad and good.
35. it depends on what we mean by happy.
36. Money can’t buy things like kind.
37. we didn’t have any responsible.
38. we returned without any noisy.
39. we can’t understand the meaning of hate.
40. curiosity, intelligent and the beautiful world can be reasons for it.
41. poor is life.
42. children can be great human.
43. we must not miss our healthy.
44. childhood is period of comfortable and happiness.
45. Their ideas are without guilt.
46. We must not miss our healthy.
47. If we compare a child with an old.
48. There is not any different between ..
49. Some people say the healthy is more important.
50. no have responsible.
51. Human in that time ....
52. I believe they do not say true.
53. we can aware from all the news.
54. we should have recognize the different words very good.

82. Adjective as adverb
1. Can we do this job very good?
2. we should recognize the different words very good.
3. A teacher he must face with his job careful.
4. We cannot learn easy.
5. he teaches grammar points clear.
6. children must learn this rules with careful.
7. But in my country this job have not any profit.
8. People who wants to learn it pronounce as bad as the others.
9. It must be safety place that I trust to work with comfortable.
10. we don’t do it good.
11. They can easier communicate.
12. WE could crying loud.
13. No having responsible
14. They sleep hungry.
15. rich people live comfortable.
16. he can go to university very comfortable.
17. they live easier.
18. some people can’t save money good.
19. They work with very difficult.
20. They spend very interesting and sweet.
21. They live comfortable.
22. They play friendly and lovely.
23. He can live comfortable.
24. We can dress colorful.

83. Adjective as verb
1. She has to grown up them
2. If we don't familiar with ....
3. I think nor familiaring with the language..
4. Success of job dependent to my knowledge.
5. I wish I had never grown up.
6. When a child grown up.
7. She face to very things that ready her for life.
8. He familiar with his family.
9. They dependent with their parents.
10. Anything dependent to money.
11. They can not busy their mind.
12. They far from honesty.
13. I don't know why they afraid.

X. Adverb clauses

90. Adverb clause for infinitive
1. He must have enough money until he can use from them.
2. It should be a place that we can trust every body.
3. ...and repeat foreign language word very much until they remain in our mind.
4. Payments of a job must be enough till person's mind doesn't become busy.

91. Although- but combination
1. Although that job would be his lovely job, but he must leave it.
2. although it is hard, but we should learn.

92. Tense agreement
1. 1. If alphabet of a language have been very different of our language, learning that language became very difficult.
2. When we want to translate the text, we didn’t know all of the words.
3. I think if we will have more institutes for learning the other languages, we can improve.
4. We don’t like this language because our teachers didn’t teach correctly and we did not learn it correctly.
5. If he likes his job, he doesn’t have some problem.
6. We can try to solve this problem when he will face to this problem.
7. If a person selected a job, he must leave his job.
8. Although that job would be his lovely job, but he must leave it.
9. when we will write, we are mistakes.
10. when we will write paragraph, we most mistake in the grammar in the writing.
11. If there were a lot of native speakers in our city, we can speak to them.
12. we can communicate with them and learning a foreign language was not so hard for us.
13. If our mind would be busy, we can’t learn.
14. the first factor is that I was interested in that job.
15. when a person wanted to be a doctor, he must know his job.
16. if we don’t understand, we couldn’t to speak.
17. We have said many words that were beautiful for them.
18. when a young man want to begin a new life, he had to think...
19. only with money we couldn’t have a good life.
20. Some people can’t save money good because they didn’t know about that.
21. She always complained but I pay no attention to her.
22. I decided to clean my room whenever I can.
23. I become angry because their children came into my room.
24. My mother says that they are children.
25. some people think money gave them respect.
26. If you have much money, you would be happy.
27. They think money could solve all their problem.
28. I think this problem be solved if the government interfere.
29. When I was a child, I wish I became …
30. Some people think money made future…
31. they don't know that it made problem for family.
32. we didn’t have any responsible.
33. childhood is the happiest period as we didn’t have any problems.
34. the children have a kind heart and liked everyone.
35. if he was the richest man, all the world can’t solve it.
36. Money is the most important thing because it solved many problems.
37. When I was a child, I think that …
38. they decided what they will grow.
39. I was very happy because my parents help me and encourage me to do my …
40. we didn’t understand the problem because we are so little.
41. they work hard and saved money.

