

**ERROR-BASED INTERLINGUISTIC COMPARISONS
AS A LEARNER-CENTRED TECHNIQUE OF TEACHING
ENGLISH GRAMMAR TO ARAB STUDENTS**

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ABDEL.MONEIM MAHMOUD MOHAMMED

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DEDICATED TO



My first educators

MY MOTHER , BROTHER & SISTER



The memory of

MY FATHER & MY SISTER FERDOCE



My sons Ayman & Ashraf and my wife



All loyal friends



All language teachers



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LIST OF SYMBOLS*
CONSONANTS

	<u>AS IN</u>	
? Glottal plosive	?aw	أو (or)
ʕ Voiced pharyngeal fricative	ʕe:n	عين (eye)
b Voiced bilabial plosive	ba:b	باب (door)
t Voiceless alveolar plosive	ti:n	تين (figs)
t̤ Velarized/t/	t̤i:n	طين (mud)
d Voiced alveolar plosive	da:r	دا (house)
d̤ Velarized/d/	d̤a:r	ضاد (harmful)
k Voiceless velar plosive	kul	كل (all)
** g Voiced velar plosive	gu:l	قول (say)
***ǧ Voiced velar fricative	ǧu:l	غول (ghoul)
***q Voiced uvular plosive	qul	قل (say)
x Voiceless velar fricative	xawf	خوف (fear)
j Voiced palatal fricative	ja:f	جاف (dry)
f Voiceless labiodental fricative	ful	فل (jasmine)
***θ Voiceless dental fricative	θulθ	ثلث (one third)
s Voiceless alveolar fricative	salb	سلب (robbery)
s̤ Velarized/s/	s̤alb	صلب (solid)
***ð Voiced dental fricative	ðihn	ذهن (mind)
z Voiced alveolar fricative	zahr	زهرة (flowers)
z̤ Velarized/ð/	z̤uhr	ظهر (noon)
ʃ Voiceless plato-alveolar fricative	ʃar	شر (evil)
h Voiceless glottal fricative	hum	هم (they)
ħ Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	ħub	حب (love)
l Voiced alveolar lateral	la	لا (no)
m Voiced bilabial nasal	me:l	ميل (mile)
n Voiced alveolar nasal	na:s	ناس (people)
r Voiced alveolar rolled	ra:s	راس (head)
y Voiced palatal semi-vowel	yad	يد (arm)
w Voiced bilabial semi-vowel	we:n	وين (where?)

VOWELS

a short central half-open unrounded	ħad	حد (limit)
a: long/a/	ħa:d	حاد (sharp)
i short front close unrounded	bir	بر (charity)
i: long/i/	bi:r	بير (well)
u short back close rounded	ful	فل (Arabian jasmine)
u: long/u/	fu:l	فول (beans)
** e: long front half-open unrounded	me:l	ميل (mile)

*Based on The International Phonetic Alphabet (1949, reprinted 1981).

**Only in Sudanese Colloquial Arabic

***Only in Modern Standard Arabic

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TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR TO ARAB STUDENTS**

Abdel-Moneim M. Mohammed

ABSTRACT

English is taught as a compulsory subject in general education and some higher education institutions in Sudan. Students are totally dependent on the five to six hours per week of language input provided through formal classroom instruction. Besides limited exposure to the language, there are other factors confounding the teaching and learning of English such as large classes, lack of books, untrained teachers, examination-oriented teaching and learning, and teaching grammarians' grammar. Such factors have contributed to the decline of standards in English to the extent that the pass mark in English has been reduced to 30 percent in the secondary school certificate examination. The students' interlanguage exhibits features indicating heavy reliance on literal translation from Arabic. At least 50% of their errors could be attributed to this interlinguistic transfer, a strategy which is frequently employed due to the lack of the requisite knowledge of the target language.

Of all the detrimental factors, the teaching of grammar seems to be the one that is most directly related to the deterioration of the standard in English. It usually takes the form of giving rules, facts and explanations couched in metalinguistic terms, which is at variance with the learners' hypotheses formation process. Reciting rules and facts about the language is the only one thing that untrained teachers can do. Trained teachers also resort to giving rules and facts due to the fact that the situation in the schools and universities is not conducive to developing the language as a skill.

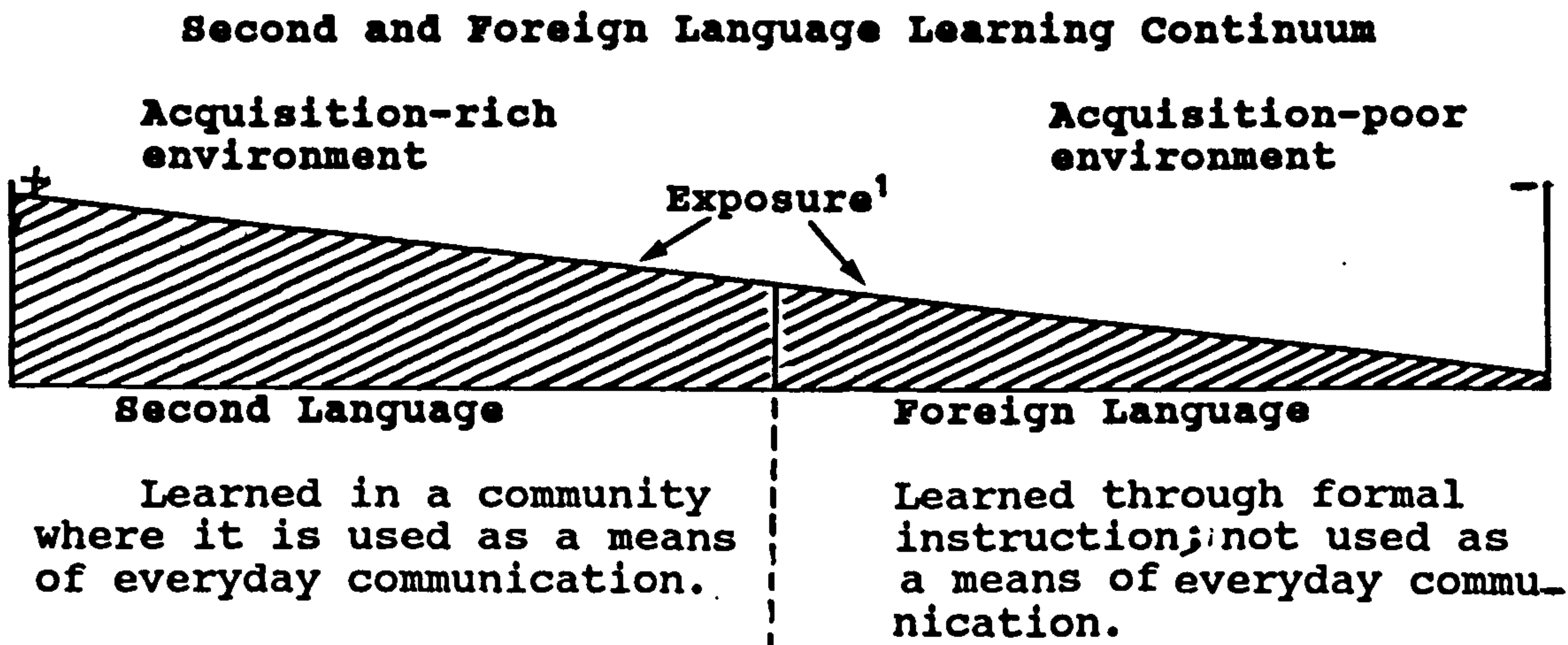
Based on the fact that the effectiveness of foreign language teaching in general and the teaching of grammar in particular is greatly reduced when the focus is on giving rules and complicated grammatical analysis, it is the purpose of this study to explore the possibility that the teaching of grammar could profitably be based on the findings of recent studies on interlanguage and learning strategies. The study focusses on the interlinguistic transfer strategy through translation errors in an attempt to arrive at a learner-centred technique of teaching grammar. Based on the analysis of errors, providing students with simple contrastive comparisons between the native and the target language was anticipated to be more effective than giving them abstract rules and metalinguistic explanations.

The study provides empirical data verifying the effectiveness of simple interlinguistic comparisons in minimizing translation errors. An experiment was conducted in eight secondary schools and the University of Gezira in Wad Medani, Sudan. A total of 714 male and female Arabic-speaking students were pretested, matched and divided into two equal groups in each school. Based on the results of error analysis, two lessons, one normal and one experimental, were developed to teach the relative clauses in English. The normal lesson followed the traditional format of examples, rules and explanations couched in metalinguistic terms. The experimental lesson included terminology-free comparisons of relative clauses in English and Arabic. The two groups were taught by the same teacher in each school and the university. The same pretest was administered as a post-test. The matched group t test was used to compare the means of the active object relative clauses correctly produced by the two groups in each school. A significant difference was observed between the two groups. The experimental group performed better than the normal group. The t values were 6.387 (df=83), 3.240 (df=54), 1.969 (df=29), 1.758 (df=28), 3.043 (df=41), 4.586 (df=35), 2.651 (df=23), 3.030 (df=14), and 3.747 (df=41). The probability that the difference was due to chance was less than 5% in all cases. The findings supported the hypothesis that the error-based interlinguistic comparisons techniques would be more efficient than the currently used traditional technique in minimizing negative transfer errors. The implications of the findings on the teaching of grammar, error correction, materials development and teacher training are discussed together with the limitations of the study and the need for further research to confirm the findings before they can be generalized.

CHAPTER ONE**ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN SUDAN****1.1 Background****1.1.1 Context of Teaching and Learning English**

English is the first foreign language in Sudan where it is needed mainly for special purposes. It is taught as a compulsory subject in general education and some higher education institutions.

Regarding the learning of English by speakers of other languages as a continuum, ranging from naturalistic 'acquisition-rich' environments, (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) to unfavorable 'acquisition-poor' contexts, the situation in Sudan falls somewhere close to, if not right at, the negative end, (see figure 1, see also Das, 1983; El-Hassan, 1984; Faerch et al, 1984; John, 1980; Mitchell, 1985; Sivell, 1986; Takashima, 1989).

Figure (1)

English is taught and learned in a situation where it is "not the language of the learner's larger social milieu so that the learning contexts are aberrant both in function and frequency of structures", (Ervin-Tripp, 1974). The students are totally dependent on the limited input provided through formal classroom teaching; they neither hear nor read English outside the classroom except for the time they spend on memorizing 'facts' in English for examination purposes in the secondary schools and universities.².

1.1.2 Deterioration of the Standard in English

The effort to teach and learn English in Sudan is confounded by a number of factors, (see also Corbluth, 1976; Umar, 1985). Some of these are:

1.2.1.1 Diverging Objectives

Most of the students' ultimate objective of studying English is to pass the examinations, a purpose which is 'extrinsic and course-related' (Littlewood; 1987). As Sridhar (1976) points out, it is an 'internal' purpose since there is no intention "to communicate with the native speakers of that language". This instrumental motivation³ on the part of the students and the teachers as well, accounts for the language problems they face when they attempt to communicate in English.

Fitaihabi (1986) agrees with Sandell (1982) that Sudanese secondary school students are generally

motivated and know the importance of learning English. However, Fitanihabi and Sandell talk about the minority who attend summer courses to improve their English and who may also be pushed by the need to pass the secondary school certificate examination. Needless to say, there are a few students who want to learn English out of their interest in knowing an international language, communicating with English speaking people, or learning about other nations' cultures. Even in the case of such integratively motivated students it is difficult to exclude such utilitarian purposes as passing an examination or getting a job. The reason behind students' enthusiasm for English at the intermediate level is most probably that it is a new experience and knowing a foreign language is thought of as a social privilege. Unfortunately, this integrative motivation and enthusiasm for learning English soon diminishes due, among other factors, to the teacher's method and personality, (see El-Fadil, 1975).

In both intermediate and secondary schools, examination-oriented teaching militates against the objectives of the language course, which according to Corbluth (1979), adopts an active approach stressing the use of English in everyday communication. Although the course attempts to give equal weight to oral and written work, only the two skills of reading and writing are required in all classroom tests and standardized examinations, (see also El-Sayed, 1987). According to

the Sudan Examination Committee (1969) the English examinations aim at testing students' ability "to understand the English language and to write it correctly". Nevertheless, Hassan (1977) considers it a point against the examinations that they do not test speech skills such as reading and carrying on conversation. Concerned about students' problems in pronunciation, Hassan suggests that more attention to be paid to this aspect in teaching English. Since comprehension is tested through silent reading texts, Hassan seems to recommend testing pronunciation through reading aloud and interviews. However, due to class size, the lack of time, staff and resources together with the problems of subjectivity in giving scores it is difficult to assess listening and speaking skills. In addition, reading and writing are the skills that are eventually needed more than listening and speaking.

In the face of the constraints on the teaching and testing of oral skills, the focus in the examinations on reading comprehension and writing seems to be more realistic and consistent with the needs of the students than Corbluth's (1976) emphasis on speaking, Hassan's (1977) focus on pronunciation, and Umar's (1985) call for emphasis on oral and listening skills. Students whose aim is to pass the examinations by responding to all types of questions in writing often feel that practice in spoken skills is a waste of time. Equating such irrelevant skills with those which are perceived to

be important is an outcome of carrying out needs analysis in a situation which is quite remote from that in which the learners and the teachers find themselves, (Early, 1982; Shavelson and Stern, 1981).

1.1.2.2 Arabicization

Today's students of English are often described by English teaching specialists as 'illiterate' compared to the students who studied all their school subjects in English at the secondary level. As Andrews (1984) says

One inevitable consequence of Arabicization in schools... has been a falling standard of English among school leavers, inevitable because the students' exposure to English has been so greatly reduced. This of course, has had a profound effect at tertiary level.

The following figures from Hawkes (1969) and Macmillan (1970) may show the difference in the standard of English before and after the Arabicization of the secondary level in 1965.⁴

Table (1)

Percentages of Students who Passed in English in the Sudan School Certificate

Year	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969
%	70.3	68.4	66.2	57.9	48.0	43.1	42.4

In 1990 the Sudan government decided to Arabicize

higher education while retaining English as a compulsory subject to be taught throughout the years of study instead of confining it to the first year as it was before Arabicization.⁵ However, students' exposure to English has been significantly reduced. In the University of Gezira, for instance, the hours of English have been increased from 192 to 480, but over 2500 hours of exposure to the language in other subjects were lost. Arabicization of higher education has resulted in lowering the status of English in general education. English is no longer a compulsory subject which all students should pass in order to compete to enter the university.

1.1.2.3 The New Educational Ladder

Another event that affected English in Sudan was the introduction of the New Educational Ladder (NEL) in general education in 1970. According to the NEL, the duration of school stages became six, three and three years at the elementary, intermediate and secondary stage respectively instead of four years for each stage. (see Table 2).

Table (2)

Duration of School Stages Before and After the Introduction of the New Educational Ladder

Stage	Before 1970	After 1970
Elementary	4 years	6 years
Intermediate	4 years	3 years
Secondary	4 years	3 years

English was not introduced at the elementary level after 1970, therefore two years of English were lost, thus reducing students exposure to the language once more. So far nothing has been done to compensate for that loss.

1.1.2.4 Teaching for the satisfaction of Authorities

English is taught as a school subject for about five hours per week at both the intermediate and secondary level (8 class periods of 40 minutes each) and for three hours per week in the universities where 'general English' and 'English for specific purposes' are taught. Neither the teacher nor the school administration has the power to decide the content and duration of the course at the intermediate and secondary level. The headmaster and the head of the department must see to it that teachers cover the syllabus within a specified period of time. Such restrictions bring about one aspect of what is generally known in Arabic as 'commercial teaching', that is, teaching with the sole aim of finishing the course, satisfying the administration, and hence securing a positive end-of-year report which may pave the way to promotion or any other privilege. In such commercial teaching, some students may not learn anything.

1.1.2.5 Number of Students in the Class

Another factor leading to commercial teaching is that there are 60-80 students in most of the classes (see Appendix A 10,11). In such classes, it is common to find students who do not participate in classroom activities at any stage of the course. As Long (1977) observes:

Seated at the back, even students with good learning and eyesight may find it difficult to hear what is said, or to see what is written or drawn on the blackboard.

Although the writer of The Nile Course for Sudan stresses pair work and group work as "a vital part of the course" (Corbluth, 1979), these activities can hardly achieve their purported goals in overcrowded classes. Written assignments are rarely given for fear of the heavy burden of marking since due to the lack of staff a teacher usually teaches more than one class, (see Appendix A 13,14).

Class size has been reported to have a significant effect on learning, not only in skill subjects but also in other subjects, (See e.g. Glass, Cohen, Smith and Filby, 1982; Noli, 1980). Division of students into groups is often suggested as a way of coping with large classes (e.g. McGreal, 1989). However, due to the lack of space, time and staff together with administrative considerations it may be nowhere near possible to split the class into small groups. Awareness of the Sudanese

people of the importance of education resulted in expansion of education including building more schools and taking in more students. Consequently, reduction of class size is a dream that is not expected to materialize in the near future. Meanwhile, a solution that seems to be reasonable is the adoption of teaching methods and materials that can suit such large classes. Materials emphasizing reading comprehension and writing may be more suitable than those which focus on listening and speaking. Emphasis on written skills is in line with needs of the students in both general and higher education. (see section 1.1.2.1, and Group Report, 1966).

1.1.2.6 Lack of Books and School Libraries

Related to the problem of class size is that of textbooks and teaching materials. Very few schools enjoy having a full stock of the language and literature textbooks. In most of the schools students either share the small number of books available or use locally, and often poorly, developed materials (see Appendix A 11,12,13,14). School libraries are seen as memories of the good old days. In the very few schools that still have libraries, students can no longer use those books either because of their difficulty compared to the present standards in English, or because of the damage they suffer from due to long periods of storage. Even when a school library contains some easy books, the

students may not read them because they do not have the motivation to go beyond what is required of them in the examinations. As a result, the class periods which were allotted to extensive reading in the library have disappeared from the timetable.

1.1.2.7 Teacher Qualifications

There is a general agreement among the Sudanese English teaching specialists that 'there is no teaching at all', mainly because most of the teachers of English are not qualified. (see e.g. Abu-Rigal, 1966; Ahmed, 1966; Fitaihabi, 1986; Umar, 1985) The Sudanese teachers of English at the intermediate and secondary schools can be categorised according to their qualifications as follows, (Mohammed, 1989a).

- (1) Graduates of faculties and institutes of education (B.Ed. in English and education).
- (2) Graduates of other faculties, institutes and secondary schools who have attended an in-service training course in TEFL (BA, BSc, or Secondary School Certificate plus training in TEFL in all cases).
- (3) Graduates of faculties and institutes of Arts majoring in the English language and/or literature (BA English).

- (4) Graduates of English medium faculties and institutes
(BSc Agriculture, Chemistry, Economics, etc..).
- (5) Graduates of Arabic medium faculties and institutes (BA or BSc).
- (6) Secondary school leavers who have the secondary school certificate with a pass in English (pass score being 30%).
- (7) Traditional Teachers: following Dublin and Olshtain's (1986) definition, these are the teachers who "received traditional training and may not be equipped professionally or emotionally to handle modern teaching materials". Strevens (1980) also refers to these teachers as "the products of earlier stages of development" who may not be acquainted with or reluctant to accept a change taking place in the methods of TEFL, (see also Carroll, 1965).

Most, if not all, of the qualified teachers (categories 1 and 2) find their way out to the rich Arab countries as soon as, and sometimes before, they attain the required two years of experience in TEFL. Some of the BEd holders (first category) do not find teaching posts on the grounds that the Ministry does not have funds to recruit new teachers. Some others, on the

other hand, refuse to get appointed in government schools and, instead, join private schools where payment is higher, work on part-time basis is possible so that they can do some other jobs to increase their income, and termination of contract is easy.

Traditional teachers (category 7) are normally promoted to be inspectors or headmasters. Those who become inspectors are, as Sandell (1982) says, "frequently intent on proving their own superiority over the teachers, rather than helping them to improve their teaching skills". Unable or unwilling to cope with modern teaching methods and materials, these inspectors cannot be expected to give the right kind of help to the teachers. What most of the inspectors do during their inspection visits is interrupt the flow of the lesson with their critical, and sometimes sarcastic, remarks. Their frustrating criticism and the destructive reports they raise about the teachers' performance add more names to the list of the teachers who abandon the profession to take up other jobs that might be more rewarding. Fitaihabi (1986) observes that

The function of supervision has changed from active field work in schools to purely administrative work in the Regional Ministries of Education with only one visit to schools at the end of the academic year.⁶

Although the inspectors' involvement in administration is better than their destructive supervision, that single visit can be the last straw. It might sometimes be the case that with the change from

supervision to administration the harassing encounter is transferred from the schools to the education offices where inspectors, this time following the traditions of government officials, can frustrate the teachers who contact them for administrative affairs.

Teachers in other categories (3,4,5 and 6) are not qualified to teach English since all of them lack the necessary training in TEFL. Within these four categories, the teachers in category three are in a better position than the others (categories 4, 5 and 6) since their BA degree is in the English language and literature, but they are not qualified since they have not been trained in the methods and techniques of TEFL, (see also Hassan, 1977). The graduates of Arabic medium faculties and the secondary school graduates are by definition incompetent in English and, unfortunately, these are the majority who are running (or rather 'ruining') the EFL classes.

The newly appointed teachers are usually given very heavy teaching loads in the junior classes (see Appendix A 14). The untrained and inexperienced teachers feel "in doubt of what they are expected to do" (Abu-Rigal, 1966) and may eventually resort to "the half-forgotten memories of how they were taught several years ago" (Jupp, 1966). These newcomers have neither the time nor the energy to improve their proficiency level or to acquaint themselves with TEFL methodology. (see also Page, 1985). Even when there is time and energy, such

teachers do not seem to have the motivation for self-improvement because most of them fall back on teaching until they find any other better jobs. As Sandell (1982) points out, "these teachers were nicknamed 'taxi teachers' just going for a short ride". Their appointment is inevitable since there is a severe lack of trained teachers in general educations.

During their 'short ride' the 'taxi teachers' may be destructive. Their attitudes towards students is demoralizing and frustrating to the extent that most of their students take it for granted that they will never pass any English examination. Unwilling to admit their own poor proficiency level and lack of training in TEFL, such teachers often tend to heap the blame for under-achievement on their students. Some secondary school teachers take the intermediate school teachers as scapegoats, (see Appendix A 1,2,3). The students are frequently told or given the impression that they will not learn English at all or pass the examinations. The frustrating atmosphere which teachers create may well be attributed to the obsolete assumption that the commission of errors is a sign of failure to learn. There are teachers who are inclined to spend a good portion of the class time scolding students for errors which might after all be classified as teacher-induced (see Section 2.8 and Appendix A1). To most of the teachers, error correction means giving the right form, a method which is deemed to have little or no effect at all, (Bley-Vroman, 1986; Chaudron, 1988; Corder, 1981,

1983; Ellis, 1985; Hendrickson, 1978; Mukattash, 1986; Savignon, 1983; Terrell, 1977). Even worse is the way in which some teachers respond to errors. Abu-Rigal (1966) says:

Take any grammar or composition exercise book and you are sure to find such remarks made by teachers: 'Try to improve your handwriting; try to improve your sentence pattern; this is not English; your tenses are mixed up' Such remarks achieve nothing but add to the perplexity and discouragement of the pupil. The remarks are, of course, an unconscious criticism by the teacher of his own work.

Not only does the teacher want his students to do what they have not been trained to do or what he himself may not be able to do, but also he may conceal his deficiency by discrediting the students when they rightly fault him.⁷ Finding a teacher who accepts being corrected by a student is as hard as finding a student who is bright enough to correct the teacher. There are teachers who, if corrected by a student, insist on the wrong form believing that acceptance of correction would be a point of weakness, thus shaking the students' confidence in them and putting their reputation at stake. Based on Bigge's (1982) classification of teachers according to their relationships with their students, all teachers are 'authoritarian'; 'laissez-faire' or 'democratic' teachers can hardly be found.

1.1.2.8 Teaching Grammarians' Grammar

The teaching of grammar in Sudan has been greatly

affected by the very factors leading to the decline of the standard of English. In turn, the kind of grammar and the way it is taught have come to be a major detrimental factor in the deterioration of standards in English. The teachers who are not qualified, proficient, or interested in English, rely heavily on giving sophisticated rules and exceptions and imparting knowledge 'about' the language, (see also El-Tigani, 1966; Hassan, 1977). The fact that teaching 'about' the language is much easier than developing the language as a skill is in line with the abilities, aims and beliefs of the 'taxi-teachers', McGreal (1989) agrees with West (1960) who says "a marked enthusiasm for grammar is one of the commonest symptoms of a bad teacher ... it is something which the ill-qualified teacher can do".

Nevertheless many such Sudanese teachers are admired by their students. They are believed to be excellent teachers because they spend most of the class time on teaching 'about' the language. It is not surprising that these teachers are famous since their students have been led to believe that language learning is a matter of being able to memorize rules and facts and to analyse sentences. Despite the introduction in general education of a new language course that de-emphasises the teaching of grammar following the communicative trend, many teachers have been observed using old course books based on a purely structural approach.¹⁰ (e.g.

Bright, 1946, 1954; Etherton, 1968). Many teachers copy rules and complicated explanations from reference grammar books for direct classroom presentation. Such copied grammar expositions also appear in the form of notes and booklets for sale (see Appendix B). In all cases, complicated and abstract rule descriptions and explanations are presented using metalanguage. In other words, portions of reference grammar are presented without the necessary simplification of analysis and metalanguage. Thus, as Rutherford (1987) says, grammar "enters the learners experience... as an objectified body of alien knowledge to be mastered or as obstacles to be overcome".

The habit of teaching grammarians' grammar seems to be carried over from the way in which the grammar of modern standard Arabic (MSA) is taught in Sudanese schools. The teaching of the grammar of MSA is based on a structural syllabus at all levels of education (see Macmillan, 1970). Like other language skills (e.g. reading comprehension, rhetoric), grammar is taught in isolation from other skills in a separate textbook. A typical grammar lesson begins with a few isolated sentences exemplifying the grammar point to be taught. The examples are then followed by explanation couched in grammatical terminology. The lesson ends with the statement of the rule and exercises, (see Appendix C). Rule statement, parsing and metalinguistic terms are systemically taught and tested.

The way in which MSA and EFL grammar is taught

seems to be influenced by the old methods used to teach the grammar of classical Arabic for the sole purpose of understanding the Koran. Excessive use of metalanguage is said to be one of the major factors leading to the deterioration of the standards in MSA. Overuse of grammatical terminology in teaching the grammar of English may, among other possible disadvantages (page 144), encourage students to think that the approach to learning English would be the same as that of learning MSA. The learners' tendency to memorize the rule with all its metalanguage in MSA can be attributed to the fact that students are required to state rules and analyse sentences in school tests and public examinations. It is interesting to note that the teaching, but rarely the testing, of English grammar follows the same line. Facts about the language and the language used to state these facts are memorised although usually these are not tested. English is taught and learned as a fact-based subject, but the final standardised examinations are usually set by qualified and experienced teachers and TEFL specialists in the universities. The discrepancy between teaching and testing may account for the inability of most of the students to pass the secondary school certificate English examination. The solution that is resorted to is to lower the pass mark instead of improving the quality of teaching.

The situation in both MSA and English is similar

to that which Prabhu (1987) describes as "trying to read a grammar book of a language one does not know". As Berman (1974) says, teachers expect students "to learn the unknown via the unknown". When the students make grammar errors, many teachers and inspectors assume that more grammar is needed, (see also Van Patten, 1988; West, 1972). This may be a reason for the unusual amount of time spent on grammar instruction.

In addition to the problem of lack of training, teachers' beliefs and other factors, the tendency to teach rules and facts in MSA and EFL can be attributed to the class size. In classes where there are at least 60 students it may be difficult for the teacher to develop the language skills, therefore, he or she falls back on teaching 'about' the language. As West (1960) points out when he talks about teaching English in unfavorable conditions "it is easy to lecture to forty, fifty, sixty or more pupils, although it is not easy to produce a response from a class of that size". Both MSA and EFL are treated like other school subjects where the large numbers of learners are turned into passive listeners. This is a situation which the majority of the students feel happy with. To quote Al-Hakim (1984):

The students expect the English lesson to be a lecture where they would be passive, 'receiving' what the teacher is 'giving' with no participation on their part. They expect at the end of the lesson to be able to 'touch' an amount of knowledge that they have acquired.

Learning is believed to have taken place and, hence, teaching is assumed to have been successful if the facts 'received' are 'returned' when required. Thus, students learn everything except language.

The problem of shortage of textbooks often results in an increase in the number of grammar class periods. 'No books' is always an excuse for the untrained teachers to resort to the one thing they can do: reciting grammar points collected from various sources. Heavy reliance on grammar, particularly in the final year of the secondary level, can be due to the ultimate objective of attaining the pass score. The secondary school certificate examination consists of the following parts:

	<u>Points</u>
Free composition	20
Guided composition	20
Reading comprehension (multiple choice)	20
Summary writing (with guiding questions)	20
Grammar (20 multiple choice items)	20
Total	100
Pass score	30

For grammar-oriented students it seems better to focus on the multiple-choice grammar items and score as many points as possible out of 20.⁹ This idea is supported by the teachers who spend most of the academic

year doing multiple-choice grammar exercises.¹⁰ The other sections of the examination which students prefer to attempt, in the hope of making up for the points they lose in grammar or in their quest for the remaining ten points to pass, are reading comprehension and summary writing. These two sections, like the multiple-choice grammar section, give room for guessing and cheating. For most students composition, whether free or guided, is the most difficult skill, therefore they feel they should not waste their time on it; they cannot give what they do not have (see Appendix A. 4,10). Summary writing comes second in difficulty since it is a kind of guided composition and the students are required to use their own words in expressing the main ideas.¹¹

Thus the teaching of grammar, which is made boring, difficult and one of the most unpleasant aspects of language learning, aims at imparting facts in the hope of enabling students to pass the examinations without any applied knowledge of the language (Odlin, 1986; Singleton and Little, 1986). As Bhatia (1974) observes:

The process of teaching and learning is.... changed into a process of preparing the student for the final examination, and not a process of training the student to acquire desirable language habits.