93. Clause as phrase
1. Because of some people think a job is amusing.
2. ..because of we can buy the food,..
3. Because of they no expect of their life.
4. because of we don’t know the ….

94. Phrase as clause
1. because shortage of language teachers.
2. Students must attend in them till learning foreign language.
XI. Word order

100. Adjective-noun order
1. They have bad education in the method learning.
2. Some sentences may mean a thing very bad in his language.
3. because it is not tongue mother us.
4. around environment is important.

101. Adverbs of frequency position
1. Usually grammar of different language is ....
2. we must study always
3. and never they can speak
4. because we need money sometimes.
5. my room was always messy.
6. ...but it never is more important than our life.
7. but it never should cover our life.
8. always we wait for ...
9. what we did in childhood sometimes...
10. Money always is not the most important thing.
11. they play with me sometimes.
12. Money sometimes is important.

102. Adverbs of manner position
1. He certainly will be succeed in his job.
2. we must hear to cassette player of foreign language to better learn.
3. the student should hard work.
4. they can easier communicate.
5. we understand a child easily become happy.
6. This person can use correctly his money.
7. I think that this people are sick mentally.

XII. Infinitive

110. "to" less infinitive for gerund

1. Having a job is the most thing for have a family.
2. Be interested in the job is the main factor.
3. In the result, do the every job will be benefit.
4. for learn it we need and...
5. because find a job is another problem.
6. one of the problem is pay no attention to...
7. another difficult is understand them.
8. by take it, we can ignore all of difficults.
9. the next difficult is ...
10. it is necessary to learn a foreign language with have no mistakes.
11. Difficulties of learning a foreign language is have not necessary.
12. Before start to learn it, we...
13. We should be interested to learn it.
14. it is hard to know all the vocabularies mean.
15. I prefer a job that be part time.
16. One of the most important tools for learning is think.
17. they effort day and night for earn money.
18. This is no have responsible.
19. The problem of life haven't mean for them.
20. because of prevent you of many dangers.
21. what we can do is regard them.
22. the child's think is far form cheat and ...
23. the child's think is far form cheat and ...
24. playing and having good feel are...
25. Love money is love world.
26. Continue education for developing course

111. Infinitive for past participle
1. A language will be forget soon.
2. This language is not provide in our country.
3. When I have selected a job, I am consider to three factors.
4. If they have make a mistake,…
5. when we are relax. we can be comfort.
6. I like selecting a job that concern with my education.
7. My salary hasn’t finish.
8. working is need to …
9. they felt frighten.

112. Infinitive for present participle
1. We don’t have good satisfy for learn a foreign language.
2. We must insist to get one which can..
3. we must pay attention to select a job…
4. We can improve it by practice more.
5. Can they speak English after these six years study of English.
6. even if it be essential..
7. I think money is need…
8. they are not oblige helping their parents.

113. “to” infinitive for bare infinitive
1. they must to earn foreign books.
2. They must make the students to speak with foreign language.
3. we can to speak with the people.
4. we should to speak a language.
5. the university should has the reference books.
6. he should to become ready for many problems.
7. we must select a job that we interest it.
8. we couldn’t to speak.
9. we can to speak with a language.
10. we can to be familiar
11. we will to fall into trouble.
12. Parents let their children to go to some places.
13. He will has many problems.
15. If your family be a poor family,
16. they believe that the money to solve our mistake.
17. He can to buy all of things.
18. That person who to earn the money.
19. they can to teach all of them.
20. They can to earn own their living.
21. the childhood period can to be the best period.
22. We shouldn’t to be worried.
23. If somebody to work and ... 

114. Bare infinitive for “to” infinitive
1. we have to try learn this language.
2. we ask for them talk about it.
3. we need listen to tape.
4. he must like a job that he wants select.
5. try affect learning English.
6. we don’t know how translate the passage.
7. the second difficulties is that they don’t know how use grammar.
8. it is hard learn a language.
9. we don’t know when use auxiliary.
10. these causes waste time.
11. if rich life don't cause person forget God,..
12. He tries get money.
13. They not to be obliged do their work.
14. some people likes have many books.
15. They want have big house.
16. They want have modern automobile.
17. they try earn a lot of money.

**XIII. Participle**

120. Past participle for infinitive
1. I can used all of my lessons.
2. So we can learning a foreign language.
3. My favorite job is the job that it can pleased me.
4. My favorite job is the job that it can pleased me and encouraged me too.
5. The job that a person selecting should have..
6. When I have selected a job, I am considering to three factors.
7. they try to learning pronunciation.
8. we have many things that we done.
9. It is very bad for us to do acts that we done in childhood.
10. They won't travelling.
11. they must lost something more expensive.
12. we had to go to school and returned home and learned lesson.
13. we had to go to school and returned home and learned lesson.
14. We can saw a lot of problems.

121. Present participle for infinitive
1. It should has suitable place and distance.
2. A job should has social level.
3. When I selecting a job.
4. We need a long time to change our minds and approaching to it.
5. Our minds are familiar with letters and words of language we speaking.
6. We can imagine we interesting to new city...
7. Nobody like to being a farmer.
8. As a result, we must selecting a jobs.
9. He must being familiar with the language of that country.
10. if somebody studying English, she must...
11. She must love these language to learning a foreign language.
12. the most important elements to learning a language is more practice.
13. we need some instrument to learning foreign language.
14. when we traveling a foreign country..
15. They are encouraged to learning of foreign language.
16. when we want selecting a job,...
17. we want learning a foreign language, we need to possibilities.
18. we must to trying and learning it.
19. I selecting a job on the base of income.
20. I like selecting a job.
21. If we can not understand meaning of a word, we can’t learning it
22. he can’t learning a foreign language.
23. for he can’t learning a foreign language
24. in order to doing my job well.
25. it depend to personal interesting
26. if every person select her job without interesting
27. when he hasn’t have interesting to his job,...
28. a person that work with interesting..
29. a teacher that work with interesting
30. personal interesting is most important factor.
31. he can has a good memory of his childhood.
32. They have to work to earning money.
33. we could crying and running.
34. he can has a good childhood.
35. but when they growing
36. They no having any problems.
37. I think responsibility cause childhood being the happiest period.
38. we can serving our money to the best way.
39. money can’t being most important.
40. they work very hard from day and night to earning money.
41. They try to earning money.
42. they only thinking about money.
43. They are not oblige helping their parents.
44. when a baby learning that ...
45. I caused that we having peace.
46. we can traveling around the world. I can’t thinking about ...
47. they was born only to earning money, ...
48. in order to learning English.

122. Past participle for nouns
1. the most important difficulty of learning a foreign language is not interested by children.
2. even if you have interested in one language, ...
3. because if I have no interested, ...

123. Present participle for past
1. Unknowing language is a problem.
2. We are boring and tired.

124. present participle for noun
1. another factor, interesting, is important.
2. The first, lack of interesting in students ...
3. These are the reasons that our interesting changed to hate.
4. Interesting is very important.
5. A good salary causes we work with interesting.
6. if we don’t attention to our interesting...
7. If I select a job with no interesting,...
8. In translating, there are exceptions.
9. They don’t know what is lying.
10. it related to our behaving.
11. I have very remembrings from it.
12. If someone has such thought,…
13. This needs cause to interesting to money.
14. we had no bad or cruel feel.

**XIV. Voice**

130. **Active for passive**

1. I can connect with people.
2. He must know all the factors which mentioned before.
3. The other problems causes by boring books.
4. One of the other difficult is not support with parent to the children.
5. If the children interest in a foreign language but don’t support with their parents,…
6. There are so many problems such as …necessary certificate to employ.
7. …and my spirit satisfy with them.
8. when we born in Iran,…
9. But we limited to coming and going to university.
10. These are the reasons that our interesting changed to hate.
11. The words pronounce very closely.
12. ..and if a job find.
13. In this language some words don’t pronounce.
14. It is necessary for him to give enough money.
15. All of his time spend for his job.
16. These three problems should solve.
17. it related to our behaving
18. Nowadays mush of the problems solve with money.
19. most of problems solve by money.
20. we allow to love the others.
21. his happy world destroys.
22. the life summarizes in eating.
23. children's character built during childhood.
24. All of their problems solved by this way.
25. Many of problems solved with money.
26. all problems can't solve by money.
27. They can't connect with people who are rich and found that..
28. All of them can't provide by money.
29. Money needs to buy clothes.
30. ...because all of things need in our life can solve it.
31. during childhood everybody consider...
32. he force to obey them.