The way grammar is taught can hardly be said to contribute to the development of the learners' linguistic competence, therefore, as Marton (1988) says "the learner is left to his own resources...he follows the path of unaided hypothesis formation and testing".

In the case of Sudanese students of EFL, the process of hypothesis formation and verification is confounded by the fact that their exposure to the language is very limited (5-6 hours per week). Thus students frequently resort to their native language as the most available source of linguistic knowledge to compensate for the lack of knowledge of the target language. (see Appendix A 4,5,6).

1.2 Excessive Reliance on the Native Language

The above account should not be taken to have aimed at heaping all the blame on the teachers. Like other people in all walks of life, teachers face financial, administrative and social problems.¹² As Fitaihabi (1986) points out, teaching is "one of the most underpaid professions and not well thought of socially". In addition to having difficulty in making ends meet and facing problems resulting from the bureaucratic practices in the regional and central offices of education, trained and enthusiastic teachers may have the special problem of antagonism from the headmasters or other unqualified colleagues in the department (Mahgoub, 1966). The headmasters think that the school system and hence their authority will be defied, and the untrained colleagues feel that their position will be shaken, when trained teachers apply their methods. Such antagonism is also expected from traditional teachers and inspectors.

The fact that need not be overemphasised is that there is no teaching-learning of English in Sudan. Allwright's (1986) "Seven ways of making classroom learning difficult"¹³ and Strevens' (1980) nine "strong recurrent reason for failure in EFL learning and teaching"¹⁴ apply to the situation in Sudan. The dramatic deterioration in the standard of EFL is reflected in the reduction of the pass score in the secondary school certificate examination from 50 to 40 then to 30%. Scoring 30% or more may not reflect the student's true competence in English since there is the possibility of scoring 40% without writing even a single word in English by attempting the multiple choice recognition items.¹⁵ Most of the students can hardly be said to attain an intermediate level of proficiency after six years (about 800 hours) of EFL study.¹⁶ They can hardly produce two error free English sentences. In situations where they may not be able to avoid speaking or writing in English, these students produce many Arabic forms and structures using English sounds or letters (e.g. 'duwal' =countries). In other words, they rely on word for word translation from Arabic. Cases of code switching can also be observed. Thus the students' interlanguage exhibits features indicating heavy and indiscriminate reliance on transfer from the native language, that is, interlinguistic transfer.¹⁷ Rivers (1981) uses 'school pidgin' to refer to the process of "cloning native language structures in foreign vocabulary" when the students "are plunged too soon into expressing themselves freely in the new language in a relatively unstructured situation". However, in the case of Sudanese students, six year of EFL is not 'too

soon' and nothing can be expected to change if English is studied for a longer period in a situation where there is no teaching.

Under the constraints of the quality and quantity of the linguistic input available in an unfavourable learning situation, the quality of teachers and teaching, the physical setting and learning resources together with the learner factors, all of which account for the low proficiency level in English, the students seem to have no choice other than falling back on the interlinguistic transfer strategy in their attempts to solve their linguistic problems when they cannot avoid using the foreign language. Hence a large portion of errors committed by Sudanese students can be attributed to transfer from Arabic.

The present writer found 50% of the errors made by Sudanese first year university students in English to be due to transfer from Arabic, (see Mohammed, 1983). In a questionnaire administered for the purpose of this study to 1090 intermediate and secondary school English teachers in different parts of northern Sudan, 50% of the teachers reported more than 50% of their students' errors to be due to the influence of Arabic. Out of the 1090 teachers, 70% reported that such errors were more than one-third¹⁸. Frequent resort to the interlinguistic transfer is a characteristic of learning a foreign language in an acquisition-poor situation, where even the very little time available for learning is not properly utilized. The inverse

relationship between reliance on interlinguistic transfer and the learner's level of proficiency in the target language has been observed by many researchers (e.g. Di Pietro, 1971; Ellis, 1985; Hsia, 1986; Krashen, 1977, 1979; Major, 1987, McLaughlin, 1984; Mustapha et al, 1986; Newmark, 1966; Poulisse and Schils 1989; Seliger, 1983; Si-Qing, 1990; Thomas, 1989; Van Els et al, 1984).

A direct consequence of the deteriorating standard in English in Sudan is the teachers' frequent and indiscriminate use of the native language in English classes which in turn increases students' reliance on interlinguistic transfer. Learners are encouraged to render the English forms into Arabic for comprehension, and Arabic forms into English for production. Teachers tend to overuse Arabic in the belief that the students do not understand what they hear or read in English due to poor proficiency level. Another reason for overusing Arabic may be that the teachers themselves are not proficient in English (see Appendix D). Yet another reason may be the negative attitude of many teachers towards the students and the teaching of English. Teachers who believe that their students cannot comprehend and produce English and, therefore, will never learn it, and 'taxi-teachers' who are not interested in the profession cannot teach effectively. They often try to reduce the amount of effort they make by using Arabic as a short cut; they also use it with the aim of saving time in a situation where they feel they have to rush on to finish the syllabus regardless of whether the students are learning or not.

Thus most of the unfamiliar grammatical and lexical items are explained in Arabic. When teaching reading, it is not uncommon to find teachers who give a word-for-word translation of long texts. The aim behind the reading lesson is to answer the questions at the end of the reading comprehension passage. So-called literature lessons are taught in addition to the language course in the intermediate and secondary schools. Simplified readers are used except in the final year of the secondary level where abridged and original books are taught.¹⁹ The 'literature' lessons are in fact reading lessons where students are not required to go further than grasping the plain facts and events in the work of literature. According to the Sudanese TEFL specialists the objectives of this reading course are: (1) to reinforce what is covered in the language course, and (2) to provide students with extensive exposure to the language. As such, it can be seen as the most important part of the English language syllabus. However, these objectives are far from being achieved due to what actually happens in the classroom in most of the schools. With the sole aim of passing the 'literature' examination, students opt for nothing but knowing the facts before the examination and encircling the answers they believe to be correct in the examination. For this and the other reasons previously mentioned, most teachers have developed the habit of translating paragraphs, chapters, or even entire books from English into Arabic. If this is not done by the teacher in the classroom, it is usually done by someone else at home or by those who develop supplementary materials in the form of notes or booklets for

sale, (Mohammed, 1989b). Thus the reading course is turned into a subject-matter course like History or Geography except that the examination is in English. Translation may not guarantee a pass in the examination. Some students fail most probably because they do not understand the questions in English. In this case the students pay for a mistake committed by the teacher. Some of those who pass may do so by guessing or cheating since the 'literature' examination, particularly the secondary school certificate, is invariably in the multiple-choice format.

The dangers of the excessive and indiscriminate use of the native language in the second or foreign language classroom have been widely noticed. One of these dangers is that students will always expect the target language words and expressions to have the same meaning as those of the native language (Allen and Widdowson, 1975; Harmer, 1983; Kirstein, 1972; Thompson, 1987; Wilkins, 1974). According to Rivers and Temperly (1978) overuse of translation when teaching the meaning of words "can become a crutch, reducing the amount of effort given to inferencing". Many teachers do not trust the students' comprehension ability in English, and the students themselves do not think they can understand English. As Atkinson (1987) points out, both teachers and students feel that any lexical or grammatical item should be translated if it is to be really understood. Another problem Atkinson anticipates to be due to the teacher's excessive reliance on the native language is that the learners will use their native language 'as a matter of course' when speaking

to the teacher even if they can express themselves understandably in the target language. However, such a problem may ensue even when the teacher's use of the native language is selective and limited. For instance, the teacher may use it for context establishment or management purposes to ensure clarity of instructions. This might be understood by students as a green light for them to use the native language in any case and for any purpose. Giving such instructions first in the target language may be a solution.

Nolasco and Arther (1988) refer to recent research evidence to the effect that using the native language for instructions deprives the language class of "the greatest single source of genuine communication". Nevertheless, they propose a bilingual approach "to promote student security" while aiming at the target language. They suggest starting by using the native language to establish routines and then using the target language backed up by the native language before using the target language alone. They prefer these steps to always giving instructions in the target language followed by the native language since the learners will ignore the first version and wait for the following easier version. However, giving instructions first in the native language may also create the same problem: the learners may ignore or even not wait for the target language version when they get the message in the native language. When giving instructions in the target language before the native language, there seems to be a chance to train the learners to attend to the target language and not to depend on the native language. Instructions can be given in the target language

without the native version unless the learners do not understand. Complicated instructions can be given in a simple language together with any other possible aids before resorting to the native language. The teacher's attempts to get the message across in the target language may help in weaning the learners from the habit of relying on the native language. It can also help foster genuine communication if the students get used to being given instructions in the target language.

While teachers facilitate their job through overusing the native language, they also relieve the students of the task of learning the target language. The students may not see any need to read the 'literature' books or the comprehension texts in the language course book when they are translated into Arabic. Students usually write the Arabic equivalents in the English text and, hence, free themselves from the task of learning the English forms by ignoring them and picking only the Arabic equivalents when they come to read the text again (see Appendix E). In this respect, Mustapha et al (1986) write.

After a detailed study there may be as much Arabic on the page as English. The student then searches for meaning using a very unusual reading process - the Arabic he has written needs to be read from right to left but the word order is that of the English sentence from left to right, and the grammatical structure is that of English. This strange intermediate language must then be translated into Arabic.

Thus, excessive use of the native language is always at

the expense of exposure to the target language (see also Das, 1983; Harmer, 1983). Arabic is invariably used for the purpose of translation in an attempt to save time and effort and not as a teaching technique such as comparing the forms of the two languages in a way that can facilitate the learning of the target language. The way Arabic is exploited in most Sudanese English classes encourages continued indiscriminate reliance on interlinguistic transfer which in turn increases the instances of formulating incorrect hypotheses thus frustrating students and hindering their progress along the interlanguage continuum.

1.3 Scope of the Study

1.3.1 Interlinguistic Transfer and Language Teaching

The present study focuses on interlinguistic transfer as one of the two main strategies that shape the Sudanese EFL learners' interlanguage. The other strategy is intralinguistic transfer which is sometimes referred to as 'overgeneralization' in the second or foreign language learning and error analysis literature (see e.g. Littlewood, 1984; Richards, 1985). The study focuses on interlinguistic transfer through the systematic errors made by the secondary school and university students in their attempt to facilitate the task of learning and using English.

It may be argued that an error-based approach to the study of the interlanguage is one-sided and incomplete since the learners' language exhibits both correct and incorrect

forms. However, the interlanguage studies so far published do not seem to have shown how a learner arrives at the correct forms he produces: is it due to acquisition, learning or rote memorization? (Section 4.1.1). As far as learning is concerned, evidence for positive transfer is still at the level of theoretical assertions: that the learner's previous linguistic knowledge helps in gaining new knowledge through formulation of correct hypotheses, and that occurrence of negative transfer implies the existence of positive transfer. Hence, as Ringbom (1987) says, "only when learners go wrong do we have clues to the underlying process". It is the contention of many researchers (e.g. Azevedo, 1980; Brumfit, 1980; Cook, 1969; Corder, 1981; Cowan, 1983; Faerch et al, 1984; Ghadessy 1980; Krahnke and Christison, 1983; Larsen-Freeman, 1987; Ringbom, 1987; Scovel, 1988 Selinker, 1972; Sridhar, 1976) that learners' errors are of great importance in that they yield valuable insights into the process of language learning. According to Wode (1981) "the errors are the product of the learner's lingo-cognitive strategies which reflect his learning abilities". Thomas (1989) points out that "errors are almost associated with strategy use, particularly transfer from the speaker's mother tongue".

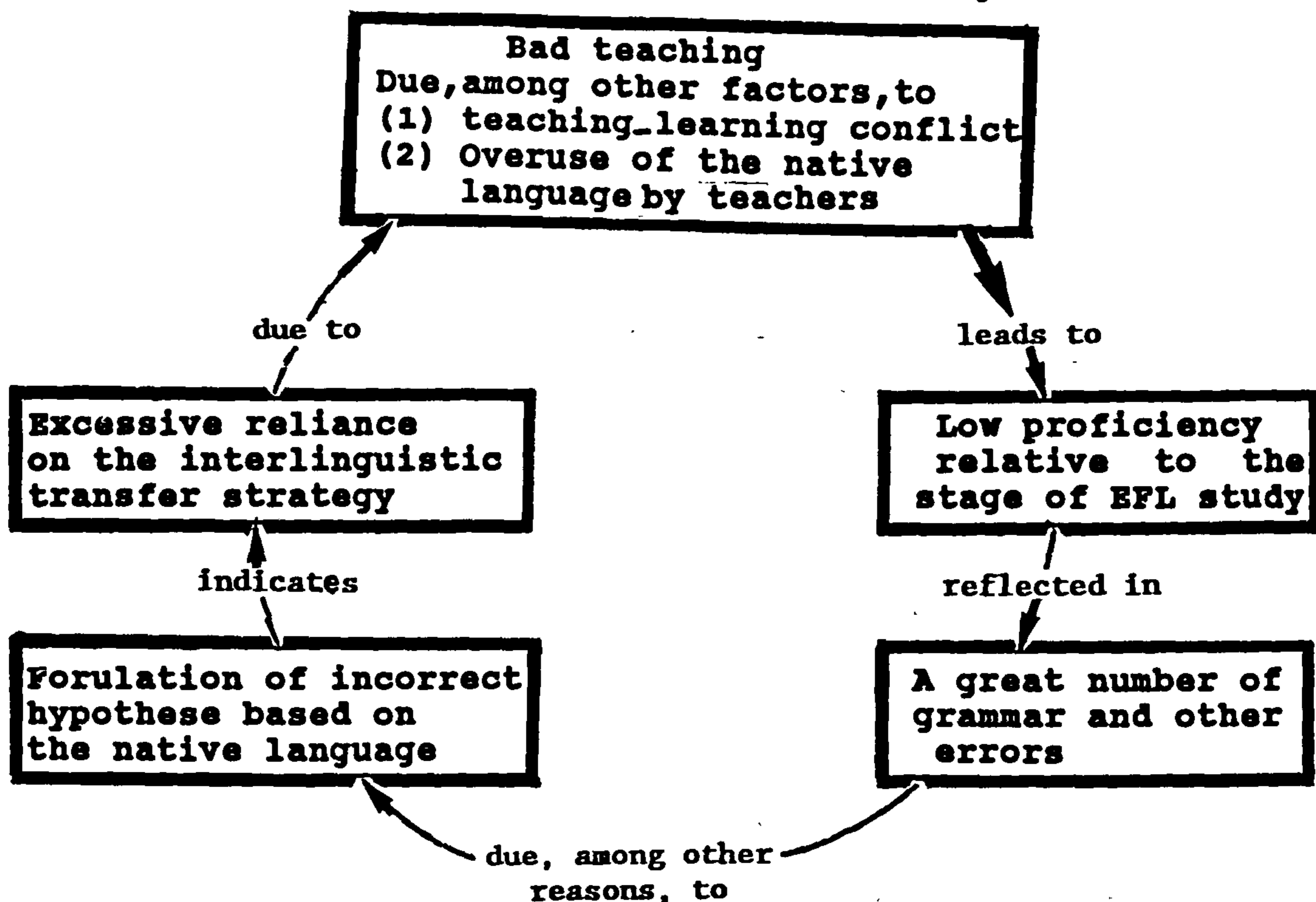
Based on the current interest in exploring the cognitive strategies used by adult language learners and on what has so far been revealed about these strategies, the focus on the interlinguistic transfer strategy through errors can hopefully be a step towards a learner-centred approach to foreign language teaching. The interlinguistic transfer

strategy is intended to be utilized as a basis for a learner-centred teaching technique in the sense that the way in which the foreign language is taught becomes as consistent as possible with the way it is believed to be learned. In this respect Hutchinson and Waters (1987) write:

The starting point for all language teaching should be an understanding of how people learn. But it is too often the case that 'learning' factors are the last to be considered..... Unfortunately, we still know too little about how people learn. Nevertheless, if we wish to improve the techniques, methods and content of language teaching, we must try and base what we do in the classroom on sound principles of learning.

The present study attempts to relate the two functions - theoretical and practical - of error analysis, (see e.g. Brumfit, 1984; Corder, 1981; Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982). In other words, what the errors reveal about the interlinguistic transfer strategy is used as a basis for a teaching technique that may minimize the negative effects of indiscriminate reliance on that strategy. The study aims at arriving at a learner-centred technique of teaching grammar in the light of the role of the native language in foreign language learning and teaching, with error analysis as a source of information about the interlinguistic transfer strategy. Impetus to focusing on the role of the native language and error analysis comes from the vicious circle of teaching and learning English in Sudan, (See Figure 2 below).

Figure (2)
The Vicious Circle of Teaching and Learning EFL in Sudan



1.3.2 The Notion of Error

1.3.2.1 Definition

The term "error" is used in this study to refer to competence errors: the learner's systematic deviation from the target norm as a result of incomplete knowledge of the code. It refers to the deviations which the learner cannot correct by himself even if they are identified. In this sense, a competence error is to be seen as different from a performance error which the learner can correct when he or someone else identifies it. Performance errors include slips

or lapses and mistakes as defined by Brown (1980, 1987), Ellis and Tomlinson (1980), Ghadessy (1980), Hussein (1971), Johnson (1988), Michaelides (1990), Noth (1979), and Titone and Danesi (1985). According to them, slips and mistakes are random deviations that are made due to fatigue, carelessness, quick writing or speaking, memory lapses, divided attention, or any other reasons apart from lack of competence in the language. Such deviations are also observed in the language of native speakers. Although both slips and mistakes can be corrected by the speaker or writer, slips are sometimes distinguished from mistakes on the grounds that the former are immediately recognized by the speaker or writer whereas the latter are not.

Some researchers believe that it is difficult to differentiate between performance and competence errors. Van Els et al (1984), for example, argue that a learner may be able to identify and correct an error on the basis of his explicit knowledge of the rules of the language but continue to make the same error in actual language use. Faerch and Kasper (1984) and McKeating (1981) attribute this problem to the fact that the learner's competence is unstable. However, what the learner needs in this case is to transfer his explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge through practice. In other words, what he needs is not further consciousness-raising, but rather automatization of conscious knowledge. In cases where internalization of a linguistic form involves explicit knowledge, learners seem to pass through the following three stages:

1. Zero Knowledge: a linguistic gap.
2. Explicit Knowledge: knowledge gained through consciousness raising.²⁰
3. Implicit Knowledge: automatized knowledge gained through practice.

The deviations that occur at the first stage reflect a deficiency in competence; they are competence errors which the learner cannot correct due to the lack of relevant linguistic knowledge. This is the stage where the learner employs various achievement strategies to fill the gap. The deviations at the second and third stages are performance errors that the learner can correct by reference to his explicit knowledge at the second stage or on the basis of his implicit knowledge at the third stage.

McKeating (1981) maintains that self-correction is not always a reliable criterion for the distinction between performance and competence errors. He points out that there are cases where the learner knows one of two forms is correct but not sure which. Once the teacher indicates that one form is incorrect the learner knows that the other form is correct and produces it. However, this is the hypothesis testing procedure central to the language learning process. No teacher would be expected to adopt a fault finding attitude towards the learner's performance and consequently stick to the incorrect forms when they are replaced by the correct

ones. The teacher or the error analyst should be concerned with the final product since students may learn from their errors and since there is the possibility that the incorrect forms might as well be errors of performance after all. There are other cases in which competence errors can fairly easily be detected: the learner may not be able to correct the error simply because he does not know any other form that can fill the gap, or he may replace the incorrect form by another incorrect form.

Hussein (1971) suggests the following three-step procedure to differentiate between competence errors on the one hand and performance errors including slips and mistakes on the other hand:

1. The student revises his work to correct the deviations he can recognize; the corrected forms will be slips.
2. The teacher goes through the work, identifies the remaining incorrect forms and asks the student to correct them; the corrected forms will be mistakes.
3. The forms which the learner fails to correct will be errors.

Although this procedure appears to be useful, there is the possibility that a deviation remains uncorrected at any stage simply because it escapes the learner's or the teacher's observation. Such a deviation may not reflect a

deficiency in the learner's explicit or implicit knowledge of the rules of the language. Until further research suggests a more rigorous procedure, Hussein's steps can be followed with special attention on the part of the teacher or error analyst to insist on the learners' close and repeated revision of their errors. Consultation with the learner, if possible, may be the most reliable solution.

1.3.2.2 Errors and Great Expectations

Describing certain forms produced by a learner as erroneous is a contradiction from an interlanguage perspective. Deviation is a normal phenomenon in learning. In other words, deviation is a sign of learning. In the light of the stages of linguistic development, the learner's language is seen as a system in its own right and, therefore, is not to be judged as correct or incorrect in terms of the target language, (Dubin and Olshtain, 1977; Wode, 1981). As Taylor (1980) points out, learners will commit errors in spite of the teaching method or materials used; errors are "inevitable in any learning situation which requires creativity or the ability to analogise and regularize". From a pedagogical perspective, on the other hand, the notion of error cannot be avoided since working towards a norm is the essence of language teaching, (Sridhar, 1976; Zydatiss, 1974). The importance of error stems from the necessity of providing learners with corrective feedback without which they will take their interim hypotheses as correct and hence will not modify them (see also Omaggio, 1986). These two

contradicting views have been noted by Faerch et al (1984):

Although the notion of error is ... not consistent with the internal logic of the interlanguage system, the analysis of errors serves an important function when interlanguages are described within specific, norm-oriented situations.

In terms of the implications of the interlanguage studies to language teaching, it is important for the teacher to think of errors as normal features in the learner's developing language. The development of language is gradual and the learner cannot be expected to learn everything presented to him at a certain stage, therefore, the teacher should not consider errors as signs of failure to learn and get unduly worried. He should not forget that children make many errors as they progress toward full adult language when learning their mother tongue. Their parents usually correct the facts rather than the linguistic errors (see Brown et al, 1969). The implication of this, as Chastain (1976) says, is that "we, as second-language teachers, should be much more tolerant of student errors". Some acquaintance with findings of language acquisition studies appears to be inevitable for teachers to abandon what Lightbown (1985) calls, their 'great expectations'. Obsession with correcting every error in all kinds of classroom activities is a direct outcome of having unrealistic expectations. According to Hanzeli (1975).

Teachers may be considerably humanized as they begin to understand that Learners' Languages are not merely pathologies to be eliminated and that many student errors are similar to original sin in Chastain theology....the happy sin which is the indispensable first condition for salvation.

The teacher can tolerate at least some of the learner's errors since it is axiomatic that people commit errors when learning any new skill. It is impossible for the teacher to correct all errors for all learners all the time, and correction does not always guarantee future correct usage. Preoccupation with errors and their frequent correction may lead to adverse results:

1. It may be at the expense of communication, particularly in oral activities. Daniels and Packard (1982) believe that frequent correction is inefficient since "at the end of a conversation activity, students are usually unable to recall what corrections have been made". Thus the teacher's correction may do nothing but interrupt the flow of communication.
2. It can frustrate the learners by giving them the impression that they cannot learn and use the language. If some errors are tolerated, as Hendrickson (1978) says, learners will feel "more confident about using the language than if all their errors are corrected".
3. It may generate more errors; hypercorrection is believed to be one of the causes of teacher-induced errors.

A reasonable course of action for the teacher is to reject the extreme approaches: he should neither overlook all errors

as a natural phenomenon in learning nor should he correct every error. According to Early (1982) the teacher should not interfere in oral communication unless students ask for help, he should then "shape or expand their utterances rather than correct them, in any judgmental sense". In case of writing, the teacher may be concerned only with systematic errors frequently made by, say, more than one third of the students in the class. Thus the teacher can ignore not only performance errors, but also competence errors that are individual or made by a minority. It would be unwise to spend even a small portion of precious classroom time on individual or minority problems, particularly in situations where the time available for exposure to the language is a detrimental factor. Such errors can hopefully be corrected through exposure to the language. Time factor is probably a reason behind immediate provision of the correct form by the teacher, a method of correction which is believed to be of little or no effect at all (see Bley-Vroman, 1986; Chaudron, 1988; Corder, 1981, 1983; Cowan, 1983; Ellis, 1985; Garrett, 1986; Genesee, 1983; Hendrickson, 1978; Higgs, 1979; Mukattash, 1981, 1986).

Sanchez (1982) believes that thoughtless correction 'kills' students. He suggests correcting students without letting them know they are being corrected. The example he gives is that when the students are learning the past tense of regular and irregular verbs and make errors such as 'I goed to Lima yesterday', the correction should be 'Oh yes, you went to Lima' rather than 'You mean, you went to Lima'. He believes

that the former correction will make the student "feel quite good" and will usually be able to say 'I went to the park, too', while the latter will make the student 'feel' the correction and, therefore, feel a little uncomfortable. Indeed there is a need for correction when students make errors in using a form which the lesson focuses on. However, although the teacher's use of 'Oh yes' may bring about a sense of achievement on the part of the learner, that he has successfully conveyed the message, or in some cases, that he has done the job of talking, the correction may not be effective. In his attempt to get the message across or to get the assignment out of the way, the learner may not pay attention to the error being corrected. In other words, focus on message will be at the expense of focus on form. Furthermore it seems that whether the teacher says 'You mean' or 'Oh yes', the student may still feel 'uncomfortable' when he realizes that the form he has produced is different from the teacher's. In order not to add to the learner's discomfort, the teacher can avoid comments such as 'No, Wrong, Don't say' and so forth. Hence, saying 'You mean' seems to be better than such frustrating comments and may be more effective than 'Oh yes' which might not draw the learner's attention to what is being corrected or even what is wrong.

NOTES

1. The amount of exposure increases or decreases depending on the presence of absence of opportunities such as
 - (a) (in second language environments)
 1. using the language at home
 2. studying the language at school
 - (b) (in foreign language environments)
 1. using the language as a medium of instruction
 2. outside extensive reading
2. For a description of similar formal language-learning situations see e.g. Chaudron (1988), Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), Klein (1986), Krashen (1976), McLaughlin (1984) Pica (1984), Richards (1985) and Ringbom (1980, 1987) who differentiate between 'second' and 'foreign' language learning.
3. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that instrumental motivation reflects an external need. Students learn a language not because they "want to but rather because they need to". See Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp. 55-62) for a discussion of the difference between 'needs' and 'wants' with examples.
4. The Arabicization programme began in 1950 and was completed in 1965.
5. A letter (No. NCHE/MRM/32/G/3, dated 17.6.1990) from the National Council for Higher Education to all institutions of higher education in Sudan.
6. This is due to the increase in number of schools following the policy of expanding education together with the problem of scarcity of means of transport and fuel.
7. A case in point is of a secondary school teacher who would pronounce 'signal' as /sainəl/. Another secondary school teacher was observed using 'hided'. In both cases the teachers insisted on their incorrect forms and the students who attempted to indicate the errors were prevented from participation in classroom discussions as long as they were being taught by those teachers.
8. For further discussion of some of the common factors confounding the adoption of the communicative approach see e.g. Long and Sato (1983), Nunan (1986, 1987), Seliger (1983) and Willing (1985).
9. This is most probably why teacher made notes on grammar are far more than notes on other language skills. Out of 17 booklets

that the present writer randomly collected from students, teachers and some bookshops in Wad Medani town, Sudan, 10 were grammar notes, 4 were notes on summary writing, 2 where a combination of comprehension, grammar and composition, and one was an English/Arabic glossary of some of the words used in the language textbook followed at the intermediate level.

The reason behind summary notes ranking second may be that it is easy for their writers to echo such instructions as 'Read the passage twice; find the main ideas, and rewrite them in your own words', and because there is a chance for turning to grammar rules for joining sentences, changing them into the passive or into indirect speech, etc.,

10. Many teachers use, for example, Etherton's (1968) book in which grammar is presented, among other skills, in the form of multiple-choice items in isolated and unrelated sentences. The students usually do nothing more than showing the letter of what they think is the correct answer. The teacher's task is confined to reading the stem and sometimes the options aloud and responding to the students' answers by giving an indication of being correct or giving the letter of the correct answer immediately in case of error. Thus the students are in a testing situation throughout the period in which that book or any similar material is used.
11. In fact both teachers and students are not sure about the aim behind summary-writing. The two skills of reading and writing are equally important and, therefore, equal weight should be given to them in the examination. As such, summary writing should be a test of reading comprehension since comprehension by means of multiple choice questions may be unreliable due to guessing and cheating. If summary-writing is treated as a kind of composition, a student may be penalised three times in one examination for a single error such as the addition of the definite article 'the' to the abstract nouns or omission of the third person singular 's' from the verbs in the present tense. As a reading comprehension test, the focus in summarizing should be only on the student's ability to find the main ideas irrespective of whose words he uses or the errors he makes in an attempt to use his own words. Teachers who believe that summary-writing tests both reading and writing often forget or may not know that it also tests the ability to differentiate between the important points and irrelevant details, something which most students cannot do even in their native language where they might not have any problem in understanding or composing. For this and the other reasons mentioned before, summary-writing should be seen as a reading comprehension test supporting the multiple-choice comprehension section, and writing should be confined to the free and guided composition.
12. For example, in some parts of Sudan it is common to find teachers who do not receive their salaries for more than three consecutive months. The problem is in many cases solved individually when

teachers go by themselves to the regional or central offices of education which may require between two hours to two days travel. Teachers have to pass a test of patience before they get their money because 'Come tomorrow' is a well known phrase.