131. Passive for active
1. we must be tired.
2. All these problems are caused students is not encouraged.
3. They are increased their property.
4. when they understand their childhood have been finished.
5. I think their life are made children and ....
6. Education is needed to money.
7. If we earn it in a bad way, it may be depend on...

XV. Noun clauses
140. Noun clause for infinitive
1. Sometimes the close spelling words cause that understanding means be difficult.
2. These problems cause that people no desire for learning a foreign language.
3. Some people are enthusiastic that they learn a foreign language.
4. His ability causes that the job to be good.
5. His interest causes that he advances in his job.
6. Some people prefer that the place work are close.
7. These problems cause that people no desire for learning foreign language.
8. It causes that students don’t seek subjects.
9. Many factors cause that we can’t get a good mark.
10. A good salary causes we work with interesting.
11. It causes that he become nervous.
12. It is good for each person that they not to be obliged do their work.
13. Working at bad ways may cause that people do...
14. Many factors cause that childhood is ...
15. Money cause that their children educate ....
16. Our drawings causes that we ....
17. Having money cause we have happy life.
18. It is better that we try and be ...
19. Money causes that they be happy.
20. Enough money causes that person solve his problems.
21. It causes we pass good time.
22. I use it that can provide our life.
23. It caused that we having peace and ...
24. It depends to us that how use it.
25. It is possible for them that they had been...
26. Some love that this period don’t finish
27. If we teach to child that clean their rooms,...
28. I refer that remain in ...
29. Money causes that they be happy.
30. It causes that person advance in his life.
141. "that" deletion

1. The another reason is we don’t practice and repeat.
2. The most important difficulties are this language isn’t our mother tongue.
3. The other problem is we can’t easily travel to..
4. One of the most important problem is we don’t have any knowledge about it.

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<th>XVL. Copula</th>
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150. deletion

1. If we don’t like our job, it would have boring.
2. Because we don’t familiar with the nature of foreign language,..
3. The other factor is related to finding a job that near the town or home.
4. At end, lovely a job also a factor for its doer.
5. because find a job in another country have a problem such as far from family.
6. The first, lack of interesting in students.
7. If we able to learn a foreign language..
8. If someone who want to select a job interested in her job...
9. This job shouldn’t time taking
10. This job that I have selected it shouldn’t very hard.
11. The most important thing we should aware and know about it is income.
12. I know someone who afraid to speak
13. The difficulty of learning a language is to not familiar with their accent.
14. In france that are some words that we pronounce them and different form English.
15. we shouldn’t hopeless.
16. I like selecting a job that concern with my education.
17. when I interested to my job....
18. The second factor is that my future job related on my job.
19. when we don’t interest to our job,...
20. One of the most important factors for selecting a job is which job we interested in.
21. we must to select a job that we interested in.
22. we must able to do it.
23. Only men able to do hard works.
24. Women unable to do them.
25. we afraid our classmates..
26. Most of us ashame to speak English.
27. Money made for life…
28. you must ashame …
29. how we can say he human.
30. we can aware from all the news.
31. They far from honesty.
32. They afraid that …
33. He can enjoy all of things he interested in.
34. they really honest.
35. because he doesn’t any money.
36. …that money no any thing.
37. I don’t know why they afraid.
38. the children afraid tomorrow.
39. The life can beautiful without money.
40. He ready to give all money.
41. we didn’t shy.

151. Insertion
1. Perhaps he will be succeed.
2. We must insist to get one which can be increase our knowledge.
3. The most important difficulties of learning a foreign language are different between grammar and being lot of words.
4. They are not progress in this field.
5. Everybody has been a good interest to his job.
6. we must be tired.
7. It must be look like the education.
8. but by don't being it, people have problems.
9. The teacher who may be himself doesn't know this language teaches to them.
10. When we will write, we are mistaken.
11. After a period, they are fire us.
12. we must looking for another job.
13. we want to know whether they are hire us.
14. How is the people consider this job.
15. she will be succeed.
16. they make students be confused.
17. You must be to exercise much.
18. they can't understand what's their mean.
19. I will be success in the selecting job.
20. that person may be have enough money.
21. It has been good application in society.
22. A good job has been suitable payment.
23. It is increase unemployment problems.
24. If persons have being low education,...
25. The people who are not succeed in young,
26. I am agree with this idea.
27. some of them may could be increase their income.
28. you are agree with me.
29. If a person has been enough money...
30. he can has been a good car,...
31. People must be have attention that ...
32. Money is the most important role.
33. All of the things are depend on the money.
34. they are the peace with their family.
XVII. Gerund

160. Gerund for infinitive
1. its important point to learning.
2. If you want to learning Germany.

XVIII. Determiners

170. Misuse of count non-count
1. They have many burden to get a job.
2. I have many work to do.
3. This job help me for getting many informations.
4. we spend many time to practice.
5. Nowadays much of the problems solve with money.
6. We see a lot of poor families have much problems.
7. People who have few money can’t do ...
8. there is less problems in childhood.
9. When you want to do many works,...

171. Insertion of determiner
1. We have one another problem.
2. Learning a foreign language has more problems.
3. we have no any responsibility.

172. Another or Other Misuse
1. some of them are not in another language
2. People who want to learn it pronounce as bad as the people of another country.
3. Does it give any information to another?
4. The problem in childhood is less than another period of life.
5. He understand another thing.
6. he can have another things.
7. In other had this sense make an aim.
8. They play with another person.
9. I couldn't think about another things.
10. we forget another things.
11. you can travel to another cities.
12. You can travel to another countries.
13. They are in another societies.

XIX. Verb

180. Verb for a noun

1. In our country we don't have good satisfy for learning a foreign language.
2. It must be fair for continue life.
3. They do things without think.
4. they don't have limit in their works.
5. they must make money to obtain their wants.
6. ...try to happen in this limit time.
7. it is like die.
8. it is useful for the better live.
9. I think that believe is correct.
10. You can see that result of this think.
11. It is important for married.

XX. Pronouns

190. Subject pro. For Object pro.

1. It is important for we learn a foreign language
2. I like to have friendly relationship between my friends and I.
3. because it is necessary for our.
Appendix Four

Grammaticality Judgment Test

Read the following sentences carefully. Some of them may contain an error of grammar. Try to find these errors and underline the part which you have recognized as incorrect. Pay attention that some of the sentences are correct.

1. Most Iranian students do not enjoy from their study in their universities.
2. About 40% of car accidents are happened by old cars and careless drivers.
3. Fridays are very boring for me; therefore, on Saturdays I'm happy that Friday is finished.
4. Our parents and teachers try to teach us a lot of important things.
5. A university student has to study carefully and respect to others who help him.
6. When you enter a new place for the first time, you may face with many problems.
7. There are some jobs which only women can do them although they are hard.
8. People must have enough income until they can live comfortably.
9. A person who her mother works out will have a boring life.
10. There are three reasons that smoking is dangerous for health.
11. By automobiles, the activities do very fast.
12. Only my mother usually goes for buying bread or groceries.
13. On coming home from school, I helped to my mother to do some shopping.
14. Watching a film on TV. may be amusing but it is wasteful of our energy.
15. They used from my ideas to take a suitable decision.
16. Traveling caused that we become familiar with a lot of places.
17. I asked my aunt how did she learn English.
18. Most people don’t know a job is good or not.
19. Most people like the person who have much money.
20. The important thing for me is that what your job is.
21. We have to know is he a good man or not.
22. At last, the team who was playing better did not win.
23. We must prepare all conditions for a good life.
24. Smoking bring some important problems for the family.
25. The most important factor to select a job is interesting.
26. When a person need a job, he cannot look for it everywhere.
27. Unemployment create problems for all people in a country.
28. The main responsibilities of a university student is reading his lessons and learning how to live.
29. The scientists can solve a lot of problems in society.
30. Cigarette is a harmful thing for health of human being.
31. She selects a husband who is very kindness.
32. We have many time for sports and travel.
33. On Friday, they went to different places such as mountains and another interesting places.
34. Although smoking is harmful but most people smoke every day.
35. Smoking has harmful effects on body.
36. In some parts of India, they burn the died people.
37. The birds in the morning sing very nice.
38. Despite he is middle aged, he looks old.
39. In spring flowers are growing.
40. My sister writes French good, but her handwriting is very bad.
Appendix Five
Oxford Placement Test

Mark the correct answers in your answer sheet.