13. These seven ways are:

1. Frustrating learners: by using a method that prevents them from learning in the way they feel would be most effective.
2. Confusing learners: failure to put order instead of the chaos which random exposure to the language in result in more confusion.
3. Spoon feeding learners: using teacher-centred procedures thus preventing learners from developing their own learning capacities.
4. Time wasting.
5. Demoralization learners: creating harassing competition.
6. Anxiety-breeding: unintentional demoralization of learners.
7. Dependence-breeding.

14. The nine reasons are:

1. Unwillingness to learn.
2. Learners' expectations are too low.
3. Unrealistic aims.
4. Teaching about the language instead of developing the language as a skill.
5. Physical and organisational impediments.
6. Insufficient time for learning and teaching.
7. Gross incompetence in teaching (i.e. teachers personality and proficiency).
8. Teacher/material equation is not solved (i.e. trained teachers using traditional materials, untrained teachers using modern materials).
9. Teachers inadequately prepared (i.e. failure to cope with modern methods).

15. Many researchers (e.g. Davies, 1977; Finocchiaro and Sako, 1983; Heaton, 1975, 1988; Henning, 1987) believe that multiple-choice is an invalid testing technique.
16. This judgement is based on the students' poor performance on the EFL proficiency test annually administered at the beginning of the first semester at the University of Gezira, Sudan. Assuming that their scores in the Secondary School Certificate Examination are reliable, these students are among the best who pass that examination out of more than 150,000 who sit for it.
17. A review of second language acquisition research (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Dubin and Olshtain, 1986; James, 1981; Oxford, 1985; Richards and Kennedy, 1977; Seliger, 1984; Tarone, 1980) indicates that the definitions of the term 'strategy' follow different paths to the same end. Definitions differ depending on the subset of strategies that researchers focus on: learning, communication, productive, receptive, analytic, holistic, avoidance, achievement, linguistic, non-linguistic, and so forth. O'Malley et al (1985) and Oxford and Crookall (1989) echo Rigney (1978) in that strategies are "operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information". For further discussion of the definition of 'strategy' see e.g. Stevick (1990).
18. The following multiple-choice item was given in Arabic:

Based on your experience and observation, show the percentage of the errors which you think can be due to literal translation from Arabic when your students write in English.

<u>Options</u>	<u>Responses</u>	
A. _____ More than 70% _____	132	12.10%
B. _____ 60 to 70% _____	188	17.25%
C. _____ 50 to 60% _____	233	21.38%
D. _____ 40 to 50% _____	147	13.49%
E. _____ 30 to 40% _____	76	6.97%
F. _____ 20 to 30% _____	184	16.88%
G. _____ 10 to 20% _____	46	4.22%
H. _____ Less than 10% _____	84	7.71%
Total	1090	100%

19. Examples of literature books used:

Intermediate Schools (literature is taught only in the 3rd year)

Jane Eyre by C. Bronte (simplified)
 Kidnapped by R. L. Stevenson (simplified)
 The Thirty-Nine Steps by J. Buchan (simplified)

Secondary Schools

First year: (All books simplified)

A Tale of Two Cities by C. Dickens
 The Mill on the Floss by G. Eliot
 Moby Dick by H. Melville
 A Book of Short Stories

Second Year: (All books simplified)

Oliver Twist by C. Dickens
 Wuthering Heights by E. Bronte
 Pride and Prejudice by J. Austen
 Miagret Goes to School by G. Simenon

Third Year: (One novel and one play to be chosen)

Cry, The Beloved Country by A. Paton (abridged)
 Flowers for Mrs Haris by P. Gallico (abridged)
 Arms and the Man by B. Shaw (original)
 The Importance of Being Earnest by O. Wilde (original)

20. According to Marton (1988) there are two types of explicit knowledge: (1) analysed knowledge: mental representations in which the learner arrives at categories, rules and principles by observing the language data, (2) metalinguistic knowledge: highly analysed knowledge which involves naming the categories and verbalizing rules and principles.

CHAPTER TWO

THE ROLE OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

2.1 Attitudes towards the Role of the Native Language

The issue of interlinguistic transfer seems to be going up to the other end of a U-shaped course, starting with the contrastive analysis hypothesis (Fries, 1945; Lado, 1957), played down by the creative construction hypothesis (Dulay and Burt, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1977), and brought into focus again from a cognitive and developmental perspective (see e.g. Jordens, 1977; Kellerman, 1977; Sharwood-Smith, 1979; Wode, 1984; Zobl, 1980, 1982). Thus three eras can clearly be detected with respect to the attitudes towards the role of interlinguistic transfer in language learning. The first era was characterized by the influence of structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology. Transfer from the native language was taken to be a matter of habit and negative transfer or 'interference' would be predicted in cases of difference between the native and the target language - the contrastive analysis hypothesis. The acquisition of new and stronger target language habits was believed to be the only way in which the negative effects of the native language could be overcome.

The second era was characterized by a tendency towards cognitivism in psychology and language acquisition; it represented a reaction against the behaviourist habit formation theory. Affected by Chomsky's (1966) view of linguistic creativity, language acquisition, whether native, second or foreign, was considered as a creative process. This theory has come to be known as the creative construction hypothesis, the identity hypothesis, or L2=L1 hypothesis. In this era, the role of the native language was deemphasized and interlinguistic transfer was excluded from the creative aspects of second or foreign language learning because of its association with the behaviourist habit learning theory.

The third era represents a corrective movement within the cognitive approach to language learning. The role of the native language has been revived, and creativity in learning has been extended to include interlinguistic transfer. With renewed interest in the phenomenon of interlinguistic transfer, the notions of learner expectation and the perceived distance between the native and the target language were introduced as an alternative to the rigid view of equating linguistic differences with learning problems. The learner has come to be viewed as an active participant in the process of learning, one who decides which elements of the native language are transferable and which are not. The distance between the native and the target language has come to be seen as "ultimately in the eye of the beholder", (Odlin, 1989). Thus, as Gass and Selinker (1983) say, the phenomenon of interlinguistic transfer "has been somewhat like a pendulum, swinging from all to nothing, and now

finally settling somewhere in the middle".

The fact that the native language plays an important role in foreign language learning is, as Swan (1985) says, "a matter of common experience". Overwhelming evidence has been presented supporting the central place which interlinguistic transfer occupies in foreign language learning, (see e.g. Gass and Selinker, 1983; James, 1980; Odlin, 1989; Sheen, 1980; Swan and Smith 1987). The availability of the native language to the second or foreign language learner brings about a difference between mother and other tongue learning in the sense that the native language is an additional source of linguistic knowledge not available to the mother tongue learner for hypotheses formation, (Ellis, 1985; McLaughlin, 1984; Merio, 1978; Rutherford, 1987). Evidence for the pervasiveness of interlinguistic transfer is indisputable particularly in foreign language learning contexts where the learners' exposure to the language is confined to the limited input provided through formal instruction, and where the native language is excessively used in explaining unfamiliar lexical and grammatical items. The widely documented influence of the native language at all linguistic levels and in both formal and informal learning situations, (Odlin, 1989) might have led some researchers (e.g. Merio, 1978; Rivers, 1983) to believe that the second or foreign language is filtered through the native language. Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1978) express the possibility, also expressed by Van Parreren (1975), that "the assumption of word-for-word translation equivalence as a working hypothesis....is the only way a learner can ever begin to communicate in a second language".

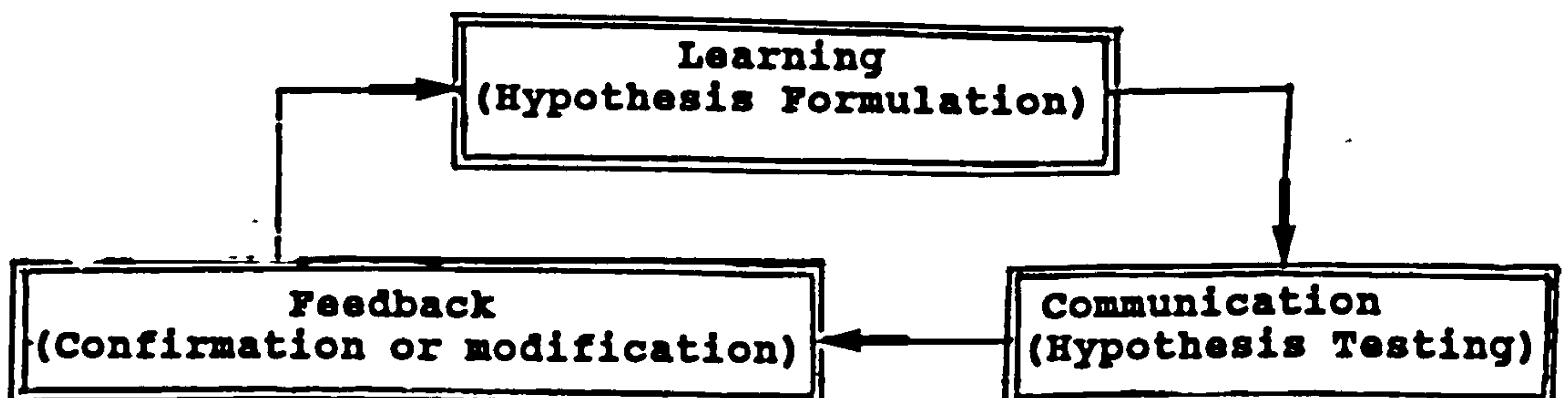
2.2 Interlinguistic Transfer as a Learning & Communication Strategy

Most of the definitions of the term 'transfer' derive from the psychological principle that previous learning is relied upon to facilitate subsequent learning, (see e.g. Adjemain, 1983; Corder, 1978; Jakobovits, 1969, 1970; McLaughlin, 1978; Taylor, 1975). According to Faerch and Kasper (1987) transfer is "a psycholinguistic procedure by means of which L2 learners activate their L1/Ln knowledge in developing or using their interlanguage". Some researchers (e.g. Gass, 1979; Gass and Selinker, 1983; McLaughlin, 1987; O'Malley et al, 1985; Richards, 1974) define transfer as either a learning strategy or a communication strategy.¹ However, when learners fall back on their native language they may try to solve both learning and communication problems, but it may be difficult to say whether a certain feature in the interlanguage is due to a learning strategy or a communication strategy, (Bialystok, 1983; Corder, 1983; Richards and Kennedy, 1977). Transfer may be used as a learning strategy to formulate hypotheses about the target language and as a communication strategy to test these hypotheses. Thus a communication strategy may promote learning through positive or corrective feedback, (Bialystok, 1984; Bialystok and Sherwood Smith, 1985; Corder, 1981; Tarone, 1981, 1983, 1987).

In response to Barnes's (1976) assumption of 'learning by talking', James (1983) says that "one cannot learn a language by talking" because if one can talk in the language,

one knows it already and therefore does not need to learn it. He then comes to the concession that "one can perhaps learn more of a language by speaking and using the parts of it that one already knows". The question is: How does one get the parts one already knows? The simple answer seems to be that one first receives language before producing it since one cannot give what one does not have. This receive-and-produce process then becomes reciprocal and communication continues. Accordingly, one can learn a language by using it, with receiving as a starting point as can be observed in child language acquisition.² Extrapolating from child language acquisition, some second and foreign language teaching methods (e.g. The Silent Way, The Natural Approach, etc...)³ give priority to the development of the receptive skills (i.e. listening and reading) where the learners are expected to build up competence during an initial 'silent period'. Thus learners 'learn' something first, 'use' what they have learned, and 'learn more' by receiving feedback on what they have learned and used. Language learning, then, as Hatch (1978) says, "evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations",. The reciprocal relationship between learning and communication strategies may roughly be represented as follows:

Figure (3)
Learning-Communication Relationship



This circular relationship shows that when a learner generalizes a native or a target language form, switches from the target to the native language, asks for help, or even avoids a topic, he or she may be getting some feedback which will hopefully lead to learning. In other words, he or she will learn by having his or her hypothesis confirmed or modified.

2.3 Interlinguistic Transfer and Creativity

The role of the native language in learning and using the target language has been known for centuries (Selinker, 1984). As Singleton (1987) points out, interlinguistic transfer was a familiar phenomenon before the domination of the behaviourist theory of language learning. The existence of the phenomenon has never been and will never be denied as people continue to learn a second or foreign language after they have mastered a first one. At present, research on this phenomenon seems to have succeeded in transferring the term 'transfer' from the narrow behaviouristic view to be used in a broader sense including all types of carry over from any kind of previous knowledge available to the language learner. Accordingly, reliance on the previously learned parts of the target language is a kind of 'transfer', (see e.g. Andersen, 1983; Brown, 1980; Faerch et al, 1984; Keller-Cohen, 1981; Meisel, 1983; Richards, 1971; Richards, 1983; Seliger, 1988; Van Els et al, 1984). According to Gundel and Tarone (1983)

the term 'transfer' is misleading because of its association with behaviourism and because it obscures the complex interaction between the native language and the target language, and language universals. Association with the behaviourist theory of habit formation is also the reason for which Corder (1983) and Adjemain (1983) reject the use of the term. However, as Kellerman (1984) says 'transfer' should not be dropped from the dictionary of applied linguistics; it can be spared for reference to the general principle of making use of all types of previous knowledge when learning an additional language. Many researchers take pains to stress that transfer from the native language and generalization within the target language are the same in principle. A lot of space, time and effort might be saved for other crucial issues (see e.g. p.56) if the matter is settled by retaining 'transfer' as a useful term referring to the underlying reliance on both the native language and the limited knowledge of the target language. Finocchiaro (1974), for instance, defines transfer as "the ability to use knowledge about a feature of one's native language or of the target language in learning another related feature". Similarly, Marton (1988) defines transfer as the process of

applying already gained knowledge to new areas of language use and may involve both knowledge of the learner's native language and newly acquired (often fragmentary) knowledge of the target language.

Thus, it is under a cover term such as linguistic transfer, both inter-and-intralinguistic, that the creativity of reliance on the native language can be brought into the

awareness of those who see it as a bad old habit leading to the so-called interference, (see e.g. Corder, 1973; Gass, 1984; Kellerman, 1979; Kohn, 1986; Littlewood, 1984; McLanghlin, 1987; Richards, 1971; Sridhar, 1976). The mental effort exerted by the learner to make use of the native language in the process of learning and using the target language cannot simply be referred to as 'interference' when the transferred form does not conform to the target norm. Interference may imply that it is the native language that intrudes into the process of learning the target language, whereas in fact it is invited by the learner in the hope that it facilitates the task of learning or using the target language. Corder (1983) agrees with Gass and Selinker (1983) that the term 'interference' should be avoided because it may imply that interlinguistic transfer inhibits the learning of the target language. Indeed it is the word 'interference' that can be discarded as being associated with the behaviourist theory where the negative effect of interlinguistic transfer is seen as an evil that should be eradicated. Reliance on the native language is not different from "using cooked rice as glue", an example which Dulay and Burt (1977) give in their attempt to explain the notion of creativity. In both cases, (i.e. the lack of glue and the lack of knowledge of the target language form), necessity is the mother of invention, as it were.

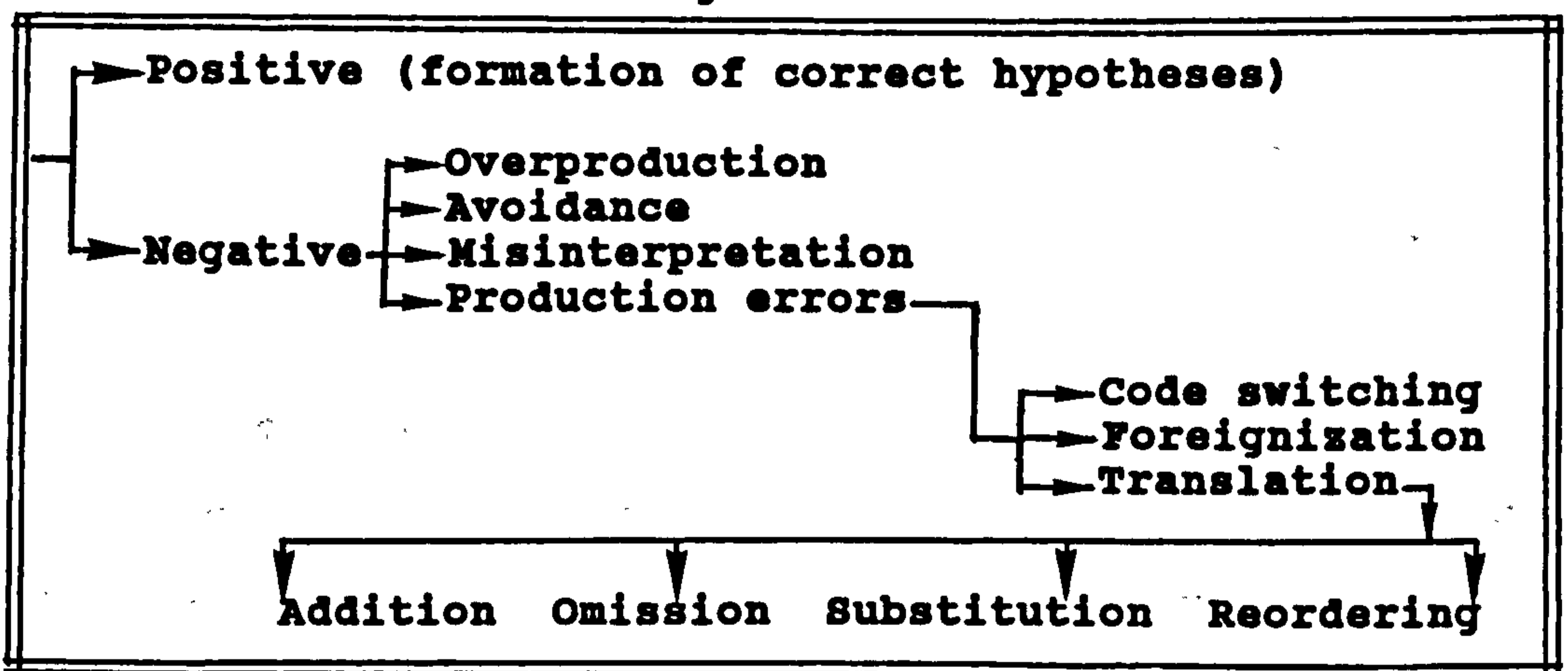
 Marton (1988) differentiates between negative transfer and interference errors. According to him negative transfer errors are due to the formation of incorrect hypotheses on the basis of the

perceived distance between the native and the target language. Interference errors, on the other hand, are the result of forcing the learner to produce the target language forms which have not yet been automatized. However, when the negative influence of the native language is observed in the learner's language, it may be difficult to say whether it is due to negative transfer or interference. Forcing the learner to produce unautomatized forms can also be a reason for the formation of incorrect hypotheses based on the native language. Furthermore the term 'interference' may imply that the learner already knows the correct target language form but the influence of the native language is strong enough to cause problems in the production of that form. As such, interference can be associated with the learning of motor skills such as pronunciation. Many Arabic speakers, for example, pronounce words like 'think, that, paper' as 'sink', 'zat', 'babber' respectively although they 'know' the correct sounds. If they had not known /θ/, /ð/ and /p/, the first two exist in Modern standard Arabic, it might have been a case of negative transfer, that is, falling back on the native language forms to make up for the unknown target forms.

The role of the native language goes beyond facilitation and error to include avoidance of certain target language forms and over-production of some others. As a result, it was necessary for researchers to think of a term which would include these phenomena (Kellerman, 1984). Corder's (1983) 'a role for the mother tongue' and Kellerman and Sharwood-

Smith's (1986) 'crosslinguistic influence' have so far been proposed as cover terms. Positive and negative transfer can then be seen as subcategories under the influence of the native language as follows:

Figure (4)
Crosslinguistic Influence



Research on interlanguage and transfer is on its way to make for a better understanding of some key issues such as what can be transferred, how interlinguistic transfer occurs and how it interacts with other linguistic and non-linguistic factors in shaping the learner's language, (see e.g. Gass and Selinker, 1983; Kellerman and Sharwood-Smith, 1986; McLaughlin, 1987; Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 1987).

2.4 Interlinguistic Transfer and Simplification

Most researchers agree that transfer from the native language and overgeneralization within the target language are two manifestations of one process, (see e.g. Faerch and Kasper, 1986; Gass, 1984; Littlewood, 1984; Richards, 1971; Richards, 1983; Ringbom, 1987; Seliger, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1979). In both cases, second or foreign language learners

fall back on their previous linguistic knowledge, their native language and their interlanguage, in order to simplify the task of learning, not to reduce the target language into a simpler system in the sense of replacing the difficult syntactic and lexical forms by other forms that suit their competence level in the target language (Campbell, 1987). Simplification or reduction of the language by dropping certain elements is only one consequence of transfer from the native or the target language, (Blum-Kulka and Levenston, 1978). It is a result of opting for the maximum amount of learning or communication with the limited number of forms or rules available, (Richards, 1975). The attempt to simplify the learning task by means of interlinguistic and intralinguistic transfer may result in inserting redundant elements as well as in dropping required ones, (Widdowson, 1977). Some researchers (e.g. Meisel, 1983) tend to equate the learners' interlanguage with other types of simplified registers such as telegraphese, motherese and foreigner talk because the missing elements are similar in all cases. Reliance on interlinguistic transfer is rejected as a possible reason for the omission of elements in the interlanguage on the grounds that the same phenomenon is observed in the above mentioned simplified varieties used by adult monolingual native speakers.

However, the reason for the missing elements in the learner's language might be different from that of other simplified varieties where the speaker or writer intentionally drops certain elements from his or her fully

developed language. In other words, simplification resulting from the lack of knowledge of the target language cannot be seen as the same as purposeful simplification since, as Corder (1981) and Wode (1981) point out, learners do not have the complex system which they could simplify. Different reasons may be advanced for the same phenomenon, (Ellis, 1985; Fry, 1983; McDonough, 1981; Ringbom, 1987). Of course children drop elements when acquiring their native language, but they might do so because of their cognitive limitations and their inability to attend to and produce minute linguistic details, (Littlewood, 1984). Children may also simplify due to reliance on their limited linguistic knowledge. The similarity of the elements dropped by children learning their native language to those of adult second or foreign language learners does not seem to be a convincing case to rule out interlinguistic transfer. First, second and foreign language learners all over the world use similar strategies. (see e.g. Chastain, 1976; Dulay and Burt, 1973; Ott et al, 1973). They employ avoidance strategies and linguistic and non-linguistic strategies. The linguistic strategies involve formation and testing of hypotheses based on any kind of previous linguistic knowledge (i.e. linguistic transfer). All learners may rely on the same strategy of linguistic transfer and make identical errors of omission but the previous linguistic knowledge on which they rely may be different. Thus linguistic simplification can be seen as a product of employing learning and communication strategies and not as a separate strategy on the basis of which linguistic transfer is rejected as an

explanation of errors of omission.

Selinker (1972), for example, talks about the causes of errors and presents the question 'what did he intended to say?' as being due to overgeneralization (i.e. intralinguistic transfer), and 'I am hearing him' as being due to simplification. However, these may be examples of transferring irrelevant elements as a result of the learners' attempt to simplify the learning task and not the target language system. The second example, 'I am hearing him', may be an instance of intralinguistic transfer, based on similar forms such as 'I am listening and 'I am speaking'. Since '....did....intend...' and 'I hear....' would be linguistically more reduced than '...did...intended...' and 'I am hearing...', then there seems to be no reason to account for such 'complexifications' in terms of linguistic simplification. Rather, they are due to the simplification of the learning task which is, in most cases, the reason behind all kinds of errors (omission, addition, substitution, reordering) made by language learners. Linguistic simplification can then be clearly distinguished from simplification of learning task, and the various linguistic achievement strategies employed by learners can be seen as bridging steps leading from task simplification to linguistic simplification as one of the outcomes of task simplification.

Appel and Muysken (1987) maintain that intralinguistic or developmental errors are due to reliance on two strategies: simplification and generalization. They

attribute the deletion of articles, auxiliaries, prepositions, personal pronouns, and tense to simplification. They go on to say that "generalization could be viewed as a specific instance of simplification, because it also implies the reduction of the range of possible structures". However, since the deletion of the above elements by Arabic speakers may be due to generalization of their native language features, interlinguistic transfer can be viewed as a strategy resulting in linguistic simplification.

Selinker et al (1975) classify the errors made by English-speaking learners of French into language transfer, overgeneralization, and simplification. According to them, using one form for all tenses is an instance of simplification. Seeing that there is no difference between such errors and those which they classify as due to language transfer or over-generalization, Selinker et al say that simplification is related to language transfer and overgeneralization. They go a step further to say that it may be more fruitful to consider simplification as the 'superordinate strategy' with overgeneralization and transfer as types of simplification. However, this 'superordinate strategy' is the step which the learner takes to solve his learning and communication problems, that is, task simplification.

Mukattash (1981) follows Jain (1974), Selinker (1972) and Richards and Sampson (1974) in an attempt to deemphasise the role of interlinguistic transfer. He presents

simplification as a reason for the omission of the copula by Arabic speakers, (but see Allen, 1970; Mohammed, 1983; Scott and Tucker, 1974; Smith, 1987 Yorkey, 1977). Webber (1981) considers the omission of the copula, among other features, due to interlinguistic transfer as evidence that "a standard form of Arabic English is emerging". Mukattash rejects interlinguistic transfer as an explanation because such an omission is found in the interlanguage of children acquiring English as a mother tongue. He borrows Menyuk's (1974, in Mukattash 1981) and Ravem's (1974) examples: 'Where uncle Nat?, Why you smiling?, What you going to do tomorrow?' However, the omission of the copula in these cases may be due to the children's inability to grasp minor details in the speech of adults, (e.g. the contracted forms of 'is' and 'are'). He gives still another reason based on Richards (1974): similar omissions have been observed in the interlanguage of second or foreign language learners with different native languages. However, as Ellis (1985) says, "the presence of the same error in the speech of learners with a variety of first languages cannot be taken as foolproof evidence that the error is developmental". Wong and Choo (1983) experimented with learners from two different native languages assuming that errors due to interlinguistic transfer would be different while the developmental ones would be shared by all learners. Many of the errors were found to be similar as a result of the similarities between the learners' unrelated native languages.

2.5 Interlinguistic Transfer as an Obligatory Choice

There is a general agreement among second-language acquisition researchers that the mismatch between the communicative goal and the target language knowledge (i.e. the linguistic means falling short of achieving communicative ends) is a reason for reliance on the interlinguistic transfer strategy, depending on the typological similarities between the native and the target language.⁴ By virtue of cognitive maturity and mastery of the native language, adult foreign language learners may want to talk or write about complex topics, something which they can fairly easily do in their native language. In the face of the lack of the requisite knowledge of the target language, reliance on the interlinguistic transfer strategy, among other strategies, is one way to compensate for the inadequacies. In formal classroom learning situations, the learner is often not allowed to use other compensatory strategies which the language learners use in naturalistic learning environments, (see Corder, 1978). The following is a summary of the learning and communication strategies presented by Bialystok (1990), Bialystok and Frohlich (1980), Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1978), Corder (1981), Ellis (1985), Ellis and Sinclair (1989), Ervin (1979), Faerch and Kasper (1980, 1984), Littlewood (1984), Palmberg (1984), Poulisse, Bongaerts and Kellerman (1984), Ringbom (1987), Si-Qing (1990), Tarone (1977), and Wilkins (1985):

- I. Avoidance (=reduction) strategies
 - A. Topic avoidance
 - B. Message adjustment (=formal/functional reduction)
- II. Achievement (=compensatory, resource expansion) strategies
 - A. Linguistic Strategies
 - 1. Interlinguistic (=L1-based) strategies
 - a) Literal translation (=transfer)
 - b) Foreignization (=phonological/morphological modification)
 - c) Code switching (=language shift, borrowing)
 - 2. Intralinguistic (=L2-based) strategies
 - a) Overgeneralization (=approximation, analogy)
 - b) Paraphrase (=definition, description, exemplification)
 - c) Word coinage
 - d) Restructuring
 - B. Non-linguistic strategies
 - 1. Gesture (=mime)
 - 2. Direct and indirect appeal for assistance
 - 3. Sound imitation
 - 4. Waiting to recall

Since formal language teaching strives for achievement, the learners are usually not allowed to employ avoidance strategies as long as the classroom activities are controlled by the teacher. The use of non-linguistic strategies such as gesture, appeal for assistance and sound imitation is associated with oral communication. When adult learners are asked to express themselves orally, they usually prefer resorting to silence to fooling themselves, as they might think, by using such non-linguistic strategies. The use of

intralinguistic (i.e. L2-based) strategies requires a relatively high degree of proficiency in the target language, (see Si-Qing, 1990). Reliance on intralinguistic strategies increases with the increase in proficiency in the target language. Strategies such as paraphrasing, restructuring and word coinage require relatively richer linguistic resources to draw upon. For low-proficiency learners, the use of such strategies would be like jumping from the frying pan into the fire. Overgeneralization seems to be the least demanding of the intralinguistic strategies in the sense that many correct and incorrect target language forms can be produced simply by transferring the most frequent morphemes such as the past tense 'ed', the plural 's', the past participle 'en' and the negative 'un'. In error analyses carried out by the present writer (Mohammed, 1983, and in the present study, see Appendix H), most of the intralinguistic (i.e. L2-based) errors made by the Sudanese learners of English were due to overgeneralization as distinct from interlinguistic transfer (i.e. L1-based).