1. Water is .............at a temperature of 100°C.
   a. to boil     b. is boiling  c. boils

2. In some countries, .............very hot all the time.
   a. there is  b. is       c. it is

3. In cold countries, people wear thick clothes .............warm.
   a. for keeping  b. to keep  c. for to keep

4. In England, people are always talking about.............
   a. a weather  b. the weather  c. weather

5. In some places .............almost every day.
   a. it rains     b. there rains  c. it raining
6. In deserts there isn’t .............grass.
   a. the b. some c. any

7. Places near the Equator have .............weather even in the cold season.
   a. a warm b. the warm c. warm

8. In England .............time of year is usually from December to February.
   a. coldest b. the coldest c. colder

9. .............don’t know what it’s like in other countries.
   a. The most b. Most of c. Most people

10. Very .............people can travel abroad.
    a. less b. little c. few

    a. has won b. won c. is winning

12. After he .............an Olympic gold medal he became a professional boxer.
    a. had won b. have won c. was winning

13. His religious beliefs .............change his name when he became a champion.
    a. have made him b. made him c. to made him

14. If he .............lost his first fight with Sonny Liston, no one would have been surprised.
    a. has b. would c. have had

15. He has travelled a lot .............as a boxer and as a world-famous personality.
    a. both b. and c. or

16. He is very well-known the world.
    a. all in b. all over c. in all

17. Many people .............he is the greatest boxer of all time.
    a. is believing b. are believing c. believe

18. To be the best .............the world is not easy.
    a. from b. in c. of

19. Like any top sportsman he .............train very hard, when he was fighting.
    a. had to b. must c. should
20. Even though he has now lost his title, people always remember his as a champion.
   a. would   b. will   c. did

Now read the passage below and mark the parts which you think is correct in your answer sheet.

The history of a. aeroplane b. the aeroplane c. an aeroplane is quite
21 a. a b. a quite c. quite short one. For many centuries men
22 a. are trying b. try c. had tried to fly but with a. little b. few c. a little
23 success. In the 19th century a few people succeeded
24 a. to fly b. in flying c. into flying in balloons. But it wasn't until the
25 beginning of this next that century that anybody a. were b. is c. was able to
26 fly in a machine a. who b. which c. what was heavier than air, in other
27 words, in a. who b. which c. what we now call a plane. The first people to
28 achieve powered flight were the Wright brothers. a. His b. Their c. Theirs
29 was the machine which was the forerunner of the jumbo jets and supersonic
30 airliners that are a. such b. such a c. so common sight today. They
31 a. could b. should c. couldn't hardly have imagined that in 1968,
32 a. not much b. not many c. no much more than half a century later, a man
33 a. will be b. had been c. would be landed on the moon. Already
34 a. a man b. man c. the man is taking the first steps towards the stars.
35 Although space satellite have existed a. since b. during c. for less than
36 thirty years, we are now dependent a. from b. of c. on them for all kinds of
37 a. informations b. information c. an information. Not only
38 a. are they b. they are c. there are being used for scientific research in
39 space, but also to see what kind of weather is a. coming b. comes c. coming.
By 1988 there a. would b. must c. will have been satellites in space for
thirty years and both the space superpowers are planning to
a. have b. make c. let massive space station built. When these
a. will be b. are c. will have been completed it will be the first time
a. when b. where c. that astronauts will be able to work in space in large
numbers. a. Apart b. For c. Except all that, in many ways the most
remarkable flight a. of b. above c. at all was a. it b. that c. that one of the
flying bicycle, which the world saw on television. a. flying b. to fly c. fly
across the Channel from England to France, with nothing
a. apart b. but c. than a man to power it. As the bicycle-flyer said, “it’s
the first time a. I realize b. I’ve realized c. I am realizing what hard work it
is to be a bird.”

51. Many teachers .............. their students should learn a foreign language.
a. say to b. say c. tell

52. Learning a second language is not the same .............. learning a first
language.
a. as b. like c. than

53. It takes .............. to learn any language.
a. long time b. long c. a long time

54. It is said that Chinese is perhaps the world’s .............. language to learn.
a. harder b. hardest c. more harder

55. English is quite difficult because of all the exceptions ............. have to be
learnt.
a. who b. which c. what

56. You can learn the basic structure of a language quite quickly, but only if you
.............. make an effort.
a. are wanting b. will to c. are willing to
57. A lot of people aren't used ............grammar in their own language.
   a. to the study  b. to study  c. to studying

58. Many adult students of English wish they ............their language studies earlier.
   a. would start  b. would have started  c. had started

59. In some counties students have to spend a lot of time working ............their own.
   a. on  b. by  c. in

60. There aren't ............easy ways of learning a foreign language in your own country.
   a. no  b. any  c. some

61. Some people try to improve their English by ............the BBC World Service.
   a. hearing  b. listening  c. listening to

62. ............with a foreign family can be a good way to learn a language.
   a. live  b. life  c. living

63. It's no use ............to learn a language just by studying a dictionary.
   a. to try  b. trying  c. in trying

64. Many students of English ............take tests.
   a. would rather not  b. would rather prefer not  c. would rather not

65. Some people think it's time we all ............a single international language.
   a. learn  b. should learn  c. learnt

Charles Walker is a teacher at a comprehensive school in Norwich. He a. has joined  b. joined  c. joins the staff of the school in 1978 and

a. has been working  b. worked  c. works there ever since. Before

a. move to  b. move  c. moving to Norwich he taught in Italy and in Wales,

and before that he a. has been  b. was  c. was being a student at Cambridge

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University. So far he a. isn’t b. wasn’t c. hasn’t been in Norwich for as long as he was in Wales but he likes the city a lot and a. should b. would c. could like to stay there for at least another two years, or, a. how b. which c. as he puts it, until his two children a. have b. will c. have will be grown up a bit. He met his wife, Kate, in 1972 while he a. was to live b. was living c. had been living abroad for a while, and they got married in 1976. Their two children, Mark and Susan, a. are b. were c. have been both born in Norwich. The walkers’ boy a. who b. which c. he is four has just started at nursery school, but a. his b. their c. her sister shall a. stay b. stays c. will be staying at home for another couple of years, because she is nearly two years a. younger b. more younger c. the younger than him. Charles and Kate Walker a. are used b. use c. used to live in the country but now they have children they a. have moved b. move c. moved into the city. Charles wanted a house a. next b. near c. close the school a. in order b. for c. to get to work easily. Unfortunately, a. the b. a c. that one the two of them really wanted was too expensive, so they a. must b. should c. had to buy one a bit further away. By the time the children a. go b. will go c. will have gone to secondary school, a. that b. which c. what Charles and Kate hope will be in Norwich, the Walkers a. will have been b. have been c. will be living there for at least fifteen years. They can’t be sure if they a. stay b. do stay c. will stay but if they a. don’t b. didn’t c. won’t, their friends won’t be too surprised.
Choose the correct question tag of the following sentences and mark it in your answer sheet.

91. John’s coming to see you.............?
   a. hasn’t he        b. wasn’t he        c. isn’t he

92. It’s been a long time since you’ve seen him. .............?
   a. hasn’t it        b. isn’t it         c. haven’t you

93. He’s due to arrive tomorrow, .............?
   a. won’t he         b. isn’t he         c. will he

94. He won’t be getting in till 10:30. .............?
   a. isn’t he         b. is he            c. will he

95. You met him while you were on holiday, .............?
   a. didn’t you       b. weren’t you      c. haven’t you

96. I think I’m expected to pick him up, .............?
   a. aren’t I         b. don’t I          c. are you

97. No doubt you’d rather he stayed in England now.............?
   a. didn’t you       b. wouldn’t you      c. shouldn’t you

98. Nobody else has been told he’s coming.............?
   a. is he            b. has he           c. have they

99. We’d better not stay up too late tonight.............?
   a. didn’t we        b. have we          c. had we

100. I suppose it’s time we called it a day, .............?
   a. didn’t we        b. isn’t it         c. don’t I