The group of strategies that seem to be readily available to most of the Sudanese learners of English are the interlinguistic (i.e. L1-based) ones. Cases of foreignization and code switching are relatively rare, may be, for the same reason that prevents the use of avoidance and non-linguistic strategies. Another reason may be that the learners realize that the resulting forms would not be English. Unlike the non-linguistic strategies, foreignization and code switching can be used in both oral

and written communication.⁵ It is normal for the Sudanese teachers who mark the free compositions in the Secondary School Certificate Examinations to find cases of topic avoidance due to the lack of knowledge of English. Some students were observed writing full or parts of Sudanese songs expressing their frustration and negative attitudes towards the English language and the teacher.⁶

Literal translation is the interlinguistic strategy that is most frequently employed by the Sudanese learners of English. In the absence of the other strategies, the role of translation becomes prominent. As Kohn (1986) says, it is an important factor that shapes the learners' interlanguage. Researchers (e.g. Corder, 1973; Ellis, 1984; James, 1983; Kellerman, 1979; Poulisse et al, 1984; Ringbom, 1987) define this interlinguistic transfer strategy as the creative cognitive process of making use of the knowledge of the native language to simplify the task of learning and communicating in the target language.

2.6 Transfer from Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Colloquial Arabic (CA)

As far as the distance between the native and the target language is concerned, learners are often misled by the partial similarities between the two languages. There are concepts and forms shared by both languages as there are language specific ones. According to the markedness differential hypothesis, language-neutral (i.e. unmarked)

features are more prone to be transferred than language specific ones (see e.g. Appel and Muysken, 1987; Eckman, 1977, 1985; James, 1981; Keller-Cohen, 1981). However, the transferability of a native language form to the target language cannot be fully predicted on the basis of linguistic markedness. It is the awareness of psychological factors, rather than the linguistic ones, that has led researchers to talk of 'perceived' distance and 'psycholinguistic' markedness, (see e.g. Jordens, 1977; Kellerman, 1977, 1979, 1983). In the case of Arabic, the problem is further complicated by the fact that there are two main varieties of Arabic: modern standard Arabic (MSA) and colloquial Arabic (CA). There are numerous differences at all linguistic levels between the two varieties, (Hussein, 1971; Shouby, 1951; Sieni, 1982 Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzic, 1983; Vildomec, 1963; Yorkey, 1977).

Sudanese students, like other Arab students, learn English after they have mastered CA as a mother tongue. They start learning MSA as an official language at the elementary level. In this respect, Cowan (1968) says "colloquial Arabic...is what native speakers of Arabic are native speakers of. No Arab is a native speaker of modern standard Arabic". The question that has not yet been answered is: which variety of Arabic do learners rely on to learn or use English or any other foreign language? If the degree of proficiency is an important factor (see Ringbom, 1983, 1987), then it may be theoretically sound to maintain that Arab students transfer from CA since it is the variety which they acquire as a mother tongue (see Macmillan, 1970). There is,

on the other hand, the possibility of reliance on MSA rather than on CA for two reasons: the status of MSA; and the context in which it is learnt. In terms of status, MSA is the official language of the Arab countries and is, therefore, superior to CA. Learners may avoid transferring from the inferior variety (i.e. CA) to English which is an international language. As far as the context of learning is concerned, both MSA and English are learned in a formal classroom situation. Since CA is acquired naturally and informally, learners, having no conscious knowledge of its structure and how it works, may tend to believe that it does not have rules. Consequently, it is MSA that may be thought to be comparable with English in terms of the explicit knowledge about the language made available through formal classroom instruction. Thus, even if the learners are more familiar with CA than with MSA, it is still possible that they transfer from MSA in an attempt to "use a thief to catch a thief" as Sharwood-Smith (1979) says.

Scott and Tucker (1974) hypothesize that learners transfer from MSA when writing and from CA when speaking in English. However, there are errors in the written English of Arabic-speaking students which can be attributed to transfer from CA, (e.g. the use of the definite article instead of relative pronouns, see page 71). The assumption that learners transfer from CA when speaking may be justified if CA is seen as more readily available than MSA under the time pressure inherent in unplanned oral communication.

Arab learners' reliance on interlinguistic transfer cannot hurriedly be explained away in favour of other strategies since errors which do not seem to be due to transfer from CA can be due to transfer from MSA and vice versa. For instance, the error in 'I met him by yesterday' could be due to transfer from MSA and not CA. Had the learner followed CA, he might not have added 'by'. The error in 'many people refuse to leave their daughters, sisters and wives to go out to work' could be due to transfer from CA since in Sudanese CA, one word, 'yixalli', can be used instead of two in MSA and English: 'yuḏa:dir' (=to leave) and 'yatruk' (= to let). The error in 'She is used to be treated as a commodity from she was born' could be attributed to transfer from CA. The word 'from' might have been used as equivalent to 'min' in CA. If the student had transferred 'munḏu' from MSA, he might not have made an error.

Addressing the Arabic-speakers problems in forming Wh-questions in English, Mukattash (1981) presents these two examples: 'When our friends will arrive?, When will arrive our friends?'. The questions were produced by 90 and 13 students respectively. According to Mukattash "it is not clear at all which of these two deviant questions is a case of L1 interference, if they are at all". Although he observes that the word order in 'When our friends will arrive?' reflects the structure of both MSA and Jordanian CA, he tends to reject interlinguistic transfer as an explanation on the basis of similar questions he quotes from Menyuk (1969) and Dulay and Burt (1974) as being produced by

children learning English as a mother tongue. However, as far as Sudanese CA is concerned, both, not only one, of the deviant questions can be due to interlinguistic transfer. The first reflects the structure of Sudanese CA and the second reflects that of MSA as follows:

	When	our friends	will arrive?
CA:	mite:n	?asdiɡa:na	yisalu?
	When	will arrive	our friends?
MSA:	mata	sa yasalu	?asdiɡa:?una?

From the examples presented above, it is clear that knowledge of the learners' native language with its different varieties is an advantage for the error analyst. An analysis based on partial knowledge of CA or MSA, or on complete knowledge of only one variety may not be reliable. The analyses undertaken by native speakers of Arabic may still be unreliable if the learners speak different subdialects of CA unknown to the analyst (e.g. Shaigiya, Rubatab, Jaaliyin, etc..in Sudan). Further complications arise from the fact that in Sudan there are at least 300 different local languages learned as a mother tongue in different parts of the country (e.g. Nubian in the North, Hadandawa in the East, Fellata in the West, and Deinka, Shuluk and Niewir in the South). Some of these languages have dialects. For example, Dongolawi, Mahas and Halfawi are three dialects of the Nubian language.

In a pilot test administered for the purpose of the

present study, 50 third year secondary school students were asked to translate two versions of an Arabic passage, MSA and CA, into English, (Appendix G). The two versions were equal in length and each contained 14 relative clauses. There was a two-week time gap between the two translations. The CA version was randomly chosen to be given first. For each student, the number of relative clauses he or she produced in each version was counted. The total number of the relative clauses translated from MSA was 332 and from CA was 346. The means of the relative clauses produced in each case (MSA 6.64, CA 6.96) were compared using the matched pair two-tailed t test. The difference between the two means was found to be nowhere near significant ($t=1.155$, $df=49$, $p>.20$). This finding seems to show that Arabic speaking learners of English can transfer relative clauses from both versions of Arabic. However, since this finding is based on translation, which is a kind of controlled writing, the question still remains: which version of Arabic is it that the learners transfer from in free writing?

Tadros (1966) analysed the interlinguistic errors in the free written English of 236 Sudanese secondary school students. As far as relativization is concerned, she observed three types of errors:

- (1) redundant subject and object personal pronouns
- (2) omission of the relative pronoun

- (3) use of the definite article instead of relative pronouns.

She did not refer to the possible variety or varieties of Arabic underlying such errors. However, the first two types of error can be attributed to transfer from either MSA or CA since both varieties share the same features: a subject personal pronoun is suffixed to the verb in addition to the subject noun; an object personal pronoun appears in the object relative clause in addition to the relative pronoun, and no relative pronoun is used if the head noun is indefinite.

Examples:

1. ?al rija:lu ?allaði:n qa:balna:hum yaskunu:na
fi....(MSA)

?al rija:l ?al qa:balna:hum biyiskunu
fi....(CA)

The men whom met we them live they in.

2. rija:lun qa:balna:hum yaskunu:na fi.....(MSA)

rija:l ga:balna:hum biyiskunu fi.....(CA)

Men met we them live they in.....

The third type of error - use of the definite article instead of the relative pronoun - can unambiguously be attributed to transfer from CA where the form '?al', identical to the Arabic definite article, is used, probably, as a short form of the relative pronouns '?allaði:, ?allati' in MSA.

Example :

3. ʔal rija:l ʔal ga:balna:hum(CA)
 The men the met we them.....

Thus it can be said that Arabic-speaking learners of English transfer various features from the different varieties of Arabic depending on the distance between these varieties and English. Accordingly, it seems to be necessary for explanatory interlinguistic comparisons to take the different varieties of Arabic into account, depending on the variety or varieties to which the error in question could be attributed.

2.7 Magnitude of Interlinguistic Transfer

The magnitude of the role of the native language in second or foreign language learning is still a point of debate. Dulay and Burt (1972, 1973, 1974, 1975, 1977) and their followers de-emphasize the role of the native language in favour of a 'creative construction hypothesis' proposed as a reaction against the behaviourist habit interference theory. However, Dulay and Burt's hypothesis does not seem to have gained grounds. Their claims have been criticised by many researchers, (see page 78). Adjemian (1976), for example, believes that the first language 'invades' the interlanguage. According to Stern (1983) the first language is 'inevitably dominant' in the mind of the learner. Merio

(1978) and Juhasz (1970) agree that the influence of the first language is 'comprehensive'. Shaheen (1984) describes it as 'very strong' and Fry (1983) as ' a major factor'. Ringbom (1987) believes that it occupies a 'central place'. According to Veronique (1984) reliance on the first language is 'one of the most frequently used' learning and communication strategies. The claims advanced by both the proponents and opponents of the role of the first language seem to be based only on the analysis of the learners' production errors. The following table presents some of the studies attempting to quantify production errors made due to negative interlinguistic transfer.

Table(3)

**Percentages of the Interlinguistic Errors
Reported in Various Studies**

Sheen (1980)	74%
Mougeon and Hebrard (1975)	70%
Richards (1971)	53%
Mohammed (the present study)	53%
Tran-Thi-Chau (1975)	51%
Sah (1971)	50%
Arabski (1968) (Excluding Articles 23%) ⁷	50%
Schumann (1981)	50%
Lott (1983)	50%
Mohammed (1983)	50%
Pietropauto-Saura and Roffe (1985)	49%
Grauberg (1971)	36%
Lance (1969)	approx 33%
Brudhiprabha (1972)	" 33%
George (1972)	" 33%
Flick (1980)	31%
Mukattash (1977)	23%
White (1977)	21%
Dulay and Burt (1973)	3%
James (1980)	between 33 and 50%
Littlewood (1984)	between 33 and 50%

Although such percentages may not be sufficient for language acquisition research purposes, (Kellerman, 1984), however, they are important for pedagogical purposes where

avoidance and over-production are not considered as serious as production errors. Needless to say, the percentage of the interlinguistic errors detected can be affected by a number of factors:

1. The learning environment, that is, whether the target language is a second or a foreign language. It is generally believed that the influence of the native language is stronger in foreign than in second language learning contexts. In other words, acquisition—poor environments invite more reliance on the interlinguistic transfer strategy than do acquisition-rich environments.
2. The analyst's level of proficiency in the learners' native language. For experienced foreign-language teachers who share their learners' native language it is easy to identify the native language features in the interlanguage, (Brown, 1980; Davies, 1983; Jackson, 1981; Sridhar, 1976; Wilkins, 1972).
3. The level of linguistic analysis; phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and so forth. It is generally agreed that the influence of the native language is dominant at the phonological level.
4. The theoretical stance on which the analysis is based. The role of the native language has been trivialized by researchers (e.g. Richards, 1985) adopting 'a non-

contrastive approach' or L1=L2 hypothesis' (Dulay and Burt, 1972, 1974). In the light of these approaches, many interlinguistic errors have been classified as intralinguistic or ambiguous. Richards (1985), for example, collects about 125 errors from different researchers and different native languages and presents them as intralinguistic or developmental as opposed to interlinguistic errors. However, similar errors have been observed in the written English of Arabic-speaking learners of English (Mohammed, 1983), and about 42% of the 125 errors could possibly be due to transfer from Arabic. Dulay and Burt (1973) go further and cast an element of doubt on interlinguistic errors by describing them as 'interference-like' errors. On the other hand, research seems to have gone a long way towards the accommodation of interlinguistic transfer in a cognitive creative approach to language learning, (see e.g. Andersen, 1983; Gundel, Stensen and Tarone, 1984; Ho, 1986; Kellerman, 1979; Zobl, 1980). This will hopefully reconcile the transfer position with the anti-transfer position.

5. The procedure used to elicit the data together with the 'observer paradox', a term which Taylor (1986) quotes from Labov (1972, in Taylor, 1986) to refer to the intervention of the analyst in the collection of data. The most frequently used techniques for the elicitation of interlanguage are free composition and translation. Free composition is believed to have the disadvantage of

giving room for avoidance, (see e.g. Lococo, 1976; McKeating, 1981; Schachter, 1974) and translation is thought to increase interlinguistic transfer, (see e.g. Meisel, 1983; Poulisse et al, 1984; Richards, 1983; Ringbom, 1987; Taylor, 1975; Van Els et al, 1984). Moreover, Johansson (1975) points out that the learner may avoid an error by an inexact translation or a translation that is correct from the point of view of the target language but is an incorrect translation of the original text. Nickel (1989) argues that translation does not necessarily result in more interlinguistic transfer errors than free composition because students realize that "translations do contain transfer temptations". However, translation may be better than free composition when focusing on specific linguistic forms, (Faerch et al, 1984; Lococo, 1976; Zydatiss, 1974). In order to eliminate the intervention of the analyst, Taylor (1986) and Mukattash (1986) suggest using data produced for someone else other than the analyst. This, however, is a solution which Johansson (1975) considers as a serious limitation in error analysis. He believes that the data will not reveal much relevant information if the test is constructed for other purposes than explaining learners' errors. Based on the present writer's experience in teaching English for specific purposes, the essays written for teachers of other subjects (e.g. Chemistry, Biology, Economics etc...) may not serve the purpose of error analysis for two reasons:

- (1) the learners may produce memorized sentences, paragraphs, or even whole essays. This is a way for limited proficiency learners to get around the language barrier. As a result, the errors made by such learners may be far less than those made by more proficient learners who try to spontaneously express the ideas in their own language;

- (2) the learners may produce telegraphic sentences (i.e. content words without structure words) which, they think, will be quite enough to show the teacher that they know what they are expected to know. The learners' tendency to produce telegraphic sentences often seems to be overlooked by subject-matter teachers in English-medium universities in their quest for facts. Furthermore, there are teachers who prefer telegraphic answers to full sentences containing language errors. Thus, concentration on the facts is achieved at the expense of the language.

Dulay and Burt's (1973) study, in which only three percent of the errors were reported to be due to interlinguistic transfer, has been criticised by many researchers for various methodological and other problems affecting the reliability of the results. The very small percentage may be due to the fact that the data were collected from children in a second language learning context where exposure to the target language is greater than in a

foreign language learning context, (see also Seliger, 1988). As Kellerman (1984) points out, Dulay and Burt tried to analyse errors in a way that would support their creative construction hypothesis where many errors in the target language would be classified as 'developmental' and not as interlinguistic, simply because they are similar to those made by children who learn the language as a mother tongue. White (1977) notes that a number of errors which were classified as 'developmental' would not be developmental at all. Interlinguistic errors might have also been classified as ambiguous, and in case of ambiguity, the benefit of doubt was given to developmental factors, (Singleton, 1987; Wode, 1981). According to Appel and Muysken (1987) "cross sectional data were interpreted longitudinally". Schumann (1974) and Zobl (1980) maintain that the results were based on a limited number of grammatical structures less susceptible to the influence of the native language than the other aspects of the language. Abbott (1980) says that Dulay and Burt did not explain how they grouped the errors into the four categories of (1) interference-like, (2) developmental, (3) ambiguous, and (4) unique errors. He also says that they did not admit that half of the developmental errors could also be due to transfer from the native language. Ringbom (1987) believes that the influence of the native language might have been positive (i.e. facilitative) for Spanish-speaking subjects whereas for the Chinese it could be reflected in avoidance depending on the perceived distance between the native and the target language.

In a foreign language learning situation like that of English in Sudan, where the most basic requirements of teaching and learning are hardly met, the learners may not be able to attain even in intermediate level of proficiency after six years of classroom language instruction (see earlier Section 1.2). As a result, reliance on the native language is a major achievement strategy. In such a situation, a very small percentage of interlinguistic errors such as that reported by Dulay and Burts would be unrealistic. It would be normal to find a percentage of 50 or more in the English of Sudanese intermediate and secondary school students (5 to 6 hours of English per week) since 50% were found to have been made by university students after attending a remedial language course (6 hours per week) together with exposure to English through other subjects (10 to 15 hours per week) for four months, (see Mohammed, 1983).

2.8 Interlinguistic Transfer and Classification of Errors

A most important characteristic of the learners' interlanguage is that it is a continuum which starts from zero knowledge of the target language and proceeds towards the adults' full fledged language through transitional stages. It passes from one stage to another through the process of hypotheses formulation and testing. Thus linguistic development is achieved through confirmation of the correct hypotheses and modification of the incorrect ones. The errors resulting from incorrect hypotheses are,

therefore, a natural part of the developmental process. They tend to decrease irrespective of their underlying strategies as the learners' competence in the language increases, (Ellis, 1985; Faerch et al, 1984; Keller-Cohen, 1979). Thus, most of the learners' errors, whether interlinguistic or intralinguistic, are developmental in nature in the sense that they are eradicated over time with increased proficiency in the language. Accordingly, instead of classifying errors as interlinguistic versus developmental, or intralinguistic versus developmental (e.g. Dulay and Burt, 1974; Ervin-Tripp, 1974; Richards, 1971; Schachter, 1983), the term 'developmental' can be used to refer to errors which do not fossilize irrespective of their underlying strategies. Richards (1971, 1985), for example, considers as developmental those errors which reflect the strategies whereby learners acquire a language; those illustrating how learners attempt to build up hypotheses about the target language. In this sense, however, it is difficult to see any difference between such errors and those made due to linguistic transfer. Based on the linguistic strategies of learning and communication, the learners' errors are either interlinguistic, intralinguistic or both. Since learners employ these and other strategies to develop their interlanguage, then the term 'developmental' can be used as a cover term including errors made and corrected in the process of developing the native, second or foreign language.

The most widely documented reasons for the systematic errors made by second or foreign language learners are:

reliance on interlinguistic transfer, and reliance on intralinguistic transfer, (see e.g. Chaudron, 1988; Dommergues and Lane, 1976; James, 1972; Kharma, 1981; Littlewood, 1984; Sah, 1971; Scott and Tucker, 1974; Titone and Donesi, 1985; White, 1977; Wode, 1981). In addition, some researchers (e.g. Brown, 1980; Cowan, 1983; Pica, 1984; Selinker, 1972; Schumann and Stenson, 1974) propose learning and communication strategies as reasons. However, these do not seem to have added anything new since inter-and-intralinguistic transfer is the strategy whereby learners try to fill in their linguistic voids when learning and using the target language. The number of errors under such redundant categories can be included in the two major categories of transfer so that their actual weight can be reflected. Lococo (1976), for example, classifies errors under six categories as follows:

	No. of Errors
Interlingual: (L1 rule applied)	69
Intralingual :(Wrong L2 rule applied)	192
Dual: (No L1 rule,L2 rule = No rule applied)	121
Lack of transfer:(L1 Rule,L2 Rule = No Rule applied)	11
Communicative:(attempting a form not yet taught)	101
Overlap:(related to two or more sources)	33
TOTAL	527

According to her criteria for classification; the six categories can be reduced to only three because 'dual' and 'lack of transfer' appear to be the same as 'interlingual' and 'intralingual' respectively. A moment's reflection on how

learners attempt to compensate for the unknown forms would have led Lococo to subsume 'communicative' errors under interlingual, intralingual, or overlap errors. If the total number of the errors she found in the free compositions and translations (i.e. 527) were grouped under three categories, the interlingual errors would amount to 36% instead of 13% (i.e. 190 instead of 69), and the intralingual errors would increase by 3% only (i.e. from 192, 36% to 203, 39%). The same observation may apply to White's (1977) categories labelled 'interference', 'developmental', 'ambiguous', and 'other errors'. She refers to 'other errors' as 'interlanguage errors', as if the so-called interference and developmental errors are not interlanguage errors. She classifies 60% of the errors as developmental simply because they resemble those produced by children learning the language as a mother tongue, (see page 61 for an argument against this criterion, and page 81 for an argument against describing only certain errors as developmental).

A category that can reasonably be added to the two major categories (of interlinguistic and intralinguistic transfer) is the one which covers the errors which learners make due to faulty presentation by the teacher or the materials designer, (see also Broughton et al, 1980). This category is variously referred to as 'transfer of training', (e.g. Cowan, 1983; Selinker, 1972; Sridhar, 1976); 'poor, inadequate, or misleading teaching' (e.g. Kharma, 1981; Lott, 1983; Pica, 1984); 'induced errors' (Stenson, 1974); 'sequencing of teaching items' (Esser, 1980); 'linear progression' (Lott,

1983); 'the exigencies of the teaching learning situation' (Schumann and Stenson, 1974); 'context of learning' (Brown, 1980).

Broughton et al (1980) suggest three categories of errors according to their causes: (1) learner-external factors such as bad teaching and poor materials, (2) the learning process (3) mother tongue interference. Although they believe that learning is a process of hypotheses testing and that the learner makes a guess on the basis of his knowledge of his mother tongue and of what he knows of the foreign language, they exclude interlinguistic transfer errors from those resulting from the learning process; they use the term 'interference' which expresses the behaviourist attitude towards the role of the native language. Similarly, Dubin and Olshtain (1977) exclude interlinguistic transfer from the other strategies shaping the learners' interlanguage.

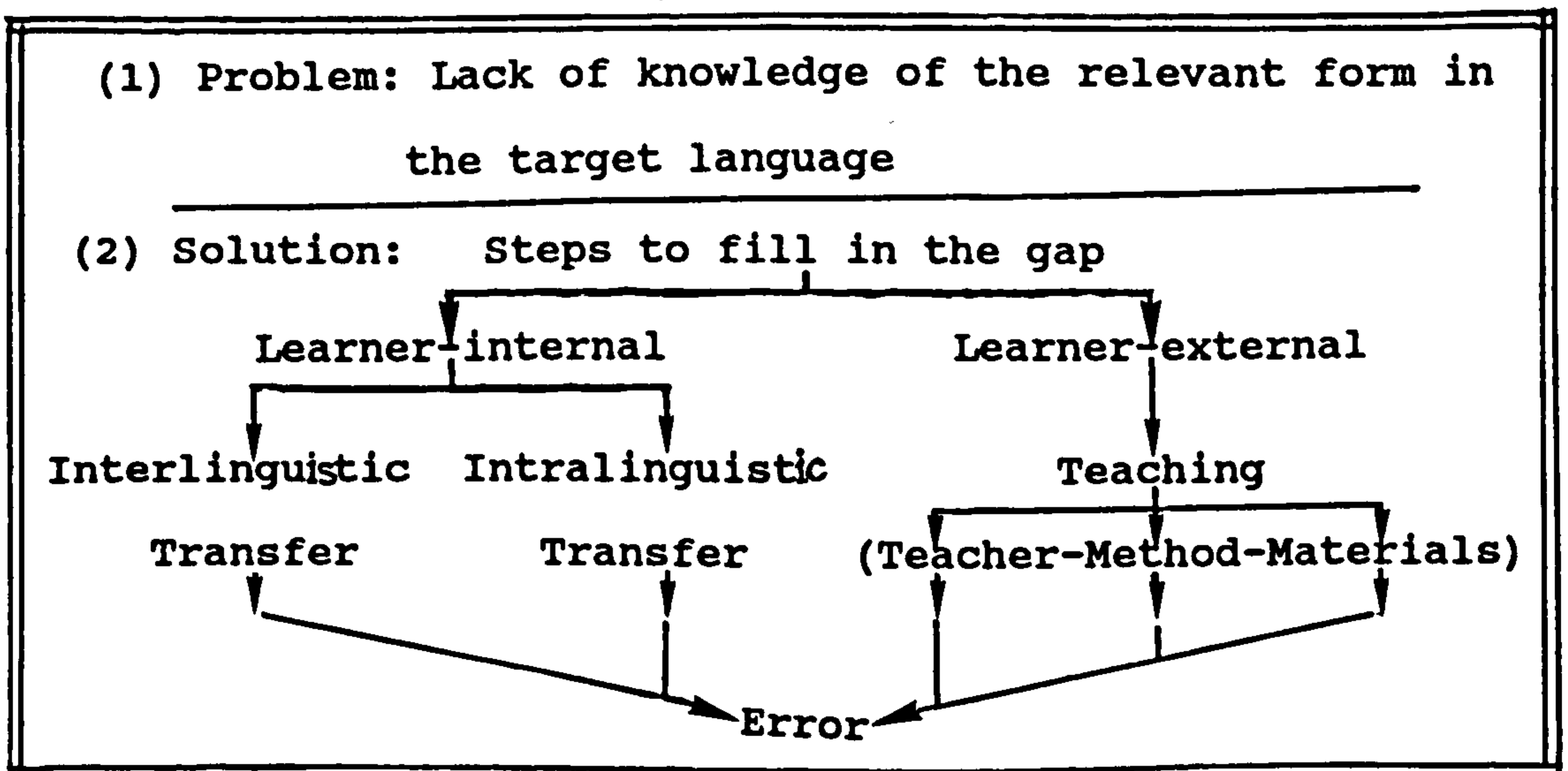
However, the native language is available to the foreign language learners as a source of previous knowledge on the basis of which they form and test their hypotheses about the target language and, therefore, it is one of the learner-internal factors leading to errors and non-errors in the learning process. Thus, the three categories presented by Broughton et al can be reduced to two: (1) learner-external factors including teaching methods and materials, (2) learner-internal factors including linguistic transfer from the native language and the limited knowledge of the target language. Since learners make production errors in their

attempts to fill in the linguistic gaps in their target language, then there is essentially one cause of errors: the lack of knowledge of the relevant form in the target language, or 'ignorance' as Newmark (1966) says. The learner-external and learner-internal factors presented as causes of errors are in fact the steps taken by the teacher, the textbook writer and the learners themselves to make up for the deficiency in the learners' knowledge of the target language.

Perhaps a suitable error-classification scheme seems to be the one that is suggested by Faerch et al (1984). According to them, there are only two categories: (1) 'direct', learner-internal factors, (2) 'indirect', learner-external factors. The various classification procedures suggested so far by different error analysts can be reduced and represented in the following two-stage procedure:

Figure (5)

Types of Errors



1. Learner's target language construction:

From psychological side, which I see it most important from the sociological, she feel that she is important person.

2. Arabic construction:

min ?al na:ħya ?al nafsiyya, ?allati ?ara:ha
?aham min ?al na:ħya ?al ?ijtima:fiyya, hiya tař-
ur ?annaha ?insa:na muhimma.

3. Literal translation into English:

From the side the psychological, which/whom I see it/her more/most important from/than the side the sociological/social, she feels that she person important

The interlinguistic errors would be:

1. The redundant pronoun 'it' in the relative clause modifying an object noun.
2. The use of the superlative 'most' instead of the comparative 'more', since only one form (?aham) is used in Arabic.
3. The use of 'from' in the comparative construction

instead of 'than', both are 'min' in Arabic.

4. The use of 'sociological' instead of 'social' since one Arabic word is used for both.
5. The omission of the indefinite article 'an' before the noun 'person', Arabic uses a zero form.

The errors which would not be interlinguistic are:

1. The omission of the definite article 'the' before 'psychological side' since there is '?al' in Arabic.
2. The omission of the third person singular 's' from the verb 'feels' since Arabic and English are orthographically totally different.

Some researchers believe that Corder's algorithm is difficult to apply in practice. Abbott (1980), for example, maintains that it "does not specify a workable procedure". However, as far as the distinction between interlinguistic and intralinguistic errors is concerned, an analyst who knows the native language of the learners will find such an algorithm of great help to arrive at sound explanations for most of the ambiguous errors. In Corder's (1981) words, "we can make a correct plausible interpretation of the great majority of the erroneous sentences produced by learners,

particularly if we are familiar with them and with their mother tongue". Van Els et al (1984) see the time factor as a problem since the learner may forget what he intended to say as the time gap between the error and consultation increases. However, an analyst sharing the learners' native language and culture may not need to refer to the learner at all. Immediate consultation with the learner is, of course, one solution. Another solution which the present writer found useful is to ask the learners to write a composition in their native language first and then express the same ideas in the target language. The compositions written in the native language should be collected with the target ones for reference in cases of difficulty of interpretation. This kind of 'guided composition' is in line with the learners tendency to think in the native language and write in the target language, (see page 101). It also solves the problem of what to say and leaves the learners with the problem of how to express their own ideas.

NOTES

1. Oxford and Crookall (1989) believe that 'communication strategies' is a misnomer because it refers only to the strategies used when speaking. They point out that communication takes place in reading, listening and writing as well as in speaking. However, this does not mean that the term 'communication' should be rejected, rather it can be used as a cover term referring to oral and written, and productive and receptive skills.
2. For empirical evidence supporting the common sense view that comprehension develops before production see e.g. Bloom (1970), Carrow (1968), Faerch et al (1983), Lee (1970), Postovsky (1974).
3. Some other comprehension-based approaches are (1) The Tan-Gau method introduced by Gauthier (1963). The teacher uses the target language and the learners respond in the mother tongue until they are ready to speak in the target language. (2) The optimized Habit Reinforcement developed by Winitz and Reeds (1971) where the meaning of the foreign language forms are conveyed by pictorial events. (3) The total Physical Response method developed by Asher (1965, 1966, 1969, 1972).
4. Si-Qing (1990) reported that although low-proficiency Chinese learners of EFL employed much more communication strategies than did high-proficiency learners, the great distance between Chinese and English reduced the learners' tendency to use L1-based strategies "because they realized that these strategies will not work for them".
5. The following are some of the cases which the present writer observed in translations done by Sudanese secondary school students for the purpose of the present study. Observation of all cases revealed that students tend to use code switching more than foreignization. This may be because not all Arabic words accept English affixes (all cases observed were Arabic nouns given the English plural's') or may be because students think that code switching, especially writing Arabic words using English letters, would be more acceptable than a mixture of Arabic and English letters in one word. This area of interlinguistic transfer needs further investigation.

Foreignization:

* El-dwals which migrants go to her El-dwal Arabic rich.
(dwal + s = countries + s)

* There some mushkilas which ill people cause them to me.
(mushkila +s = problem + s)

Code switching:

a - Arabic words, English letters:

The countries it go her migrants they are countries Arabic El-ganyh. They are mashakil kathira causing her the migration.

(El-ganyh = rich, mashakil = problems, kathira = many)

b - Arabic words, Arabic letters:

Migration her one subject التي speak عنك people days. الارب التي يذهب اليها migrator her الارب Arab rich لنا تشبيرا كثيره مشاكل هناك هذه migration. One هذه الاربه عليهم تعتمد الزيم العمال lose qualified اننا المشاكل (Arabic words arranged from left to right)

6. For example:

رحلت عذاب دأبها أنتهت

(A journey of torture's just come to an end)

ليه تافخ نرجع من جديد

(Why do we go back again)

صدقني ما بقدر أعيد

(Believe me I can't go through it again)

In 1981 the present writer participated in marking the free compositions in the Secondary School Certificate Examination and came across a full page of Arabic written, strangely enough, from left to right. The lack of knowledge of English was expressed in the first two lines as a reason for writing in Arabic. The rest of the composition was devoted to only one reason for the lack of knowledge of English: the teacher, who, as the student said, had been a disaster.

7. Arabski's reason for not counting article errors as due to interlinguistic transfer is not convincing. He believes that if there are no articles in the native language, their omission in the target language cannot be attributed to transfer because there is nothing to transfer. However, a more comprehensive view of the role of the native language in learning a second or foreign language would include both achievement and avoidance. Like errors of addition, substitution and reordering, errors of omission may be due to the influence of the native language.

CHAPTER THREE

THE ROLE OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

3.1 The Use of the Native Language: Purposes, Conditions and Advantages

Although the role of the native language in second or foreign language learning has been noticed throughout the modern history of language teaching, its usefulness in teaching has remained a point of debate. In some teaching methods, the use of the native language in the classroom is considered an indispensable aid (e.g. Grammar-Translation, Community Language Learning and Suggestopedia); in some other methods it is not allowed (e.g. The Direct Method, The Audio-lingual Method), yet in other methods it is neither encouraged nor totally banned (e.g. The Silent Way and The Communicative Approach), (see e.g. Doggett 1986, Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989 Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Attitudes towards the use of the native language vary even among teachers using the same method with a homogeneous group of learners. Some teachers see it as a taboo while some others believe that it can occasionally be called on. Yet some others feel that they cannot do without it, (Larsen-Freeman, 1987).

As discussed earlier, not all of the problems in second or foreign language learning are due to the influence of the native language, and that there are cases where the use of the native language is a short cut to teaching and learning. As such, it would be nowhere near practical to stick to an

extreme view, especially when teaching is viewed in terms of what has so far been revealed in language acquisition research about language learning strategies. According to Kharma and Hajjaj (1989)

Changing climates across history.....could reflect changing needs but not necessarily changing strategies of learning. One such strategy that has persisted is the use of the mother tongue.

Second and foreign language teaching research is rich in recommendations in favour of making use of the native language in the classroom for various purposes at the different stages of the lesson. The following are some of the purposes frequently suggested:

1. Giving instructions in activities and tests, and for classroom management, (see e.g. Finocchiaro, 1977; Nolasco and Arther, 1988).
2. Establishing contact and an atmosphere of relaxation, warming up learners for a new activity, and establishing context for the communicative use of the target language (see e.g. Atkinson, 1987).
3. Checking comprehension.
4. Teaching study skills (e.g. Summary writing, see Mohammed, 1988).

5. Explaining the meaning of some unfamiliar grammatical and lexical items (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989).
6. Teaching pronunciation (e.g. The Key Word Method, see e.g. Oxford, 1985; Oxford and Crookall, 1989; Politzer et al, 1982, 1983).
7. Comparing and contrasting the grammatical structures of the native and target language. (see e.g. Marton, 1981; Michaelides, 1990; Ur, 1988).
8. Comparing the native and target texts to facilitate comprehension (see e.g. Hague, 1987; Urgese, 1987).
9. Teaching reading techniques and strategies (see e.g. Alderson, 1984; Coady, 1979; Jolly, 1978).
10. Role playing (see e.g. Piasecka, 1988).

The use of the native language in the second or foreign language classroom is believed to have the advantage of arousing the learners' sympathy. Lee (1983) says, it "reassures them that the teacher is on their side...it suggests that he is trying to see things from their viewpoint". It is also maintained that the use of the native language helps in increasing language awareness by having

the learners think about their own language when learning another language, (Collingham, 1988, Lee, 1983). The use of the native language may also bring about a sense of security, particularly in learning situations where the learners are psychologically inclined to feel as if they have been pushed into a world where everything looks strange to them, (see also Finocchiaro, 1977). Collingham (1988) believes that reducing the learners' anxiety by using the native language increases confidence and motivation. As Tezer (1970) points out, comparisons between the native and the target language may be a way of satisfying the adult learners' need for a change from rote learning or rule memorization. There is a consensus among second and foreign language teachers and specialists that the use of the native language saves time. Short and accurate explanations in the L1 can be used instead of elaborate explanations in the target language which learners may not understand, thus sparing precious class time for other activities. The use of the native language also serves the purpose of building on what learners already know, (Mackey and Mountford, 1978).

Interlinguistic transfer is one of the learning strategies which most of the learners prefer, (Atkinson, 1987). It may even be the major strategy in acquisition-poor classroom situation where other achievement strategies are limited or not available, (see page 64). The presence of the negative effects of the native language as a result of employing the strategy of interlinguistic transfer implies the existence of positive transfer as one of the factors

which contribute to the development of the target language, (see e.g. Saville-Troike, 1976; Tarone, 1988). Thus the use of the native language can be seen as having the advantage of being in conformity with the learners' tendency to make use of their native language in formulating hypotheses about the target language.

However, these and any other possible advantages should not be tempting to overuse the native language, especially when explaining the lexical and grammatical items. The following are some of the conditions that have to be met before using the native language:

1. Homogeneity of learners: all learners in the class should have the same native language background.
2. A reasonable degree of cognitive maturity on the part of the learners so that they can benefit from comparisons and contrasts.
3. The teacher's native, or at least near-native, command of the learners' native language, or of the structure he or she is using in case of non-native teachers.
4. Economy: the amount of time and effort which the use of the native language requires should be less than that which the use of any other method would require.

5. Safety: incorrect hypotheses about the target language may result from the indiscriminate use of the native language. For example, presenting the English preposition 'in' as equivalent to 'fi' in Arabic may account for an error such as 'in the same time' since 'fi' is used in this case.

It is the violation of these conditions that often renders the use of the native language impossible, useless, or harmful. Otherwise, there is no reason to banish the native language from the second or foreign language classroom and hence deprive both the teachers and the learners of the benefits that could accrue from it.

The arguments raised by the proponents of some teaching methods and learning theories (e.g. the Direct Method in the 1960's and the Creative Construction Hypathesis in the 1970's) against the role and use of the native language have been swept away by numerous recent publications acknowledging its role and recommending its use, (see e.g. Esser, 1980; Bell, 1981; Marton, 1981; Sharma, 1981; Seliger, 1983; Wills, 1983; Damiani, 1985; Lewis and Hill, 1985; Swan, 1985; Dubin and Olshtain 1986; Johns, 1986; Ringbom, 1987; Rubin, 1987; Urgese, 1987; Costa, 1988; Hallgarten, 1988; Mitchell, 1988; Nicholls and Hoadley, 1988; Spiegel, 1988; Odlin, 1989). Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) conducted an empirical investigation to see when the use of the native language is desirable. They administered questionnaires to 185 teachers and 223 students as "they were uniquely qualified to answer that

question". They found that the vast majority of the teachers and students use the native language (i.e. Arabic) in the foreign language (i.e. English) classroom for various purposes¹. The authors believe that "the use of the mother tongue...is widespread even when it has no advocates and is not supported by theory". The same view has also been expressed by Richards and Rogers (1986).

3.2 The Use of Translation

Translation is believed to be a useful pedagogical device; an effective means of consciousness raising and deepening the learners' explicit knowledge and understanding of target language, (see e.g. Chuquet and Paillard, 1987; De, 1985; Dodson, 1972; Harmer, 1983; Newmark, 1981; Thomas, 1989; Titfod, 1985; Tudor, 1987, 1988; Ulrych, 1986). The usefulness of translation in teaching English for science and technology (EST) has been stressed by Mackay and Mountford (1978) and Widdowson (1979). Indeed there is nothing to worry about when using translation in EST classes since scientific terms, facts, processes, procedures and scientific discourse are mostly language neutral. However, from the present writer's experience, the EST students, like students of general English, make grammar and other errors due to interlinguistic transfer and other factors. The EST teacher can make use of the students' familiarity with scientific terminology and discourse organisation in their native language and help them to communicate grammatically in the

target language. The teacher can focus on accuracy and see where the native language can help.

George (1972) points out that many foreign language teachers do not want to use translation because it is deceptive "since each language represents a particular way of seeing the world". However, as Van Els et al (1984) point out, the lack of correspondence between the native and the target language forms and concepts should not be exaggerated. There are shared concepts and forms which can help in learning the foreign, as there are differences which may also help if the learners are shown the negative effects of transfer. The teachers' fear is justified if translation is viewed simply as a matter of replacing the native language concepts and forms by those of the target language and nothing more, (for further discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of translation in language teaching see, for example, Daugherty, 1984). Translation is in fact one step in the process of using the native language for the purpose of consciousness raising. It is a part of the contrastive comparison intended to make the learner aware of the problems resulting from the partial similarities between the native and the target language. According to Belyayev (1963) "translation is not a true comparison. If a teacher has employed translation, this does not mean that comparison has been carried out".

Pedagogical comparisons between the native and the target language can be based on translation followed by explanation, since the use of translation alone may reinforce the

expectation of total correspondence between the two languages and may encourage constant recourse to the native language, (see also Hadlich, 1965). Teachers who refrain from translation can see it as an important ingredient of consciousness raising when coupled with explanation. Their objections to translation should not deprive the students of its advantages when used as a step leading to the discussion of the differences and similarities between the two languages, otherwise the baby may run the risk of being thrown out with the bath water. Unfortunately, the assumption that translation is dangerous is often inculcated in the learners' mind with the result that they cannot see when it is safe to rely on the native language, (Wolfe, 1967). According to Littlewood (1984) the learner may feel that

everything he learns is different from his mother tongue, whereas in fact there are many ways in which his mother tongue can be directly transferred.

It is important for the teacher to know when translation helps and when it hinders and convey that knowledge to the learners in a way that it can contribute effectively to the development of the target language.

3.3 The Use of Contrastive Comparisons

One of the most widely and frequently suggested uses of the native language in second or foreign language teaching is to present learners with contrastive comparisons of the two languages so as to make them aware of the similarities and differences. This technique is believed to be useful in that

the learners will know when to transfer from their native language and when not to. They will know the reasons behind some of their errors and, hopefully, avoid them, (see Buteau, 1970; Faerch and Kasper, 1987; James, 1986; Kharma, 1981, 1984; Lee, 1968; Palmberg, 1987; Rivers, 1983; Rivers and Temperly, 1978; Sanders, 1981; Saville-Troike, 1976; Singleton, 1987; Wilss, 1983). When the language teaching methods were under the influence of the behaviourist habit-learning theory, such comparisons were recommended only as a guide for the teacher and the textbook writer to combat the negative effects of the native language as the major or even the single source of trouble in second or foreign language learning. Those days have gone and the use of contrastive comparisons, as James (1980) says, is "harmonious with current tendencies to emphasize the cognitive aspect of L2 learning". There is no reason not to facilitate second or foreign language learning by means of contrastive comparisons, making use of the adult learners' analytic abilities (Lombardo, 1985), their knowledge of the native language (Kharma, 1981; Titone and Danesi, 1985), and more importantly, the fact that the learners will make contrastive comparisons anyway, (Butzkamm, 1985; Carroll, 1966; Halliday et al, 1964; James, 1983; Kellerman, 1978; Klein-Braley and Smith 1985; Sharwood-Smith, 1983; Titford, 1985; Widdowson, 1979). Although it is difficult to know what goes on in the learners' minds, the strategies they employ and the hypotheses they formulate, as indicated by errors, show that the learners engage in a process of comparison. Therefore, the similarities and differences between the native and the

target language can be presented and discussed with the learners in an open manner as a short cut to hypotheses formulation and testing, (see also Marton, 1981; Shatilov, 1985; Tezer, 1970). Thus the use of the contrastive comparisons should not remain only in the background, confined to the stages of materials designing and teacher training.

3.3.1 Predictive Contrastive Comparisons

With the shift of emphasis from a teacher-centred linguistic approach to a learner-centred psycholinguistic approach to second or foreign language teaching, it may not be reasonable to recommend using contrastive comparison in the classroom on the basis of its predictive power. The weaknesses of using predictive contrastive comparisons in the classroom have been pointed out by many researchers. One of the most frequently raised criticisms is that the predictions are not always reliable. There are cases where the predictions are misleading because the linguistic differences between the languages compared do not always pose learning problems; negative interlinguistic transfer is not exclusively related to interlinguistic differences, (see e.g. Atoye, 1983; Ingram, 1975; Kellerman, 1984; Krzeszowski, 1981; Long and Sato, 1984; Odlin, 1989; Shcumann and Stenson, 1974; Van Els et al, 1984; Wardhaugh, 1970; Wilkins, 1972; Yorkey, 1977). Predictive contrastive comparisons fail to take into account other factors that determine transfer such as the distance between the two languages as perceived

by the learner. In an erroneous construction such as 'from psychological side, which I see it most important from the sociological, she feel that she is important person', at least nine errors would be predicted by comparing Arabic and English whereas only five interlinguistic errors were actually made, (see page 87). Another point against predictive comparisons is that it is practically difficult to undertake a complete and systematic comparison of two languages, (see e.g. Bennett, 1974; Jackson, 1981; Mukattash, 1981; Sharwood Smith, 1988; Strevens, 1970). Predictive comparisons are also believed to be of very little or no help to language teachers who, from their experience as teachers and ex-learners of the target language, know (not necessarily systematically) where negative interlinguistic transfer actually occurs, (see e.g. Afolayan, 1971; Corder, 1981; Ellis, 1985; Michaelides, 1990). What these teachers actually need to know is how to eradicate or minimize errors, a problem which predictive comparisons have nothing to do about.

The problem of the unreliability of the results of predictive comparisons is further complicated by the fact that there are cases where the learners know more than one variety of the native language. For instance, there are considerable linguistic differences between modern standard Arabic (MSA) and Colloquial Arabic (CA). An analysis of the errors made by Sudanese learners of English revealed that learners rely on MSA as well as on CA, (Mohammed, 1983, see section 1.3 for further discussion with examples). Other

things being equal, reliance on two somewhat different sources of linguistic knowledge may be the reason why a learner produces a target form correctly while another learner gets it wrong. The same learner may transfer a form positively from one variety at one time and negatively from another or even the same variety at another time. As such, which variety of the native language is it that should be compared with the target language? As Jackson (1981) points out, not many teachers have the time or the skill to make a detailed contrastive comparison of the native and the target language. It follows then that no teacher would be expected to undertake comprehensive comparisons between the target language and more than one variety of the native language.

Predictive comparisons also fail to account for the learners' problems within the native language carried over to the target language. A comparison between two languages predicts no problems in learning or using certain linguistic forms because a distinction is made in both languages. Yet learners make errors which, among other possible factors, can be attributed to interlinguistic transfer. Informal discussions with some of the Sudanese teachers of Arabic revealed that using 'yusallif' (lend) in stead of 'yastalif' (borrow) and vice versa, is one of the frequent errors made by Sudanese students in Arabic. This is not an interlinguistic error since there is no difference between MSA and Sudanese CA in this respect. Thus, the error in '..if I borrowed him all my money' is most probably due to transferring the confused form from Arabic into English. A

contrastive analysis of English and Arabic would not predict such an error which may still be due to the influence of the native language.

Tran-Thi-Chau (1975) questions the validity of predictive comparisons on the grounds that they fall short of accounting for the errors made due to problems within the target language. He also believes that different analysts may come up with different predictions as a result of using different models of linguistic analysis. He agrees with Afolayan (1971), Klein (1986), and Long and Sato (1984) that predictive comparisons focus on linguistic differences and ignore the learner and the learning process. Thus predictive contrastive comparisons endorse a teacher-centred rather than a learner-centred approach to foreign language teaching and learning, (see also Newmark and Reibel, 1968). Odlin (1989) says that predictive contrastive analysis

emphasizes product over process..... focuses more on static forms and functions in two languages than on the way people learn a second language. Without question, teachers must be concerned not only with forms and functions, but also with the learning process.

The traditional preoccupation with the role of the teachers and the language to be learned is now being replaced by an interest in the role of the learner and the language learning task, (see e.g. Holscher and Mohle, 1987). The prediction of learners' problems on the basis of linguistic comparisons between the native and the target language is a job done in an ivory tower and does not seem to have a place

in the learner-centred approach.

3.3.2 Error-Based Contrastive Comparisons

What differentiates the learner's language from the adult native-speaker's language is, among other things, that the former exhibits signs of linguistic incompetence. There are systematic instances of deviation in comprehension and production as a result of incomplete or unsystematic knowledge of the code. In a learner-centred approach, then, the use of pedagogical contrastive comparisons should be based on observed deviations rather than on hypothetical ones predicted by comparing full-fledged adult languages. Error analysis provides a more accurate source of information about the learners' problems; it provides empirical data on actual problems, (see e.g. Bhatia, 1974; Brown, 1980,; Brumfit, 1984; Khalil, 1985; Sharwood Smith, 1988; Sridhar, 1976; Widdowson, 1977). In addition, error analysis endorses a psycholinguistic rather than a probabilistic linguistic analysis of the learners' problems, thus providing clues to the strategies learners employ in the process of learning and using the language. It also focuses on the process rather than on the product, (Cohen and Robbins, 1976; Faerch and Kasper, 1987; Mukattash, 1984; Pica, 1984). According to Richards (1975) the study of learner's deviations "enables comparison of teaching to learning strategies, a necessary prerequisite to drawing up realistic objectives for foreign language programs".

The error-based use of contrastive comparisons in the classroom is to be preferred to predictive comparisons since in the latter case the learners may not see the immediate reason for the comparisons that the teacher makes between the two languages. When learners are not aware of the negative effects of interlinguistic transfer or when the differences between the two languages do not cause problems, they may feel that predictive comparisons are a waste of time and therefore do not take them seriously. Such an attitude on the part of the learners may also be a result of the assumption that the two languages are totally different and, therefore, there is no need to refer to the native language at all when learning a second or foreign language. Predictive comparisons may also encourage continued indiscriminate reliance on the native language. In this respect McKeating (1981) writes.

Contrastive initial presentation is very likely to lead to cross-association and should in general be avoided, but at a later stage, once cross-association has occurred, learners may welcome clear examples of the correct use of the contrasting items and an opportunity to discriminate between them.

It can be claimed, then, that learners will be ready to attend to and value contrastive comparisons when they are based on attested problems. Error-based comparisons may convince the learners that their native language does play a role in learning another language and therefore they may feel that the teacher's selective reference to native language is justified.

The shortcomings of error analysis have not been

overlooked. Some of its main weaknesses have been pointed out by Brown (1980), Schachter (1974), and Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1983). They believe that error analysis focuses on what learners cannot do and ignores what they can do. In other words, it focuses on errors and ignores the correct forms. However, error analysis focuses mainly on errors. As such, it is a part of what has come to be known as interlanguage analysis, a field of interest to researchers who focus on the process of language acquisition. The correct forms are important for language acquisition researchers who depend on the learner's language, with its correct and incorrect forms, as relevant data. From a pedagogical perspective, working towards the target norm necessitates focusing on errors. The attempt to correct and, hopefully, minimise errors occupies a central place in the process of formal language teaching.

Error analysis is also believed to have the limitation of focusing on the learner's language at a single point in time; it does not shed light on the dynamic aspect of the learner's language. However, this is a problem in using error analysis for the purpose of investigating the language acquisition process. Unlike language acquisition researchers' language teachers are not very much concerned about the rate and route of learning; they are not interested in systematicity or variability in language learning. They are more concerned with the achievement of specific objectives in a specified period of time and with the causes and eradication of errors (see Chastain, 1976). The dynamic aspect of the interlanguage may be studied by analysing the errors of one

or a group of learners at different stages of their linguistic development. A moving picture is originally a series of static ones. Among the points raised against error analysis is also that it focuses on production and ignores comprehension, (see e.g. Brown 1980). However, the matter rests with the analyst and the goal of the analysis. Like production errors, errors of comprehension can also be detected and analysed by using relevant procedures.

A frequently raised criticism of error analysis is that it falls short of accounting for the forms that learners avoid producing because of their difficulty resulting from the difference between the native and the target language. It is the inability of error analysis to account for the avoidance phenomenon that has given Schachter (1974) the credit of discovering "an error in error analysis". She believes that prior contrastive analysis is more powerful in this respect since it can predict the areas of difficulty where avoidance may be expected. Indeed avoidance is a strategy that learners employ for fear of making errors. Yet it may be the case that they make other errors in their attempts to avoid using certain forms. For example, one of the present writer's students tried to avoid using the word 'intermediate' because he could not spell it. He defined the term as 'the school in it the people read the English for the first time'. Such linguistic problems might not have been revealed if the learner had not employed the avoidance strategy, thus making at least three errors instead of only one.

Teachers usually do not consider avoidance as a serious problem when learners express themselves in other correct forms. By observing the learners' language, teachers may see the forms which are usually avoided. Many Sudanese teachers have been observed complaining that their students do not produce passive constructions in English, (but see section 5.1.3.2). Such an observation is most probably not a result of predictive contrastive analysis of English and Arabic, and such an analysis would not reveal a learning problem since passivization is also found in Arabic, (see e.g. Smith, 1987).

Contrastive analysis may not be as powerful in the prediction of avoidance as Schachter (1974) maintains for a number of reasons:

1. Differences between languages do not always cause problems that lead to avoidance, otherwise many interlinguistic errors would not have been made.
2. There are cases of avoidance which cannot be predicted simply by juxtaposing the linguistic forms of two languages. For example, the present writer observed that the Sudanese learners of English would always avoid saying the words 'zip', 'fuss' and 'unique' although there are Arabic words which are almost identical to them in pronunciation. The reason behind avoidance is that these are taboo words in Arabic. This reason would not have been known unless the cultural aspect had been

considered. If contrastive comparisons go beyond the juxtaposition of linguistic forms to the comparison of the native and target culture as well, this will be a task which most of the teachers cannot do due to the lack of time, skill or both.

3. Learners may avoid producing certain forms as the degree of difference between the native and the target language decreases, (see also Van Els et al, 1984). In this case, learners tend to avoid what is similar rather than what is different in the belief that similarity may be deceptive and lead to negative interlinguistic transfer. Such an assumption may also be due to the teacher's indiscriminate warning against reliance on the native language. This kind of avoidance goes contrary to the predictions of contrastive analysis.

The phenomenon of avoidance will continue to be a problem in error analysis as well as in predictive contrastive analysis until further research suggests more efficient elicitation techniques that can encourage learners to produce the desired forms when expressing their own ideas in their own words. The elicitation procedures so far in use either fail to control for avoidance (e.g. translation, free composition), or are controlled and do not allow learners to reveal their interlanguage, (e.g. the cloze procedure, multiple-choice and short answer items, etc....).

Tran-Thi-Chau (1975) believes that both contrastive analysis and error analysis have failed to offer a convincing

solution to the problem of difficulty in learning from psychological perspective. However, error analysis is not in the same position as contrastive analysis now. Error analysis is intended to solve this very deficiency in contrastive analysis by taking the learner into consideration as Tran-Thi-Chau himself suggests. The fact that contrastive analysis makes predictions that it cannot keep and that the learner processes the target language material in a way that is totally or partially different from the way it is taught (see e.g. Felix and Hahn, 1985), have drawn attention to the psycholinguistic, rather than purely linguistic, aspects of the language teaching-learning process. The learning problems have come to be viewed in terms of the distance between the linguistic forms, across languages or within one language, as seen by the learner rather than by the linguist. Thus error analysis has been revived as a promising line of development in this respect.

Some researchers (e.g. Mohammed, 1990) believe that contrastive analysis is more practicable than error analysis for pedagogical purposes on the grounds that once a contrastive analysis is made between the two languages, it can be used with generations of learners speaking the same native language. In other words, there is no need to undertake a contrastive analysis for each batch of learners whereas a new error analysis has to be undertaken for each group because the errors of one group would be different from those of the other groups. However, without going further into the problem of individual differences among the learners

in a single group, it can be claimed that, with learners of almost the same age sharing the same native language and teaching background, an analysis of the errors of one group may indicate the problem areas of future similar groups, (see e.g. McKeating, 1981). In addition, in situations where the second or foreign language has been taught for a long time (e.g. in Sudan, since 1901), there may not be any need for predictive contrastive analysis since the learners' interlinguistic problems would already be well known to the teachers, (see also Afolayan, 1971).

Error analysis has also been attacked for a number of methodological problems, (see e.g. Abbott, 1980; Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982; Grauberg, 1971; Khalil, 1985; Richards, 1985; Schachter and Celce-Murcia, 1983). Some of these problems are:

1. the lack of objectivity in identifying and analysing errors.
2. the lack of precision in the definition of error types.
3. the inadequacy of statistical analysis.
4. sampling bias, including the learners, the native language background, the type of data, and the elicitation method used.
5. analysing errors in sentences devoid of context.

6. basing the analysis on utterances constructed by the researcher himself rather than on the learners' language.

For these and other possible problems Rutherford (1988), Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1983), and Tarone, Swain and Fathman (1976) warn language teachers and materials writers against using the results of error analysis for pedagogical purposes. However, not all of these methodological problems are inherent in all error analyses. Different analysts commit different errors in different situations. As Ringbom (1987) says, most of such criticisms are "avoidable shortcomings in individual studies".²

3.4 The Use of Contrastive Comparisons : Suggestions and Reservations

3.4.1 Contrastive Comparisons and Redundancy

Although the use of contrastive comparisons, whether intralinguistic (e.g. Hok, 1963; Taylor, 1980) or interlinguistic (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989), is believed to be an effective teaching technique, some researchers have some reservations. George (1972), for example, maintains that the technique of contrast enforces redundancies,³ thus working against the learner's tendency to eliminate them as part of the learning strategy. However, there is a general consensus among language learning and teaching specialists that learners attempt to relate what is to be learned to what

they have already learned. They come to the learning task with their previous linguistic knowledge which they make use of in order to formulate hypotheses about the target language. Thus the negative effects of the linguistic transfer strategy are reflected in the learners' interlanguage not only in the form of redundancies but in the form of omissions and substitutions as well, (see Figure 4, page 56). The technique of contrast can be used to enlighten the learners on the reasons behind the occurrence of such features in their language. Thus when Arabic speakers, for example, make errors such as 'The life is very....' or '....the same person whom I saw him', the juxtaposition of the native and target language constructions accompanied by non-technical explanations may be more effective than giving the target language rules which will most probably include terms like 'definite article, abstract noun, relative clause, object pronoun'.

3.4.2 Contrastive Comparisons and The Real Cure

Krashen (1983) agrees with Newmark and Reibel (1968) that the negative effects of interlinguistic transfer cannot be remedied by drilling the points of contrast. He maintains that contrast will lead to 'conscious linguistic knowledge' which is a 'short-term cure'. According to Newmark and Reibel the long term cure "is simply the cure for ignorance", or in Krashen's words "real language acquisition". Although Krashen's distinction between learning and acquisition is an abstraction that has not yet been empirically verified

(McLaughlin, 1987), there is no evidence to support the assumption that learning does not become acquisition. Conscious knowledge can be automatized and made implicit by practice, (see later page 136). Indeed learners fall back on various learning and communication strategies, including interlinguistic transfer, due to the lack of relevant linguistic knowledge. 'Real language acquisition' is an ideal solution which is hardly available in acquisition-poor situations where untrained teachers teach a foreign language as a school subject for only five hours per week. Explaining and drilling the points of contrast, then, seems to be an inevitable step intended, hopefully, to minimize the negative effects of inter- and-intralinguistic transfer.

3.4.3 Contrastive Comparisons and Confusion

Richards (1985) believes that the error in 'He was climbed the tree' and 'I was going down town yesterday' could be due to contrastive-based teaching which pays "excessive attention to points of difference". He refers to George (1962) who observes that the contrast between the simple and the progressive tense is presented as 'is = present state, is+ing = present action'. Accordingly the learner formulates hypotheses about the past: 'was = past state, was+ing = past action', and produces 'was climbed' and 'was going... yesterday'. However, the confusion which results from such a contrastive presentation is not a point against the principle of using contrasts, rather it is, as Richards himself says, the result of 'premature' contrastive teaching;

it is the result of violating the condition of safety when comparing and contrasting linguistic forms, (see earlier page 96).

3.4.4 Contrastive Comparisons and Problem Pairs

Hadlich (1965) talks about interlinguistic and intralinguistic contrastive comparisons in teaching vocabulary: relating the target language words to those of the native language through translation, and contrasting pairs of words within the target language without any reference to the native language. He rejects both types on the grounds that the former encourages continued reliance on the native language and the latter leads to confusion because "awareness of the possibility of erroneous substitution fosters in itself the substitution it is designed to forestall". According to him, learners confuse pairs of words (e.g. made-do) when they are juxtaposed, explained and drilled as a problem; whereas "when they are presented as if no problem existed, students have little or no difficulty".

However, Hadlich looks at the problem from the point of view of the native speakers who do not have any difficulty in using pairs of words which are confused by non-native speakers. Because native speakers may not make errors in using such pairs, Hadlick says that the problem pairs are "non-native", and "extraneous" to the language being learned. Accordingly, he considers contrastive comparisons between the members of problem pairs as unnecessary "external mediation" which is to be ignored. However, Hadlich's argument is not convincing since the role of previous linguistic knowledge

is a fact of life. Problem pairs may be 'non-native', and 'extraneous' to the language if it is being learned as a mother tongue, but not as a second or a foreign language. The assumption that 'problem pairs are not a problem' is a paradox which overlooks the previous linguistic experience that learners bring with them to the second or foreign language learning task. Hadlich's suggestion that words should be learned separately is in contradiction with the learners' strategy of making use of what is already known to formulate hypotheses about what they need to know. As Carroll (1966) says, "it is impossible to control the techniques that the student himself will adopt to acquire a given skill". This means that the second or foreign language learner may continue to confuse pairs of words in spite of the attempt to teach them within the restrictions of the target language. The technique of teaching each member of problem pairs separately as a different word by giving the target language rules and explanations may not be more effective than juxtaposing pairs and explaining them by means of contrast with the least amount of metalanguage, a technique which is in line with the students' strategy of learning by making associations, (see section 3.5.4).

3.4.5 Contrastive Comparisons and Isomorphism

James (1983) believes that communicative language teaching "is entering the doldrums" and that it will remain there unless it reconsiders the teaching of structure and recognizes the learners' contribution to the learning task. He suggests a teaching approach that rests on the teaching of grammar in a way that makes use of the learners natural tendency to transfer their native language forms. Basing his approach on the learners' interlanguage, James suggests the presentation of the target language structures, which are isomorphic (i.e. similar) to those of the native language, through translation. According to him the learners' contribution is their partial knowledge of the target language through isomorphic forms. He refers to the contrastive analysis hypothesis and says that isomorphic forms will be easy to learn. However, Andrew (prepared comments on James' paper, in Johnson and Porter, 1983) points out some of the problems with such an approach. He shows that isomorphism can be only one motive among others in designing a language course. He points out that easy forms are not necessarily isomorphic. He also refers to the problem of using the native language when learners come from different native-language backgrounds, and the problem of using isomorphism as a criterion in cases where the native and the target language are different. Furthermore, such a focus on isomorphic forms has the danger of encouraging indiscriminate transfer, (Van Els et al, 1984). In four out of five experiments, Politzer (1968) found that presentation of contrasting forms first was more effective than

presentation of isomorphic ones first.

James refers to Kirstein's (1972) hypothesis that negative interlinguistic transfer can be reduced by providing learners with quick and inconspicuous oral translations based on the results of contrastive analysis. James rephrases this hypothesis in a way that serves his purpose: to provide translations "in the sense of exposing learners to NL-TL isomorphic forms". Kirstein wants to counteract negative transfer while James aims at encouraging positive transfer. Although both approaches take the learner into consideration as far as they are motivated by the learners' natural tendency to transfer the native language forms, however, their effectiveness may be questionable if teaching is to be based only on the predictions of contrastive analysis (see section 3.3.1), and if translation is not accompanied by explanations as an important element in the use of the native language for the purpose of consciousness raising, (see section 3.2).

If the isomorphic forms are easy to learn, why should they be the point of focus to the extent of building a whole approach around them? Learners do not bring only the isomorphic forms discarding those which are not isomorphic. Their interlanguage also exhibits signs of negative interlinguistic transfer which can be detected relatively more easily than positive transfer. Thus the learners' contribution can also be seen in terms of their actual learning problems revealed by interlinguistic errors. The

presentation and discussion of isomorphic forms can be the first step in comparing the native and the target language following the principle of proceeding from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

3.5 Related Studies

3.5.1 The Use of Errors in Teaching Grammar

Second or foreign language teachers and specialists generally agree that grammatical knowledge is an indispensable aid to learning because it guides the learners' strategy of hypothesis testing. According to Rutherford (1988) the conscious effort to influence this hypothesis testing strategy often involves "tampering with the well-formedness of sentences" either by incorporating the learners' interlanguage in the linguistic input or by exposing learners to selected ungrammatical language for the purpose of inductive learning. The incorporation of interlanguage in the input entails presenting learners with a pidginized form of the target language, (Jakobovits, 1970; Nickel, 1973; Valdman, 1974). In this respect it may be interesting to note that a pidginized language is already unintentionally being taught in situations where the teachers are not proficient in the language they teach. But, in this case, it is the teacher's not the learners', input. The teacher's interlanguage becomes detrimental in that it may confirm some of the learners' incorrect hypotheses, and may lead some learners to modify the correct ones.

As for using grammar errors in teaching, Lakoff (1969) believes that it is important to present learners with ungrammatical sentences so that they can compare them with the grammatical ones and see the difference. However, Rutherford (1988) points out the fact that the linguist and the learner will often not agree on what constitutes an ungrammatical sentence. He also says that focusing on sentences devoid of context or relevance is not in line with the current interest in teaching language as communication. He tries to make up for these deficiencies by presenting learners with ungrammatical sentences collected from their compositions (see Rutherford 1977). The learners' errors are grouped into grammatical areas such as comparative constructions, relative clauses, conditional clauses, and so forth. These are presented at the end of each unit as a written exercise consisting of five or six isolated sentences related to the grammar point covered in the unit. The learners are asked to "rewrite each sentence in such a way to remove the error". As such, the exercises seem to be more suitable for testing than for teaching purposes. For teaching purposes, however, such ungrammatical sentences could be presented and discussed as part of the grammatical explanations with the aim of making learners aware of the reasons behind the errors. In other words, the discussion of errors could be part of grammar exposition. Error-based grammatical explanations can then be followed by error correction exercises for the purpose of reinforcement and consolidation. Thus, examples of actual errors together with explanations and exercises can hopefully minimize errors.

Simplified error-based grammar exposition can be suggested as an alternative to teaching grammarians' grammar or teaching grammar rules and patterns which may not cause problems and which may be discovered through exposure to the language (e.g. contracted relative clauses). Confining grammatical explanations to the areas where the most frequent errors are made by the majority of the learners can save class time for other activities. In foreign language situations in particular, such time is greatly needed to develop the receptive skills and, hopefully, compensate for the problem of inadequate exposure to the language. By devoting more time to listening and reading students may be helped to acquire the language and build up the competence needed for speaking and writing. Exposure to the language through reading and listening can give the learners the chance to discover and reinforce grammar rules as it can provide them with corrective feedback that may enable them to modify their false hypotheses. In addition, it can give the learners the chance to learn what has not been covered in the course and the chance to choose what they want to learn according to their needs and interests.

3.5.2 Minimizing Retroactive Inhibition

The classical experiment carried out by Lester (1932) was concerned with learning a list of nonsensical syllables and recalling them after 24 hours. The learners were presented with interpolated learning material (i.e. another list of nonsensical syllables) immediately before recalling

the original list. The experimenter wanted to see if the negative effects of the interpolated material in the learning of the original material (i.e. retroactive inhibition) would be minimized if the learners were warned that "the effect of learning a second list is usually detrimental to the remembering of the first, that is, it is likely to cause confusion". The learners were advised not to mix up the two lists by taking "special care to keep them separate; to learn the first list in such a way that [they] will not confuse it with the second list", (cf Marton, 1981).

Lester found that such directions to the learners effectively minimized the retroactive effects and increased the retention of the original material. However, although this study implies that second or foreign language learning can be facilitated by warning learners against 'interference', Lester's subjects were not shown exactly where to expect negative retroactive effects; they were not made aware of 'interference' by means of explanations based on examples of actual errors or even hypothetical ones predicted by a contrastive comparison of the two lists. Since Lester's study deals with retroactive rather than proactive inhibition, the question that remains to be answered is: Can such directions to the learners together with explanatory contrastive comparisons minimize the negative effects of a previously learned material on a subsequently learned one?

3.5.3 Contrastive Analysis in Teaching Syntax

Mukattash (1984) used contrastive analysis in teaching English syntax to adult EFL students majoring in linguistics. He compared the linguistic facts and concepts of English (e.g. subject vs objects, transitive vs intransitive, etc..) with those of Arabic. He found that the students who were taught by means of contrastive comparisons performed better than the previous groups of students who had studied the same course without such comparisons. However, Mukattash admits that his finding is subjective; it "has not been substantiated by statistical evidence and still needs empirical validation". What makes contrastive comparisons useful in teaching about the language may be that most of the linguistic facts and concepts are neutral and almost the same in English and Arabic. Although Mukattash's finding is concerned with the use 'predictive' contrastive analysis in teaching 'about' the language, he recommends contrastive pedagogical grammar to be based on the results of error analysis because error analysis (1) yields valuable insights into the nature of language learning, (2) would make adult learners aware of their prevalent errors, and (3) reveals different types of error that contrastive analysis cannot predict.

3.5.4 Positive Interlinguistic Transfer in Vocabulary Learning

Lambert (1963) focused on vocabulary learning by advanced second language students for a concentrated six-week period. He found that the students who "kept their two languages functionally separated throughout the course did poorer...than did those who permitted the semantic features of their two languages to interact". Although it is difficult to control the learners' strategies and what goes on in their minds, this study seems to support the view that positive interlinguistic transfer helps in learning another language. The study presents counter-evidence to the attempts to marginalize the role of the native language or ban its use in the teaching of another language and hence deprive the learners of its positive effects. However, although the learners who allow the two languages to interact seem to benefit from the facilitative effects of the native language, they may not always be on the safe side since there is the possibility of negative transfer. For such students, conscious awareness of the role of the native language in the form of interlinguistic comparisons may help in modifying their incorrect hypotheses resulting from indiscriminate association between the features of the two languages.

3.5.5 Counteracting Negative Interlinguistic Transfer

Lott (1983) reports about 50% of the errors made by his Italian students of English to be due to interlinguistic transfer. He classifies these errors into three types:

1. **Over-extension of analogy:** misusing a vocabulary item because it shares features with an item in the native language.
2. **Transfer of structure:** grammar errors resulting from transferring the native language rules.
3. **Interlingual/intralingual error:** misusing a grammar or vocabulary item because a grammatical or lexical distinction does not exist in the native language.

Lott outlines some possible ways of counteracting such errors. He says that the first two types of errors can be tackled by making learners aware of the contrasts between the native and the target language. He believes that the 'guided discovery' technique, suggested by McDonough (1981), proved to be useful in this respect. The recommended technique consists of the following steps:

1. **Presenting learners with examples of errors and telling them that these are "direct translations and not acceptable" in the target language.**
2. **Asking learners to suggest alternatives.**

3. Helping learners to develop hypotheses by explaining the differences between the native and the target language forms.
4. Giving oral and written practice in using the correct forms.

However, Lott's assumption of the usefulness of this technique is not based on systematic empirical validation. He does not check his proposed technique against another teaching technique. In other words, he does not compare the use of interlinguistic comparisons with other procedures such as intralinguistic comparisons or giving target language rules without comparisons. As such, he presents a hypothesis that needs to be tested by a series of controlled experimental studies.

Lott's error classification procedure confuses between causes and linguistic levels. What seems to be important in Lott's procedure for counteracting errors is to classify them according to the influence of the native language rather than to group them according to linguistic levels. The first two types, which he categorizes according to the two linguistic levels of vocabulary and grammar, could be presented as one category under 'direct' interlinguistic errors. The third type would remain as it is to refer to the indirect ones. This two-category classification is also suggested by Nickel (1981) whom Lott himself refers to. Thus Lott's three categories could be reduced to 'direct' versus 'indirect'

interlinguistic errors, where each category could be subdivided into grammar and vocabulary.

The four steps which Lott suggests for guided discovery are intended to counteract 'direct' transfer errors. However, from a psychological point of view, it might be better to make adult learners aware of the role of the native language as a source of previous linguistic knowledge and as an achievement strategy in second or foreign language learning instead of telling them that their constructions are 'not acceptable' from the beginning. Disclosure of such judgments may lead to negative attitudes on the part of the learners towards the native language. The learner may come to believe that reliance on interlinguistic transfer invariably leads to error. Instead, learners can be helped to see their native language as a source of information rather than a stumbling block, and their errors as signs of creativity in learning rather than as frustrating and unacceptable features in their interlanguage.

Asking learners to suggest alternatives immediately after the first step may be a waste of time since it is the lack of alternatives that leads learners to fall back on what they already know. Instead, learners can be helped to understand how they formulate incorrect hypotheses and what the correct ones should be by comparing their deviant forms with those of the native and the target language. Based on the principle of proceeding from the familiar to the unfamiliar, and on the fact that there are instances where the native language may play a facilitative role, contrastive

comparisons can begin with the confirmation of some correct hypotheses by presenting the learners with examples of their correct constructions where positive interlinguistic transfer can be given as a possible cause.

Lott presents the confusion between 'make' and 'do' as an interlingual/intralingual (i.e. indirect) error which can be tackled without any reference to the native language, (see section 3.4.4, p.117). He suggests giving learners pairs of sentences such as 'I've made an error, 'He likes doing the cooking' so that they can see the basis for the difference (cf section 3.4.4). Like Lott, Sharwood-Smith (1988) also suggests comparisons within the target language to counteract interlinguistic errors. For example, an error such as 'He reads now' would be tackled by comparing the simple tense with the progressive tense in the target language. Indeed the technique of contrast within the target language seems to be more effective than teaching the forms separately by giving complicated and abstract rules (Section 3.4.4).

Indeed, the use of intralinguistic comparisons with the aim of counteracting interlinguistic transfer errors seems to be an obligatory choice for a teacher who does not know the learners' native language. Such intralinguistic comparisons would not make the learners aware of the reason behind their incorrect hypotheses. For a teacher who knows the native language of the learners, interlinguistic, rather than intralinguistic, comparisons may be more efficient and economical in terms of time and effort. For example,

Sudanese EFL learners often confuse pairs of words like 'make-do, leave-let, read-study, steal-rob'. This is most probably because they transfer from Sudanese colloquial Arabic (SCA) where only one word is used for each pair. In modern standard Arabic (MSA), on the other hand, a clear distinction is made in each case; each of these English words has an equivalent. Hence, reference to MSA may be of great help in clarifying their usage in English. In this case, the comparison would involve both SCA and MSA together with English and the learners' deviant forms. Reference to SCA may enable learners to know the reason behind the error while reference to MSA may help them arrive at the correct usage.

3.5.6 Error-based Interlinguistic Comparisons in Teaching Grammar and Vocabulary

In a previous study Mohammed, (1983) quantified and analysed the grammatical and lexical errors in the written English of 243 Arabic-speaking, male and female, first-year university students. He found 50% to be due to the influence of the native language. The most frequent interlinguistic errors were made in the use of pronouns, articles, copula 'is/are', prepositions, and certain content words. After a detailed linguistic analysis of the errors in those areas, Mohammed suggests classroom presentation of error-based contrastive comparisons as a technique of minimizing the negative effects of the native language. The proposed technique includes the following two steps:

1. Explanation: discussion of the similarities and

differences between Arabic and English with examples. The comparison includes the semantic and structural aspects of the item being taught.

2. Exercises: the explanation is followed by three or four types of exercises such as translation, sentence completion, multiple-choice items, and error correction.

However, the usefulness of the error-based technique of teaching grammar and vocabulary is not verified by means of systematic experimentation in the classroom, therefore, the study presents a hypothesis that needs to be tested.

Although Mohammed acknowledges the role of errors as indicators of the strategies that learners employ, the teaching technique he proposes does not seem to be compatible with the learner's interlinguistic transfer strategy. The sample lessons he presents contain explanations couched in metalinguistic terms, (see Appendix F). Compared with the learner's terminology-free hypotheses formation process (see Section 4.1.2), such explanations may not be simple since knowledge of grammar terminology cannot and should not be presupposed. Like the traditional technique of teaching grammar (Sec. 1.1.2.8) , the proposed technique may lead to the learning of facts about the language rather than the language itself.

The proposed technique aims at making cognitively mature students aware of the reason behind their most frequent

errors, but it does not take into account an important step: the psychological preparation of the learners and provision of a justification for interlinguistic comparisons in the classroom. Such a preparatory stage might help in involving the learners in the teaching process and in bringing the teaching technique closer to the learning process, (see pp.155 and 157). Thus, although the suggested technique is based on actual errors, it seems to fall short of being learner-centred because of the use of metalanguage and the lack of psychological preparation of the learners.

NOTES

1. Some of these purposes are:
 - a - Giving instructions
 - b - Checking comprehension
 - c - Explaining meanings of unfamiliar grammar and vocabulary items
 - d - Teaching pronunciation

2. For useful suggestions to counteract various methodological deficiencies in error analysis see e.g. Azevedo (1980), Bhatia (1974), Corder (1981), Faerch et al (1984), Glahn (1980), Halliday et al (1964), Johansson (1975), Lott (1983), McKeating (1981), Meziani (1984), Mukattash (1986), Palmberg (1979), Poulisse et al (1984), Raupach (1983), Sheory (1986), Wong and Choo (1983).

3. George (1972) appears to be referring to the native language features which do not exist in the target language and therefore redundant, or to the features that appear when a target language form or structure is used in certain contexts (e.g. get-gets, a book-books, see-seeing). George believes that comparison of two languages or two forms within the target language would expose the learners to such redundant features when the focus is on the shorter forms.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE ROLE OF THE NATIVE LANGUAGE IN TEACHING GRAMMAR

4.1 The Teaching of Grammar

4.1.1 The Need for Grammar

The idea of drawing the learners' attention to the forms and structures of language and making them consciously aware of how it works (i.e. the teaching of grammar or consciousness raising) is as old as language teaching and it is still considered as an important component of language teaching. As Rutherford (1987) observes from the title of Kelly's (1969) book "it goes back to two-and-a-half millennia". As such, it is, as Wilkins (1985) says, a "tradition which we have inherited", (see Rutherford 1987, 1988 for a brief historical review). It is generally agreed that there is a need for the teaching of grammar in foreign language learning situations as an aid to the development of linguistic competence which is part of communicative competence. According to Rivers (1981, 1986) learners move from the stage of 'skill getting' to that of 'skill using'. Omaggio (1984) believes in passing through 'structural practice' in order to attain 'open-ended, creative language'. Other researchers (e.g Anderson, 1980, 1982; Hulstijn, 1990; McLaughlin, 1978; Schneider, Dumais and Shiffrin, 1984; Shiffrin and Dumais, 1981) talk about 'controlled' versus 'automatic' processing. The same two aspects of language

learning have been distinguished by terms such as 'learning' versus 'acquisition', 'declarative' versus 'procedural' knowledge, (see e.g. Bialystok, 1978; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980; Faerch et al, 1984; Hanzeli, 1975; Hulstijn and Hulstijn, 1984; Kennedy, 1988; Krashen, 1976; McLaughlin, 1986, 1987; Odlin, 1986; Sorace, 1985).

Arguments have been presented by some researchers (e.g. Krashen 1981, 1982; Krashen and Terrell, 1983; Terrell, 1977) against explicit teaching of grammar on the grounds that it contributes to 'learning' rather than 'acquisition'. 'Learning' is used to refer to the process of paying conscious attention to the formal features and patterns of the language and producing language accordingly, whereas 'acquisition' is used to refer to the subconscious knowledge of these features and patterns. The conscious facts that the learner gets about the language through learning constitute 'explicit' knowledge, while the information which gets mapped in his mind through the non-deliberate process of acquisition is referred to as 'implicit' knowledge, (Bialystok, 1978; McLaughlin and Nation, 1986). The argument raised by Krashen (1976, 1981, 1982) and his followers against explicit teaching of grammar is that there is no interface between the two kinds of knowledge; there is no seepage from the learned to the acquired knowledge. However, counter-claims in favour of the interface between the two kinds of knowledge are numerous, (see e.g. Balcom, 1985; Ellis, 1984; Harmer, 1983; O'Malley et al, 1985; Pica, 1983; Rubin, 1987; Sajavaara, 1986; Sharwood-Smith, 1981, 1988; Stevick, 1980; Van Baalen,

1983).²

The distinction between 'learning' and 'acquisition' seems to be important in connection with the issue of teaching grammar. For the purpose of the present study, learning is intended to refer to the process of hypotheses formation and verification; internalization of a linguistic form by observing the language data and arriving at a rule or pattern. Acquisition, on the other hand, refers to the process of internalizing a linguistic form through subconscious assimilation as a result of exposure. Learning gains prominence in situations that are not conducive to acquisition.

In addition to the universal process of hypothesis formation and testing (i.e. the learner's discovery procedure), foreign language learners can be helped by being provided with rules and principles (i.e. ready-made hypotheses) as a short cut to the learning of forms and structures which the limited classroom input may not cover, (Campbell, 1970; Terrell, 1991). According to Wilkins (1976):

The acquisition of the grammatical system of a language remains a most important element in language learning. The grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is ultimately achieved and an inadequate knowledge of the grammar would lead to serious limitations on the capacity for communication.

Claims in favour of teaching grammar are numerous. Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985) and Sharwood-Smith (1988) believe that with learners who are cognitively mature and have already learned one language, grammatical competence and linguistic insight into the structure of the target language can be of great help in learning that language. Herschensohn (1990), Pica (1983), Spada (1986) and Ur (1988) agree that grammatical instruction is an important component of language teaching and learning in situations where the learners have no opportunities to use the language except in formal language classes and where implicit learning of grammar in natural and real communicative contexts cannot necessarily be expected. Ellis (1987) refers to the general agreement that conscious learning by focusing on linguistic forms helps in internalising rules and patterns for automatic use of the language. James (1986) mentions focusing the learners' attention on specific grammar points as one of four uses of grammar in foreign language teaching³. Two reasons which Besse (1986, in Brumfit and Mitchell, 1988) gives for teaching grammar are: avoidance of pidginization and meeting the expectations of institutions for formal learning. Krashen (1982), Krashen and Terrell (1983), Newmark (1966), and Wesche (1979) refer to the fact that foreign language learners expect and ask for rules and explanations. Another reason for teaching grammar is then to meet the learners' expectations, which might help in learning the language. The need for explicit teaching and learning of grammar is supported by empirical investigation (see e.g. Harley, 1989;

Scott, 1989, 1990; Shaffer, 1989; Van Baalen, 1983).

The role of teaching grammar can be seen as one of supplementing the learner's natural hypotheses formation and verification process. Learners formulate both correct and incorrect hypotheses from the language input available to them. The correct hypotheses may be confirmed and the incorrect ones modified through repeated exposure, or both the correct and incorrect hypotheses remain unverified due to the lack of exposure to the same or similar data from which they have been formulated. In other words, at any stage in the course of language learning, a learner's interlanguage may exhibit:

- (1) Correct hypotheses which have been confirmed by exposure to the language data.
- (2) Incorrect hypotheses which have been modified by exposure to the language data.
- (3) Correct hypotheses which have not been confirmed yet.
- (4) Incorrect hypotheses which have not been modified yet.

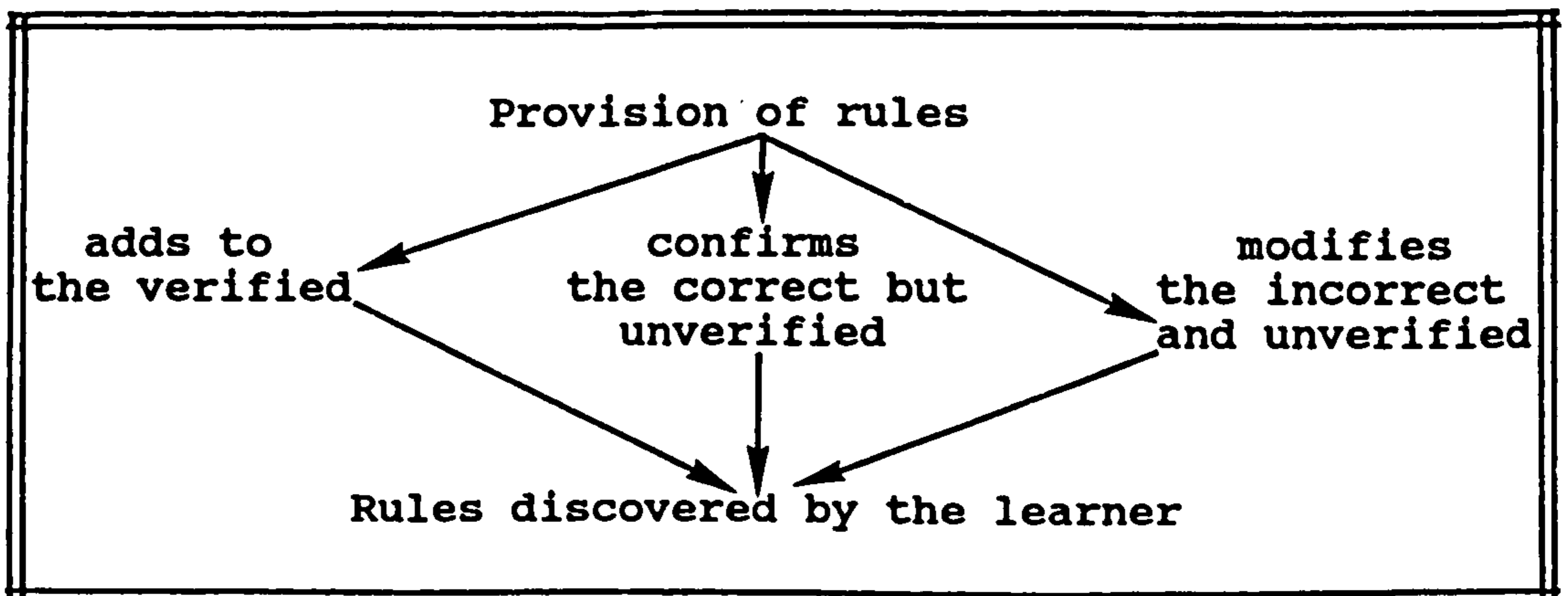
The teaching of grammar (i.e. provision of rules) can help in:

- (1) adding new and confirmed hypotheses to the first two types.
- (2) confirming the third type.
- (3) modifying the fourth type.

In short, provision of ready-made rules can add to, confirm, or modify the rules which the learner discovers by himself provided that these ready-made rules are presented in a way that is consistent as far as possible with the learner's rule-discovery procedure. Figure (6) below is a summary of the role of grammar in the hypotheses formation and verification process.

Figure (6)

The Role of Teaching Grammar in Hypotheses Formation and Verification



4.1.2 The Kind of Grammar Needed

Acknowledging the role of grammar in foreign language teaching and learning, the focus of debate has shifted from whether or not to teach grammar to the question of what kind

of grammar to be taught and how best it can be taught. It is generally agreed that the kind of grammar to be taught is the one that is simplified and presented to the learners in such a way that it can easily be digested and used as a means rather than an end in itself. Such a grammar is variously referred to as 'pedagogical grammar', 'practical grammar', 'teaching grammar', 'processing grammar' as opposed to 'reference, linguistic, or scientific grammar' which is written with the aim of describing the phenomenon of language as fully as possible, (Allen, 1974; Bouton, 1987; Corder, 1973, 1974; Garrett, 1986; Greenbaum, 1987; Levanston, 1974; McEldowney, 1977; Morrissey, 1983; Nadkarni, 1987; Prabhu, 1987; Van Els et al, 1984; Verma, 1985).

The kind of grammar which is adapted to the learners' needs and abilities cannot be pedagogically as well as linguistically valid since simplification is always attained at the expense of linguistic validity. The presence of partial statements in a pedagogical grammar is an artifact of the process of adaptation, (Titone and Danesi, 1985; see Berman, 1974 for further discussion with examples). The incompleteness or linguistic invalidity of pedagogical grammar seems to be justified when it is seen from the perspective of the learning process as has been revealed so far. Describing pedagogical grammar as incomplete or invalid is the result of comparing it with reference grammar which may not be totally complete in itself. The partial statements presented in a pedagogical grammar seem to reflect the interim hypotheses that learners formulate. This does not mean that pedagogical grammar presents false hypotheses as

revealed by an error such as 'goed', rather it means that it provides the learners with the general rules and principles without going deep into details, exceptions and abstractions which even some reference grammars might not contain.

For a pedagogical grammar to be linguistically valid is as impossible as the development of the learner's linguistic competence from zero to full native-speaker competence in one leap. What brings pedagogical grammar close to the learner's discovery procedure in learning is the presentation of tentative grammatical rules and statements which can subsequently be elaborated on. As such, it is the teacher's task to help learners formulate hypotheses, to confirm the correct ones and modify the incorrect ones in the course of their linguistic development. 'Pseudo-generalizations' (Berman, 1974) such as 'the definite article THE is not used with abstract nouns in English' are inevitable at first; if they are evaded in the textbook or classroom presentation, they can be made by the learners any way. An important difference between the many pedagogical grammars and the learner's rule-discovery procedure is the use in pedagogical grammar of terminology such as 'the definite article' and 'abstract nouns'. Learners' strategies do not include such metalanguage carried over from reference grammar. The discovery procedure that learners employ involves observation of language data, formulation and verification of hypotheses without metalinguistic contamination, (see Cook, 1969; Seliger, 1988). The psychological representation of linguistic knowledge in the learner's mind differs from the linguists' descriptions in the absence of grammatical

terminology and elaborate analysis from the former. The following quotations are in order in this respect.

The grammar of the target language written by linguists may be descriptive of the language system, but this is not assurance that they represent in any realistic way the psychological process at work when a speaker uses the language. In other words, a linguist's grammar is not necessarily a psychologist's grammar. (James, 1972).

People have rules for language use in their heads, but these rules are not those of the grammarian. People operate on the basis of informal rules of limited scope and validity (McLaughlin, 1987).

The contrastive-comparative analysis carried out by the learner (psycho-comparative operations) is typically intuitive and subconscious, differing both in scope and manner from the metalinguistic activities undertaken by the descriptive or theoretical linguist. (Sharwood-Smith, 1983).

Although simplicity is an attribute of both pedagogical grammar and the kind of grammar that the learner operates on (i.e. learner's grammar), the presence or absence of metalanguage seems to be an important variable that widens or bridges the gap between the two. Thus the researchers who express their skepticism regarding the role of linguistics in language teaching (e.g. Krohn, 1970; Lamendella, 1969; Lennon, 1988) seem to be justified. Savignon (1983) quotes Chomsky's (1966) statement that "linguists themselves have been among the more outspoken critics of attempts to apply linguistic description to second language teaching". The difference between reference, pedagogical and learner's grammar can roughly be shown as follows:

Figure (7)
Types of Grammar

Type	Detailed Analysis	Use of Metalanguage
Reference grammar*	Yes	Yes
Pedagogical grammar*	No	Yes
Learner's grammar	No	No

* Depending on the writer, the amount of analysis and metalanguage varies from one exposition to another.

Reduction of the amount of the analysis in reference grammar while retaining metalanguage may not result in the kind of grammar that can help in developing the learners' linguistic competence. One main objection to using grammatical terminology in language teaching is that it has nothing to do with the way in which people actually process language, (Garrett, 1986; Marton, 1988). As Bialystok (1981) says, we know that some verbs are transitive and others are intransitive without the linguistic notions used to state this fact. Hanzeli (1975) also exemplifies this terminology-free processing in child language learning. He shows that, in the process of learning the past tense form, the child begins with the assumption that 'ed' is added to all verbs to mark them for pastness and as a result he commits numerous errors. These errors decrease when the child modifies his hypothesis by observing the exceptional cases. Building on Hanzeli's example, the other side of the hypothesis verification process is that the 'ed = past' hypothesis leads the child to create many correct forms. The correctness of the hypothesis is then tested and confirmed when the child observes the forms he has produced in the language data. Here again, if the child were asked to talk about what he has

discovered, his language would not include something like 'the past simple tense'.

Another point against using metalanguage is that the learners have to learn the grammatical terms in addition to the task of learning the language, (Corder, 1973). In addition to being an additional burden external to the natural process of hypothesis formulation, the learner may focus his attention on these grammar terms and learn them by heart in the belief that these terms are what the teacher or textbook writer wants him to know. An example to this, from the writer's experience, is that most of the Sudanese students say things such as 'adverbials, subordinate clause, conjunctions, etc ...' without even being able to identify them in given sentences.

Gurrey (1972) suggests that in situations where the grammar of the native language is taught, the grammar terms of that language can be used in teaching the foreign language. However, Garrett's (1986) contention is that the connection between a foreign language form and a native language form by means of grammar labels, "will not provide any real link to the processing". Jeffries (1985) adds that the students might not have learned what the teacher or textbook writer assumes they have learned about the native language. Furthermore, there is a problem in finding equivalents or one-to-one correspondence between the terms and concepts of the native and the foreign language. For example, when teaching English to Arabic speakers, the

teacher will not find native language terms and concepts equivalent to the present and past perfect. '?al tafḍ:l' (=preference) in Arabic stands for both comparative and superlative adjectives in English. Still another problem in making use of the native language grammar terms may be the teacher's inadequate acquaintance with them or his own reluctance to use the native language in the foreign language classes.

4.2 Learner-centred Teaching of Grammar

4.2.1 The Concept of Learner-centredness

Ellis and Sinclair (1989) give a brief account on the origin of learner-centred approaches. They point out that the field of language teaching and learning has been influenced by the ideas of those who call for "respect for the individual in society". This respect, according to Schwartz (1977, in Ellis and Sinclair, 1989), is reflected in the acknowledgement of the individual's ability to be responsible for his or her own affairs. In language teaching and learning, such respect entails learner autonomy; his role in decision making. In other words, the learner should be allowed to choose what he wants to learn, how and when he should be taught, and the way in which he wants to learn, (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Gomes de Matos, 1986). Thus, as Yalden (1987) says, learner-centred teaching "includes choices in four areas: objectives of learning, rate of learning, method (or style) of learning, and content of

learning."

Teacher-centred approaches, including all teaching-learning aspects where learners are not involved, are believed to have little or no effect when they are in conflict with the learners' goals and strategies of learning, (Naiman et al, 1978). With regard to syllabus design, the attempts to make the content of learning consistent with the learners' needs resulted in the 'process or negotiated syllabus' (see e.g. Breen, 1984, 1987; Candlin, 1984; Clarke, 1991). Nunan (1988), for example, points out that the classtime available may be nowhere near enough to teach everything that the learners need to know; a person cannot learn all the aspects of a language. Therefore, the selection of the content of the syllabus can be based on "those aspects of language which the learners themselves deem to be most urgently required", (see also Candlin, 1976; Henner-Stanchina and Riley, 1987; Hutchinson, 1987; Nunan, 1989).

Language courses designed for specific purposes include the functions and structures of language that are of immediate relevance to the learners, but the learners have no role in the selection, grading and method of teaching these functions and structures. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) prefer to use the term 'learning-centred' instead of 'learner-centred' on the grounds that "the learner is only one factor in the learning process"; there are other factors such as the classtime available and the specific purpose of

learning as perceived by the teacher or the materials designer. They rightly point out that there is no a truly learner-centred approach "since most learning takes place within institutionalized systems" where the ingredients of the teaching-learning process are predetermined. Accepting the term 'learning-centred' to include the learner and any other factors affecting the teaching-learning process, the present writer uses 'learner-centred' to focus on the learner: his learning strategies and their contribution to the teaching method.

The concept of learner-centredness is associated with the notional-functional syllabus whose principles are drawn from the learner's role in society. The learners' needs are analysed in terms of what they need to do with the language; the functions they need to perform and the notions they need to express in different communicative situations. The focus on the social contexts of language use is believed to be a change from the structural syllabus which is based on language forms. Thus the functional syllabus is believed to be 'learner-based' whereas the structural syllabus is 'subject-based', (Wilkins, 1979). However, the structural syllabus can also be learner-centred when it is viewed from the perspective of creativity in language learning. People learn languages by generalizing or systematizing from the data to which they are exposed. Given a finite number of rules they can generate an infinite number of forms and structures. Das (1984) agrees with Brumfit (1980) that the structural syllabus allows for generative learning whereas

the functional-notional syllabus does not because the functions and notions are not generative. Thus, if the functional-notional syllabus is learner-centred because it attempts to be sensitive to the learner's communicative needs, the structural syllabus can be learner-centred because it attempts to be sensitive to the learning process. Yet, as Das (1984) says,

even the most sensitive syllabus (sensitive, that is, to the learning process [and the learner's needs]) can be no more than a crude approximation - a compromise. Until we discover more about the learning process, we must accept the fact that syllabuses have to be largely subjective, impressionistic and ad-hoc.

In relation to classroom activities, learner-centredness entails rejection of the traditional teaching-learning situations where the teacher is an authority and does most of the work in the classroom; situations in which the teacher is "the great leader, imparter of knowledge, and ... the centre of all activity" (McGreal, 1989). Instead, the learner-centred approach emphasises the learners' active participation with the teacher being a guide, consultant and orchestrator, (see also Belasco, 1981).

The concept of learner-centredness seems to be important in teacher training, too. Das (1984) points out that most of the training programmes are "still geared to the idea of teacher-control" with the result that teachers regard themselves as 'virtuosos'. A learner-centred approach to training would have the trainee experience the methods he is

told to use. The trainee should be able to see his techniques through the learners' eye by putting himself in their place as a potential learner, (Breen and Candlin, 1980). In other words, the teachers can be trained in a way that enables them to bring their teaching techniques as close as possible to the students' learning styles and strategies. This may be done by asking the teachers to put themselves in the learners' shoes and to introspect about the learning strategies they used when they learned the target language.

As far as the teaching methods and approaches are concerned, there is a sense in which most of the innovative approaches (e.g. Comprehension-based Instruction, Community Language Learning, The Natural Approach, The Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia) can be considered learner-centred: they aim at exposing the learner to the language data so that he can pick what he wants according to his own needs and interest, (Sandberg, 1974, in Blair, 1982). The present study focuses on foreign language learning as a conscious mental process, a process of hypotheses formation based on previous linguistic knowledge, particularly the native language as indicated by translation errors in grammar. A learner-centred technique of teaching grammar is proposed in the hope of minimizing such errors. The term learner-centred is used in the sense that the proposed teaching technique is based on the interlinguistic transfer strategy employed by the learners. In other words, through their errors, the learners determine their problem areas and through their learning strategies as indicated by errors, they can

determine how these problem areas can be taught. The teaching technique is intended to be in conformity with the learning process as far as possible by making use of the learners' natural tendency to make contrastive comparisons between the native and the foreign language. The traditional techniques of teaching grammar seem to interfere with the learners' strategies by focusing on verbalization of rules, naming of categories, and provision of elaborate and abstract analysis, which are external to the natural process of learning. A learner-centred technique of teaching may keep such interference to the minimum.

4.2.2 Purpose of the Study

Based on the fact that the effectiveness of the teaching of grammar is greatly reduced when it is at variance with the learners' strategies and procedures, it is the purpose of the present study to explore the possibility that the teaching of grammar can profitably be based on the results of recent studies on language learning strategies. It attempts to make use of the current theoretical findings of research on interlinguistic transfer as a creative learning strategy in teaching the grammar of the foreign language.

The traditional tendency to teach grammarians' grammar is a major factor leading to the deterioration of the standard of the Sudanese students in English, which in turn leads to heavy reliance on interlinguistic transfer as the

most available achievement strategy. Frequent use of the interlinguistic transfer strategy is reflected by the fact that translation errors constitute half of the total number of errors made. The findings of a previous analysis of the errors made by Sudanese learners of English, (Mohammed, 1983) in which 50% could be attributed to transfer from Arabic, were confirmed by an analysis carried out for the purpose of the present study. A total of 396 Sudanese, male and female, first-year university and third-year secondary-school students were asked to write a composition on one topic guided by three questions.⁴ Two university lecturers in English were asked to identify the systematic grammar errors and to classify and quantify them according to the possible strategies underlying their production: L1-based, (i.e. literal translation from Arabic) or L2-based (i.e. any other reasons). There were a few ambiguous errors, most of which were resolved by consultation of the students; the rest were ignored.

A total of 4951 errors were judged to be systematic (i.e. made at least twice by at least two students), of which 2619 (i.e. 53%) were classified as due to literal translation from Arabic. Such findings together with the percentages of L1-based errors reported by other researchers in other second or foreign language learning situations (see page 74) have given impetus to the present study. The purpose of this study is to see whether the use of simple explanatory contrastive comparisons between the native and the target language can be a more effective technique of teaching grammar to adult Arabic-speaking Sudanese English-language learners than the

currently used technique confined to giving facts about the language using metalinguistic terminology. Can the negative effects of interlinguistic transfer be minimized if the learners are made aware of the role of the native language in foreign language learning and presented with brief and, as far as possible, terminology-free interlinguistic comparisons in the area or areas where the most frequent errors have been made?

4.2.3 Hypothesis

The standard of the Sudanese learners of English at the secondary and university level is judged to be poor since, among other factors (see section 1.1.2), most of the instruction in the English language takes the form of lecturing about the language. The teaching of grammarians' grammar (see section 1.1.2.8) is the most important detrimental factor since most of the teachers, trained or untrained, resort to it in the face of large classes, lack of books, the belief that language is grammar, and the objective of enabling students to pass the examinations.

The poor standard of the Sudanese students in English is reflected in:

- (1) the reduction of the pass score in the Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSCE) to 30%.

- Most of those who pass in the SSCE, assuming that their scores reflect their true competence, often do not pass other English language tests where the pass score is 50% or more (e.g. the placement test at University of Gezira, the EFL proficiency tests at the British Council and the American Centre);
- (2) the percentage of errors (50% in Mohammed, 1983 and 53% in the present study) in the students' written composition that could be attributed to transfer from Arabic, the compensatory strategy frequently employed due to the limited knowledge of the target language. A percentage of 50 or 53 of interlinguistic errors is significant when the remaining portion (50% and 47% respectively) could be attributed to other factors such as intralinguistic transfer, which is another learner-internal factor, and teaching-induced, which is an external factor (see Figure 5, page 85).

It is hypothesized that making the adult learners conscious of the interlinguistic transfer strategy and presenting them with terminology-free explanatory comparisons between the native and the target language in the grammar area or areas where the most frequent translation errors have been made can be more effective in minimizing such errors than the traditional technique of lecturing about the language; giving rules and explanations using metalinguistic terms. It is anticipated that the grammar

errors made due to literal translation from the native language can be reduced if the adult learners who share the same native language are:

- (1) made aware of the role of their native language in foreign language learning: its role as a source of linguistic knowledge; a frame of reference to formulate hypotheses about the foreign language, a strategy which in some cases helps and other cases hinders depending on the degree of similarity between the two languages.
- (2) presented with clear interlinguistic comparisons in everyday language in the area or areas where the most frequent grammar errors have been made due to negative transfer from the native language.

The hypothesis is based on:

- (1) the role of the native language in the second for foreign language learning and the numerous theoretical assertions of its usefulness in teaching another language.
- (2) the belief that teaching strategies can be made more effective by taking the learning process into account.

4.2.4 Model and Rationale

The model teaching technique derived from the hypothesis includes the following steps:

- (1) A brief discussion of the role of the native language and the interlinguistic transfer strategy.
- (2) Presentation of examples from both languages to show the similarities in the grammar area being taught including the concept (e.g. definiteness) and its surface representations.
- (3) Presentation of examples of actual errors to discuss the negative effects of the interlinguistic transfer strategy in the grammar area in question.
- (4) Various recognition and production exercises.

Many researchers believe that contrastive comparisons between the native and the target language are useful in resolving confusions, but very few of them propose fairly detailed steps of how such comparisons can be carried out in the classroom. McKeating (1981), for example, suggests only one step: asking the learners why they say X (i.e. the incorrect form) instead of Y (i.e. the correct form). Ringbom (1987) also suggests one step. He believes that presentation of examples from the native and the target language is enough to enable the learners to arrive at the

correct form. Relatively detailed steps have been presented by Lott (1983, discussed in section 3.5.5 of the present study) and Marton (1981, 1988). Marton's model consists of steps 2, 3 and 4 of the model proposed in the present study: presentation of similarities and differences with examples, and exercises.

The first step in the suggested model - not included in Lott's (1983) and Marton's (1981, 1988) models - is intended to be an orientation stage. It aims at the psychological preparation of the learners for the following steps. It is intended to create context and provide a justification for embarking on contrastive comparisons. A brief and clear discussion of the role of the native language in foreign language learning and the use of the transfer strategy may help in giving impetus to the learners to attend to interlinguistic comparisons and arouse their interest in knowing the reasons behind some of their problems. As Rubin (1987) says, "making strategies conscious may enable learners to use their strategies more effectively and efficiently."

Such a preparatory stage seems to be necessary since the learners may not be able to see a convincing reason behind using the native language when the explanation starts with the presentation of the similarities. When the explanation starts with the differences between the two languages and the negative effects of the transfer strategy, it might generate a negative attitude on the part of the learners towards the native language and the errors at a time when they should be

trained to see interlingual transfer and commission of errors as normal phenomena in language learning.

Recognition of the role of the native language as a source of linguistic knowledge in foreign language learning may be one of the reasons for many teachers and researchers to talk about its role in teaching, which implies that the use of the native language in foreign teaching should involve the learner and the learning process.⁵ Hence learner involvement in the teaching of grammar by means of contrastive comparisons can be achieved not only by basing the explanations on actual errors or by giving informal analysis that approximate what Sharwood-Smith (1983) calls the learner's "psycho-comparative operations", but also by giving the learners the feeling of participation in the teaching process. Before embarking on the discussion of similarities and differences, the learners can be made aware of the rationale behind what the teacher is going to do. Some acquaintance with the role of the native language in foreign language learning, and why, how and when the transfer strategy is employed may enable the learners to relate what the teacher says in the following steps to what they do when they learn and use the foreign language to the extent that the teacher's speech becomes their loud thinking.

The presentation of the similarities between the two languages is intended to relate what the learners already know to what they need to know. As Ringbom (1987) says, "the learner's natural tendency is to relate new material to existing linguistic knowledge" and "oversimplifications in

the establishment of cross-linguistic equivalents are inevitable in the learner." At this stage, the learners can be shown when the transfer strategy works and hence, confirm the correct hypotheses which they might have formulated. Discussion of similarities is then a transitional stage leading to the discussion of the cases where the strategy does not work. Discussion of similarities might also be useful in that it can bring about a change in the view of the learners who believe that the two languages are totally different and accordingly deprive themselves of the benefits of positive transfer.

Presentation of the differences is the core of the explanation phase (i.e. steps 2 and 3). It shows where transfer should stop. Through the presentation of actual common errors together with the native and target language forms, the learners can be made ware of the instances where the transfer strategy does not work. At this stage, the learners are expected to modify their incorrect hypotheses. In this respect, McLaughlin (1984) says, "once the limitations of a particular strategy can be made clear to the student, a whole complex of errors can be avoided." Discussion of similarities and differences alone may not eliminate or minimize the errors but, as McKeating (1981) says, "it may help to speed up the process", therefore, various types of exercises are needed to consolidate the hypotheses which have been modified.

An essential requirement of the proposed learner-centred technique of teaching grammar is that the explanations be

informal and given in everyday language. They should be free as far as possible from metalanguage and complicated ideas such as 'improbability can be expressed by the past perfect in the adverbial and conditional perfect in the main clause,'⁶ (see Appendix B for more examples). Based on what has so far been revealed about the language learning strategies and the process of hypothesis formation and testing (see e.g. Corder, 1973, 1983; Hanzeli, 1975; Sharwood-Smith, 1979) and on the findings of the introspection studies (e.g. Gerloff, 1987; Faerch and Kasper, 1987) it seems necessary that pedagogical grammarians and teachers reduce the formality of their grammatical explanations in a way that reflects, as far as possible, what the learners engage in so as to arrive at a certain grammatical form. By observation of the language data the learners can discover rules and patterns and may be able to talk about these rules and patterns in everyday language which is different from the linguist's jargon. When a learner says 'This word "old" needs "an"', a pedagogical grammarian might say 'The adjective "old" should take the indefinite article "an" since it begins with a vowel sound.' The teacher, whose task is to teach language as a skill and not as facts about language, can use the learner's language since it can bring teaching close to learning. Like the learner, the teacher can say 'This word, This part' and use visual aids (e.g. pointing or underlining) to draw the learner's attention to the relevant features, (see also Sharwood-Smith, 1988). Simplification of explanations by avoiding elaborate descriptions and the grammarians' jargon

applies to the various techniques of teaching grammar including interlinguistic and intralinguistic comparisons as well as techniques which do not employ comparisons.

4.3 Significance of the Study

4.3.1 A Psycho-pedagogical Role for Error Analysis

An attempt is made in the present study to move with error analysis a step further from its traditional pedagogical role of indicating the learners' problems to the teacher, who may resort to remedial measures such as providing the correct forms or reteaching the problem areas without taking into consideration the strategies behind the commission of the errors (see Tadros, 1966, 1979 as an example of this traditional role), to its psycho-pedagogical role as a mirror reflecting the strategies whereby the learners arrive at the deviant forms. Error analysis is seen as a link between language acquisition research and language teaching. It provides a way of making use of the findings of acquisition and interlanguage studies in language teaching. Thus error analysis is intended to bridge the gap between learning and teaching by focusing on the learner so that the teaching method can be more sensitive to the learning strategies (Brumfit, 1980; Cohen and Robbins, 1976; Ghadessy, 1977; Pica, 1984; Richards, 1985; Taylor, 1980). In this respect, Faerch, Haastrup and Philipson (1984) say:

As teachers ... we have come to assign more and more significance to what we

refer to as the learner language approach, which means basing the study of foreign language learning and teaching on prior analysis of learner language.

As such the traditional sequence 'error analysis→teaching' can be modified as 'error analysis→learning→teaching' so that error analysis can be seen as an indispensable source of feedback that can provide "a basis on which to elaborate a psychological pedagogical grammar" (Titone and Danesi, 1985).

4.3.2 The Failure of Grammarians' Grammar

With the psycho-pedagogical role of error analysis as a basis for a psycho-pedagogical grammar, the present study attempts a solution to the problem of teaching grammar. The Sudanese learners' exposure to English is confined to a maximum of six hours per week of formal classroom instruction, hence the learning process needs to be enhanced by teaching grammar as an aid to the development of linguistic competence. But the kind of grammar taught (Section 1.1.2.8) militates against the achievement of that goal because it is not related in any way to the learners' strategies whereby they discover patterns and make generalizations from the limited language input available. Most learners do not achieve even the short-term goal of passing English language examinations because they are not asked to state rules or analyse sentences, the abilities which the teaching of grammarians' grammar develops in the learners. Thus the teaching of grammar in its present form

helps neither in communication nor in examinations.

According to Rutherford (1988) grammatical 'consciousness raising' is

a continuum ranging from intensive promotion of conscious awareness through pedagogical rule articulation on the one hand, to the mere exposure of the learner to specific grammatical phenomena on the other.

There is no widely accepted evidence to support or reject any one method within this continuum, (Garrett, 1986; Gurrey, 1972; Mitchell, 1988; Scott, 1989). However, a method that focuses on sentence analysis, rule articulation and rote memorization of facts about language can hardly be expected to contribute to the development of linguistic competence. The learners may be able to recite all the rules and facts without being able to use them in comprehending or producing language, (Ellis, 1985; Garrett, 1986; Lightbown, 1985; Prabhu, 1987; Sajavaara, 1986; Sorace, 1985).

In the face of the failure of grammarians' grammar, the present study attempts to fill the need with a learner-centred technique which can, hopefully, enable the learners to see grammar as an aid to language learning rather than the object of learning. The proposed technique is also expected to satisfy the need for variety in presentation, especially in the case of remedial teaching. The numerous errors made by Sudanese learners can be attributed, among the other factors, to the inefficiency of the traditional grammar teaching technique. In addition to the problem of boredom,

the reteaching of the problem areas by using the same traditional technique can be another abortive attempt at teaching grammar. It is not only for the sake of variety that the initial technique is replaced by another in remedial teaching. The remedial teaching technique may not be better than its antecedent. Confronted with errors, the course of action that appears to be reasonable is to base remedial work on the learners' strategies underlying the commission of errors. Such a learner-centred approach seems to be effective at both the initial and remedial stages. As Garrett (1986) writes

A growing body of research on the interlanguage hypothesis indicates that ... language learners are engaged in the development of processing rules. The evidence suggests that a processing approach to teaching might well fit the students' internal structuring of the learning task.

4.3.3 Towards a Resolution of the Teaching-Learning Conflict

Garrett's (1986) view is supported by many researchers (e.g. Bennett, 1974; Corder, 1975, 1981; Nickel, 1971; Taylor, 1980) who maintain that more successful teaching techniques, materials and syllabuses can be developed based on an understanding of the abilities and strategies that the learners bring with them to the learning task. The inefficiency of teaching can be attributed, among other factors, to the conflict between the strategies of teaching and those of learning, (see Bialystock, 1985; Dakin, 1969;

Felix and Hahn, 1985; James, 1972; Morrissey, 1983; Terrell, 1991). Some researchers (e.g. Ringbom, 1987) voiced blames to the effect that language teaching specialists have not yet worked towards resolving the teaching-learning conflict even though they acknowledge the importance to language teaching of what has been revealed about the learning process. Corder (1986) says "there is much more concern for and tenderness towards the learner, but the underlying view of what goes on in a teaching-learning situation has not been affected." In response to the above claims and blames, the present study proposes an interlinguistic-transfer-based technique of teaching grammar as a step towards a comprehensive learner-centred teaching method including other learning strategies and language skills.

4.3.4 The Need for Empirical Investigation

The literature reviewed for the purpose of the present study reveals that no systematic empirical investigation has so far been undertaken to verify the effectiveness of using simple error-based contrastive comparisons in counteracting the grammar errors made by foreign language learners due to reliance on the interlinguistic transfer strategy. The use of contrastive comparisons in teaching grammar as an aid to language learning has not been compared with any other technique to testify its effectiveness. For the usefulness of the use of the native language in foreign language teaching in general and the use of error-based comparisons in particular not to remain at the level of theoretical

assertions, the hypothesis of the present study has been experimentally tested by comparing the proposed technique with the currently used technique of teaching grammar to the Sudanese learners of English.

4.3.5 The Need for Practical Classroom-oriented Research

Needless to say the field of teaching English in Sudan lacks action research which is directly addressed to the teacher. To the best of the present writer's knowledge, most of the research that has been conducted by Sudanese TEFL specialists is of the hypothesis-generating kind, (e.g. Abdel-Magid, 1972; El-Fadil, 1971, 1975; El-Hibir, 1976; Fitaihabi, 1986; Hussan, 1977; Mohammed, 1983; Mukhtar, 1988; Tadros, 1966; Taha, 1980; Umar, 1985). The present writer observed that most Sudanese English-language teachers and learners do not take descriptive research seriously. For instance, they reluctantly accept questionnaires and respond with indifference, if at all. This is most probably because they feel, as Van Lier (1988) says, that the "data will be taken from [them] without being returned in some enriched form". Accordingly, the present study is intended to represent a link in the missing chain of classroom-oriented, hypothesis-testing research which will, hopefully, provide the teachers and learners with practical solutions to their problems in teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

NOTES

1. However, Terrell (1991) has recently hypothesised that explicit teaching of grammar can indirectly support the acquisition process in three ways:
 - (1) It can help learners in processing the input.
 - (2) Meaning-form relationships can help learners to understand the meaning of an utterance.
 - (3) It can help learners to produce accurate utterances which in turn serve as input for acquisition.

2. Ellis (1990) finds it difficult to decide between the interface and non-interface position. He agrees with McLaughlin (1978) that it is difficult to differentiate 'editing by feel' from 'editing by the monitor' in any single performance. Ellis concludes that "explicit knowledge serves to sensitize the learner to the existence of non-standard forms in her interlanguage" and hence helps in acquisition when s/he attends to the linguistic features in the input and is "ready to incorporate these into her interlanguage".
For further discussion of claims for and against the teaching of grammar see, e.g, Marton (1988) and Rutherford (1987).

3. The other uses are:
 - (1) To arrive at clear decisions of what is right and what is wrong (i.e. objectivity of assessment).
 - (2) To correct errors before they fossilize (a remedial role).
 - (3) To identify points of contrast between the rules of the native and the target language.

4. The composition topic:
Write 25-30 lines about Refugees in Sudan in the light of the following questions:
 - (1) Where do they come from? Why do they leave their home countries?
 - (2) What are the problems they face in Sudan?
 - (3) What are the problems they cause to Sudanese people?

5. The use of the native language in foreign language teaching may be motivated by other reasons which

are not directly related to the learning process e.g. giving instructions in classroom activities and tests, establishing an atmosphere of relaxation and context for communication in the target language, and checking comprehension.

6. This example is quoted from a grammar booklet compiled by a Sudanese teacher as supplementary material, most probably in response to the students' complaint (or his own belief) that the coursebook used does not contain enough grammar.

CHAPTER FIVE

CLASSROOM APPLICATION OF ERROR-BASED INTERLINGUISTIC COMPARISONS

In order to test the hypothesis that the use of simple interlinguistic comparisons in teaching grammar would be more effective than the currently used traditional technique in minimizing literal translation errors, an experiment was conducted in Wad Medani area in Sudan including the University of Gezira and eight secondary schools.

5.1 Method

5.1.1 Subjects

The subjects were 714 Sudanese, male and female, Arabic-speaking first-semester university and third-year secondary school students whose ages ranged from 18 to 23. The university students were at the beginning of their seventh year of EFL study and the secondary school students were at the beginning of the sixth year. Some of both university and secondary students were at the beginning of their eighth and ninth year of English because of repeating the third year in the secondary school due to their failure to enter the university from the first or second attempt.

English is studied as a compulsory subject for four hours per week in the university and for five to six hours per week in the secondary schools. First semester university

students study English for specific purposes. No specific textbooks are used. The course material consists of reading passages collected by the staff of the English department from various books and journals in the students' field of study. The passages are followed by grammar exposition and various exercises also locally developed by the staff of the department. The main objective of the first semester course is to revise and reinforce the basic English patterns and structures covered at the intermediate and secondary level where The Nile Course for the Sudan series is used. The series consists of six books. The first three books are taught in the three years of the intermediate level and the other three (Corbluth, 1979, 1981, 1982) are taught at the secondary level.

Upon consultation of the English language inspectors in the regional ministry of education and the secondary schools teachers of English, the schools which this study covered were chosen in such a way as to represent different standards in English. The inspectors' and teachers' classification of the schools was based on the ranking of the schools in the intermediate school certificate examination as well as on personal judgement about the standard of English in these schools in general. The classification of schools was confirmed by the scores of the translation test administered for the purpose of this study (see sections 5.1.2.1 and 5.1.2.3). The means of the scores roughly indicated that one school was good, four were average, and three were poor. Better students, particularly university students of

medicine, were excluded from the study because the focus was on the problems of the majority of the students in learning English. The university students who participated in the study were not different from the secondary school students in their standard in English. They were at the beginning of the first year in the university and their scores on the translation test were similar to those of the secondary schools students. The 714 subjects of this study represented good, average and poor level of standard in English. However, judging from their scores on the translation test, the standard of the majority ranged from average to poor (30 to 0 out of 50).

5.1.2 Materials

5.1.2.1 Testing Material

An Arabic passage was prepared to be translated into English as a pre-test, (Appendix G1). Translation was chosen as a testing technique on the basis of being relatively more efficient than free writing in controlling for avoidance strategies such as message adjustment on the one hand, and controlled writing which does not give room for production of own language on the other hand. Most importantly, translation would be in line with the learners' tendency to think in Arabic and write in English. This tendency was confirmed by the students in their response to a question informally addressed to them to see whether that was really the case. In order to keep avoidance to the minimum, the

students were instructed, in Arabic, verbally and in writing, to stick to the same ideas and number of sentences in the passage and not to make grammatical changes such as using passive constructions instead of active ones, using singular nouns instead of the plural or subject instead of object and vice versa.¹

The passage consisted of ten sentences about the disadvantages of the migration of Sudanese people to rich Arab countries. The ideas in the passage were collected from the students themselves. Two months before experimentation, the university lecturers of English and the teachers of Arabic in some secondary schools were requested to ask their (first-semester university and third-year secondary) students to write a short paragraph (10-15 sentences) about the disadvantages of migration. Six disadvantages were frequently mentioned and these constituted seven of the sentences of the translation passage. The first two sentences and the last one were provided by the present writer as an introduction and conclusion. The students' Arabic compositions were examined again to see if the sentences expressing any one of the six disadvantages contained relative clauses modifying object head nouns. The sentences were grouped under the six disadvantages. Most of the sentences in each group contained at least one active object relative clause (AORC). Excluding the sentences which did not contain AORCs, a sentence was chosen at random from each group to be included in the translation test. A teacher of Arabic checked the sentences for spelling and grammar

mistakes. The sentences provided by the present writer contained three AORCs. Thus the total number of AORCs in the passage was 14. In seven sentences the personal pronoun referring to the object head noun was suffixed to the main verb and in the other seven it was suffixed to a preposition.

Examples:

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----|-----------|---------|--------------------|----------------|-----------|-------|
| 1. | ?al | maja:kil | ?allati | <u>tusabbibuha</u> | lana | ?al | hijra |
| | The | problems | which | migration | <u>causes</u> | to | us. |
| 2. | ?al | duwal | ?allati | yaḏhabu | <u>?ilayha</u> | ?al | na:s |
| | The | countries | which | people | go | <u>to</u> | |

Focus on AORCs was based on the findings of the error analysis undertaken for the purpose of this study (Section 4.2.2 and Appendix H). The errors made due to transfer from Arabic (L1-based errors, 2619, 53%) were classified and quantified under various grammatical categories and then rank ordered according to frequency. The most frequent errors were made in the area of pronouns (943, 36%). Pronoun errors were classified into personal, relative and demonstrative. The number of errors in each category was 847 (90%), 72 (8%) and 24 (2%) respectively. The errors made in the area of personal pronouns were classified and quantified under errors of addition (513, 60%), omission (143, 17%) and substitution (191, 23%). Thus the most frequent errors in the use of personal pronouns were redundant pronouns, which could be divided into two types (1) redundant object pronouns in AORCs (311, 61%, e.g. one of the problems which refugees cause them

to us...) and (2) redundant subject pronouns before verbs (202, 39%, e.g. There are many problems which refugees they face in the Sudan).

Due to the fact that the schools and university system did not allow having the students pooled and regrouped for more than one day, only the area of relative clauses was chosen to be taught. Redundant subject pronouns were not included in the study not only because of the time factor but also because they were not confined to the relative clauses. Such pronouns were inserted in all types of clauses in English (e.g. Refugees in Sudan they can be found in any town).

5.1.2.2 Teaching Material

According to the results of the error analysis, two grammar lessons, one normal and one experimental, together with exercises were developed by the investigator to teach the use of English relative clauses, (see Appendices I and J). The normal lesson was based on the traditional format of giving examples, rules and explanations couched in metalinguistic terminology, summary of the rules and main points, and exercises. The lesson was divided into the following three sections:

Section (1) : Introduction

Explanation of the importance of grammar in general and the relative clauses in particular in composition and summary writing. This section was in fact new to the students because grammar would

usually be taught in isolation from other skills. It was intended to be a preparatory phase equivalent to the first phase in the experimental lesson where the students were given a reason to attend to the lesson.

Section (2) : Presentation

Examples and explanations leading to rules of how to use the relative pronouns to join sentences together with a summary of the main points discussed.

Section (3) : Practice

Recognition and production exercises consisting of five multiple-choice items, five error correction items, five pairs of sentences to be joined by relative pronouns, and five sentences to be completed.

The experimental lesson was based on the model proposed in this study (Section 4.2.2). It was also divided into three sections:

Section (1) : Introduction

Discussion of the role of the native language in learning the foreign language, the phenomenon of transfer and its positive and negative effects.

Section (2) : Presentation

Discussion of the similarities and differences between English and Arabic in the use of relative clauses with examples. Examples of actual errors were included to discuss the negative effects of

transfer.

Section (3) : Practice

(Same as in the normal lesson).

The participant teachers were given copies of the two lessons together with the exercises. They were also given enough copies of the exercises for their students. Long meetings were held with the teachers to explain to them the purpose and design of the experiment, how to teach the experimental lesson and how to administer the tests. In addition, each teacher was given these explanations in writing in Arabic, (Appendix K).

5.1.3 Procedures

5.1.3.1 Pre-testing

The translation pre-test was administered one month before experimental teaching. It was given as an exercise in writing in a normal English double-class period. Each school and the university chose a convenient day for the test since it was not necessary to test all classes in one day or at the same time on one day. All students in all schools were tested within one week. Most of the students were bewildered by being asked to translate. It was a new experience for them to do such an exercise which, as they said, needed special training. The teachers managed to convince the students that it was a kind of guided composition where the ideas and the structures had been provided. They also reminded the students of the habit of thinking in Arabic and writing in English. This might have helped the students to

relax and perhaps see translation as a kind of realistic exercise especially when the content reflected their own ideas and expressions.³

The students were given one hour which was enough for the majority to finish the test. The very few students who did not finish either came later, were slow in writing, were sick or almost illiterate in English. These students' scores were not included in the statistical analysis but the students attended all stages of the experiment. Another English language teacher helped the participant teacher in administering the test since the participant teacher had to teach the experimental group at the same time. Testing instructions were given to the assistant teacher verbally and in writing. Enough space was provided under the Arabic passage for the translation. The teachers were requested to remind the students of writing their names and the names of their classes in the space provided. They were also requested to be keen on collecting all the sheets because the same passage would be translated as a post-test. The teachers would solve all of the students' vocabulary and spelling problems if they asked.

5.1.3.2 Analysis

Four university lecturers of English participated in marking the translations out of 50. Only grammar errors were detected since vocabulary and spelling problems might have been solved by the teachers who administered the test.⁴ According to the means and the raw scores, the schools and the students within each school were classified under

excellent (45-50), good (30-44), average (25-29) and poor (0-24). These results generally supported the inspectors' and teachers' classification of schools according to their standards in English (Section 5.1.1). The translations were examined again for the production of relative clauses. Only object relative clauses (ORC) in which the Arabic pronominal copy was correctly avoided or incorrectly added were detected. Those were the active ORCs which contained a main English verb. The other ORCs such as passive ORCs and ORCs in which a main verb was not used due to vocabulary problems were not counted. Errors other than the redundant object personal pronoun (e.g. articles, tense, order, prepositions, etc) were ignored. For each student, the number of active ORCs he or she produced (P) out of 14 together with the number of the ones he or she correctly produced (C) were recorded, (e.g. Student Ali M.Ali : P = 12, C = 6).

The total number of active ORCs produced by the 714 students was 5582 (i.e. 56% of the total number of ORCs expected, 9996). Detection of only 56% of the total number of active ORCs expected could be attributed to the following:

1. Some students did not complete the test.
2. Some students did not stick to the forms and structures of the Arabic passage. They either expressed the ideas using different structures (e.g. The language of the family instead of The language which the members of the family use), or used passive

constructions (e.g. The problems which are caused by migration instead of The problems which migration causes), or used the noun as subject (e.g. The people who live with him instead of The people whom he lives with), or used intransitive verbs (e.g. The habits which come with migrants instead of The habits which migrants bring).

3. Vocabulary problems leading to code switching (e.g. The problems which **تسببها** the migration) or leaving space when not knowing the verb (e.g. The language which they ---- in childhood).
4. Ambiguity: In a sentence like The countries which migrants go to it is the rich Arab countries, it was difficult to see whether the student (a) inserted a subject pronoun before the verb affected by Arabic where the verb is inflected to show the subject, and used it instead of they also affected by Arabic where some plural nouns are treated as singular, or (b) inserted an object pronoun affected by the Arabic ORC, again treating the plural noun as singular as in Arabic.⁵ A sentence such as They spend the money collected on unimportant things could be (a) an active sentence from which the subject

pronoun **they** has been dropped and an incorrect tense has been used, (b) a passive sentence with a contracted object relative clause. Another example is **The language which used the members of the family**. This is either (a) an active sentence where the tense is incorrect and the word order has been transferred from Arabic, or (b) a passive sentence where **by** has been dropped and the verb **is** has also been dropped due to the influence of Arabic.

5. The use of the preposition before the relative pronoun (e.g. **One of the issues about which people talk, Workers on whom the country depends, The countries to which they migrate.**). In all such cases, no object personal pronoun appeared in the ORC. This seemed to be related to the student's proficiency level in English. Most of the cases observed were in the translations of the university students of medicine who were excluded from the experiment because of their relatively high proficiency level.⁶

Based on the two scores (P and C), the students in each school and the university were matched, paired and randomly assigned to two equal groups. The scores in one group were identical to those in the other group. Permission was then

obtained from the authorities in the university and the schools to reorganize the students for only one day for six class periods. In addition to being a basis for matching and pairing the students, the pre-test confirmed the students' tendency to transfer object personal pronouns from Arabic to English. Of the total number of active object relative clauses produced by all students, 55% contained such redundant personal pronouns.

5.1.3.3 Teaching

Nine male and female, trained and untrained Arabic-speaking Sudanese teachers of English participated in the experiment (8 secondary school teachers and one university teaching assistant). All of them had at least two years of experience in teaching English. Each two equal groups, one normal and one experimental, were taught by one teacher. The normal lesson was taught in a double-class period (80 minutes) in the schools and the same period of time was allotted in the university where one-hour lecture system was followed. The experimental group followed immediately in another double-class period on the same day. While the normal group was being taught in the second and third class periods, the experimental group was given to a teacher who taught a subject (e.g. Arabic, Religion) common to all third year students in Mathematics, Science and Arts sections. The same teacher also took the normal group when it was free in the sixth and seventh class periods, (see Appendix L). In the university, the free group was divided between the self-access library and the audio-visual centre where they could

use any material they wanted. The normal-then-experimental sequence was intended to control for leakage of information from the experimental to the normal group. Since the use of interlinguistic comparisons was new to the students, the participant teachers expected leakage of information not only within one school but also between schools. Accordingly, further arrangements were made to control for such leakage by teaching the two groups on the same day in all schools.

As for the distribution of the 80 minutes over the sections of the lesson, the teachers agreed on an approximate allotment of 10 to 15 minutes to the introduction, 45 to 50 to the presentation, and 20 minutes to the exercises. They thought it was possible to take some time from the following break in case they did not finish the exercises. All of the examples were written and discussed on the chalkboard because the students were not provided with materials for the lesson except the exercises. The students were free to take notes and to ask for clarification of any point.⁷

In the normal lesson, the examples consisted of three groups of isolated pairs of sentences. The first group was about the use of 'who' and 'whom', the second about 'which' and the third dealt with 'whose'. These were followed by an explanation of how the two ideas in the pairs could be expressed in one sentence by using the relative pronouns. The students were then presented with the three groups of sentences where the pairs were joined by relative pronouns. This second set of examples was followed by a long

explanation divided into four parts. The first part was general; it introduced the concepts of main clause and relative clause and showed the function of the relative clause in the sentence. The second part was about the cases where 'who' and 'whom' are used. The third part was devoted to 'which' as a subject and object relative pronoun. The last part was about the possessive case: 'whose' and 'of which'. The explanation was followed by a summary of the four parts. The grammatical terms used were the same as those used in the coursebook and in the grammar notes prepared by the teachers as supplementary material. Other aspects of relative clause construction such as restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses, and the cases of omission of the relative pronouns were not discussed in order not to present too much information at one time and because the allotted class time would not be enough to cover the three sections of the lesson.

The teachers used Arabic when they felt necessary for any purpose other than making grammatical contrastive comparisons. For example, they used it when talking about the importance of using relative clauses in composition and summary writing, in explaining cases of usage of the relative pronouns, in giving instructions in exercises, and in error correction. The exercises were done orally in the classroom. When the teacher observed an error such as 'The man whom I saw him', he would employ any correction technique such as giving the correct form by himself, helping the student to correct himself, or asking other students to correct the error, without showing the students the reason behind the

error. Some of the participant teachers said they had given explanations such as 'When you join two parts of sentences in which the noun is in object position (i.e. when using WHOM and WHICH referring to an object noun), do not put a personal pronoun like IT, HIM, THEM in the relative clause'. Other teachers would say 'Do not use the personal pronoun HER, HIM, THEM, etc... here'. Still others would repeat the sentence without the redundant personal pronoun.

In the experimental lesson, as in the normal one, there was a smooth transition from the introduction to the presentation stage. An example of relative clause construction in modern standard Arabic (MSA) and colloquial Arabic (CA) was given as previous knowledge on the basis of which hypotheses would be formulated about the English relative clauses. The explanation of similarities between English and Arabic continued by presenting three groups of isolated pairs of sentences from Arabic and English. The Arabic examples were from both MSA and CA because in both versions there is a pronominal copy in the object relative clause. The pairs in each group were then joined by relative pronouns.

The discussion of the differences began with a short explanation of the differences between the relative pronouns in English and Arabic based on the examples presented earlier. The discussion then focused on the object personal pronouns in object relative clause as an important difference underlying the most frequent error made by the students. The relevant parts (i.e. the verbs) were underlined in the examples. The difference between the two languages was

explained by rewriting the relevant parts in the examples underlining the object personal pronouns in MSA and CA and indicating the corresponding zero in the English sentences. The presentation stage was concluded by showing the students the negative effects of transferring those pronouns from MSA and CA to English. Examples of actual errors were presented with the errors underlined. How the errors were made was explained by comparing the deviant forms with their Arabic equivalents.

CA was the language of discussion because it is the language which the students are most familiar with and, therefore, used in teaching not only English but also MSA. The teachers avoided grammatical terminology as much as they could. Some teachers used the Arabic equivalents of 'pronoun', 'subject' and 'object'. Teachers would always avoid metalanguage by saying **This word** or **This part** while underlining or pointing at the word or part. As in the normal lesson, the exercises were done orally in the classroom. When the teacher observed a redundant personal pronoun in an object relative clause, he would use various correction techniques but he would draw the students' attention to what he had said about such errors in his or her discussion of the differences between the two languages.

5.1.3.4 Post-testing

The same translation passage given in the pre-test was administered again as a post-test with the same verbal and written instructions. It was given on the same day the

experimental lesson was taught. After teaching the normal group in the second and third class periods, the participant teacher went to teach the experimental group in the fourth and fifth class periods while the normal group took the test administered by another English language teacher at the same time. Either the participant teacher or the assistant teacher administered the test to the experimental group in the sixth and seventh class periods (see Appendix L). As in the pre-test, the students were allowed one hour to do the translation. The administration of the post-test immediately after teaching might have added to the teaching of the normal group first in controlling for leakage of information from the experimental to the normal group. It might also have helped the students to make use of the fresh information about the relative clauses although they were not made aware of the relationship between the lesson and the two tests. Other factors which might have concealed the relationship between the lesson and the tests could be (1) that the frequency of the relative clauses in the Arabic passage seemed too normal to attract the students' attention to the objective of the test, and (2) that most of the teachers tend to teach grammar in isolation from other language skills due to the lack of training or the prescribed coursebook, (i.e. The Nile Course for the Sudan) which tries to integrate the language skills and subskills.

5.1.3.5 Analysis

As in the pre-test, only active object relative clauses (AORCs) were detected in the post-test. The total number of

AORCs produced (P) and the number of AORCs correctly produced (C) were recorded for each student. When the pre-test and post-test scores were juxtaposed, each student had four scores.

Example:

Student	Pre-test		Post-test	
	P	C	P	C
Ali M . Ali	12	6	13	9

The pre-test scores were used as a basis for matching and random assignment of the students into two equal groups in each school. Nevertheless, within the equal groups, another stage of matching was necessary based on the number of AORCs which each student produced in the post-test. This second stage of matching was inevitable because relatively very few students produced exactly the same number of AORCs they had produced in the pre-test for the various reasons presented earlier (Section 5.1.3). Excluding the students who did not finish the post-test and those who did not finish or take the pre-test, the two groups in each school were matched and paired according to the post-test AORC production scores. Identical and similar scores were paired so that the means of the scores of the two groups were similar (see Table 4).

Table (4)

Means of the AORCs Produced by the Normal and Experimental Group in the Post-test

Schools	Normal	Experimental
1	8.64	8.62
2	11.33	11.53
3	9.34	9.38
4	9.50	9.50
5	10.59	10.59
6	10.17	10.17
7	9.27	9.13
8	9.96	10.00
9	4.71	4.52

Note: University is treated as a school

5.2 Results

The normal and experimental group in each school were compared on the basis of the correct AORCs they produced in the post-test (Table 5 and Figure 8).

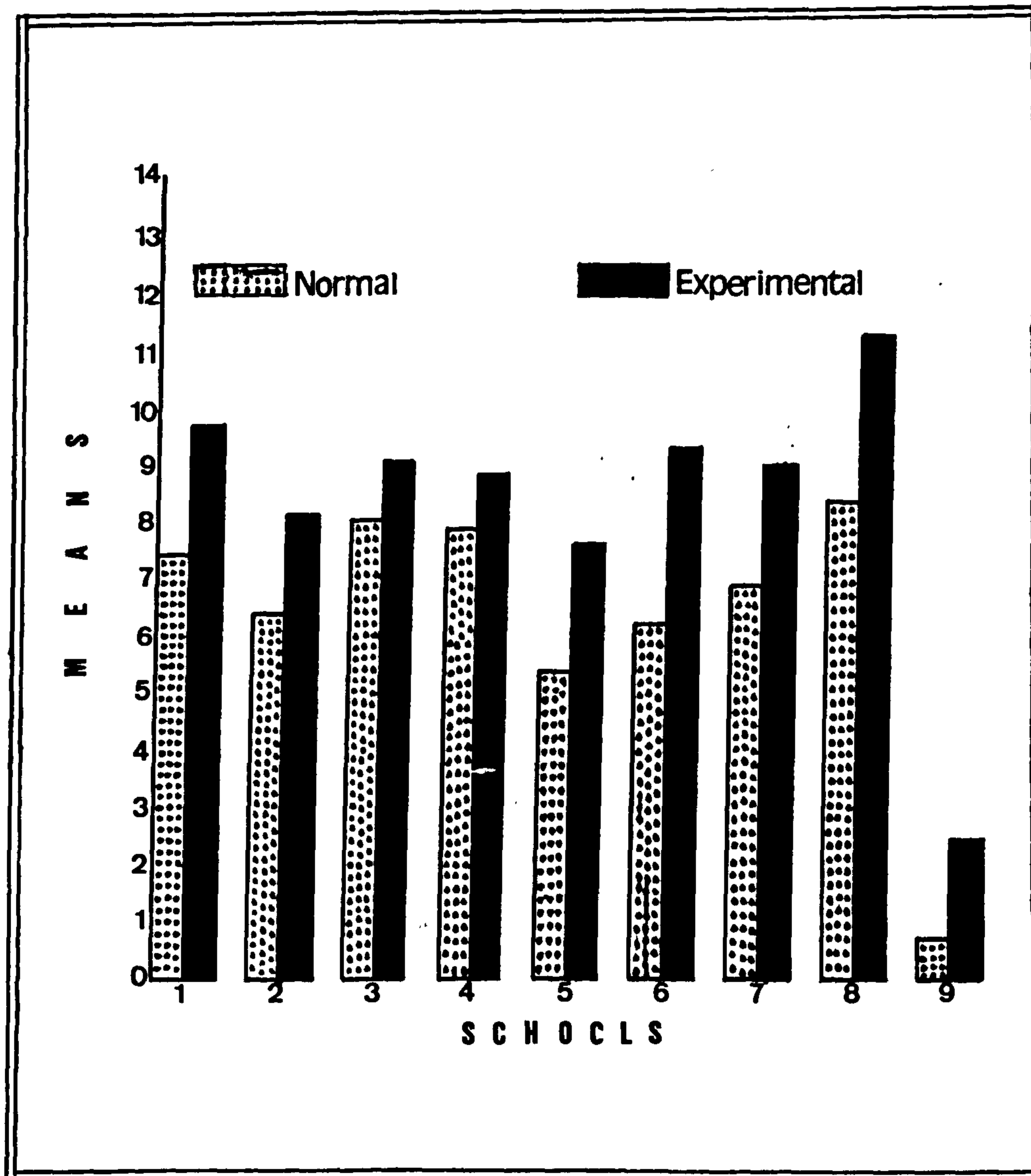
Table (5)

Number of Correct AORCs Produced by the Normal and Experimental Group in the Post-test in Each School

School	Number of Students	Normal	Experimental
1	84	623	815
2	55	356	445
3	30	241	272
4	29	228	254
5	42	225	319
6	36	221	335
7	24	163	216
8	15	125	170
9	42	29	100
Total	357	2211	2926

Figure (8)

Means of the Correct AORCs Produced by the Normal and Experimental Group in the Posttest in each School



The post-test means of the AORCs correctly produced by the two groups in each schools were compared using the matched group one-tailed t test with the level of significance set at 5% (see Table 6).

Table (6)

**Comparison of the Post-test Means of the Correct AORCs
Produced by the Normal and Experimental Group in each School**

Schools	Experimental		Normal		t value	df
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1	9.70	3.56	7.42	4.09	6.387	83
2	8.09	3.13	6.47	3.58	3.240	54
3	9.06	3.33	8.03	3.08	1.969	29
4	8.76	2.97	7.86	3.31	1.758	28
5	7.66	3.43	5.36	3.53	3.043	41
6	9.30	3.00	6.14	3.52	4.586	35
7	9.00	3.54	6.79	3.09	2.651	23
8	11.33	1.91	8.33	2.92	3.030	14
9	2.38	2.57	0.69	1.34	3.747	41

$p < .05$ in all cases

Table (6) demonstrates a significant difference between the two groups in each school. The experimental group outperformed the normal group in all schools. The probability that the difference was due to treatment is 95%. In all schools except 3 and 4, the t value obtained was significant also at the .01 level. The big difference between the two groups in schools 1 ($t = 6.387$) and 6 ($t = 4.586$) may be due to the fact that the teachers who participated in these schools were qualified in teaching English as a foreign language. Their acquaintance with psycholinguistics, error and contrastive analysis, and teaching methods might have given them a deeper insight into the purpose and procedures of the study. However, their

expectation of the outcome cannot be ruled out. Such big differences in these two schools can also be attributed to the teachers' bias towards the experimental group. The teachers' expectancies might have influenced their own and hence their students' performance. The smaller, though significant, difference between the two groups in schools 3 ($t = 1.969$) and 4 ($t = 1.758$), on the other hand, may be due to a negative attitude on the part of the teachers towards using the native language in teaching English. There is also the possibility that the teachers did not follow the procedures exactly.

However, since the two groups in each school scored differently on the post-test and all the differences were statistically significant at the .05 probability level set for this study, it can be claimed that the students in the experimental group registered greater improvement than their peers in the normal group. The interlinguistic comparisons technique reduced the negative effects of native language transfer in the production of AORCs more than did the traditional technique of giving rules and explanations in metalinguistic terms.

The normal group registered a difference between the number of correct AORCs produced in the pre-test and the post-test in all schools. In only one school the difference was negative, that is, the correct AORCs produced in the pre-test (242) were more than those produced in the post-test (228), (see Appendix M, School 1). Such a negative difference may be attributed to the factors mentioned earlier

(p.178). The difference between the scores of the pre-test and the post-test was statistically significant in some schools, (see Table 7).

Table (7)

Comparison of the Means of the Correct AORCs Produced by the Normal Group in the Pre-test and Post-test in Each School

Schools	Pre-test	Post-test	df	t
1	8.00	7.86	28	0.286
2	7.53	8.33	14	1.270
3	6.63	8.03	29	0.838
4	4.90	5.36	41	0.902
5	4.83	7.42	83	7.272*
6	3.22	6.14	35	5.407*
7	3.08	6.79	23	5.984*
8	2.96	6.47	54	8.561*
9	0.33	0.69	41	1.895*

* $p < .05$

Whether statistically significant or not, the increase in the number of AORCs correctly produced by the normal group could be attributed to a number of factors. Firstly, following a cyclic syllabus, (Corbluth, 1979, 1981, 1982), the relative clauses were taught in the first and second

year. They were also taught at the beginning of the third year in some schools, (see page 207, Note No. 7). Thus the experimental teaching of relative clause construction was another chance for consolidation. Secondly, the students might have made use of the fresh information about relative clauses in the translation test which followed the lesson, (Appendix L). Thirdly, the students might have benefited from the explanation of the importance of grammar in composition, (see pages 174 and 175, and Appendix I). Finally, the students might have followed the instructions more strictly in the post-test than in the pretest, thus producing more AORCs, and hence more correct AORCs, (see Table 8 and Figure 9).

Table (8)

Number and Percentage of AORCs Produced by the Pooled Normal and Experimental Group in the Pre-test and the Post-test

		Pre-test				Post-test			
Group	N	Produced		Correct		Produced		Correct	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Normal	357	2791	56	1258	45	3286	66	2242	68
Exp.	357	2791	56	1258	45	3278	66	2915	89

Note: The percentage of the AORCs produced by both groups in both tests is a function of the hypothetical number (4998 i.e. 14×357) that each group would produce. The percentage of the AORCs correctly produced is a function of the AORCs actually produced, (1258, 3286 and 3278).

Figure (9)

Number and percentage of AORCs Produced by the Pooled Normal (N) and Experimental (E) Group in the Pre-test (PR) and Post-test (PO)

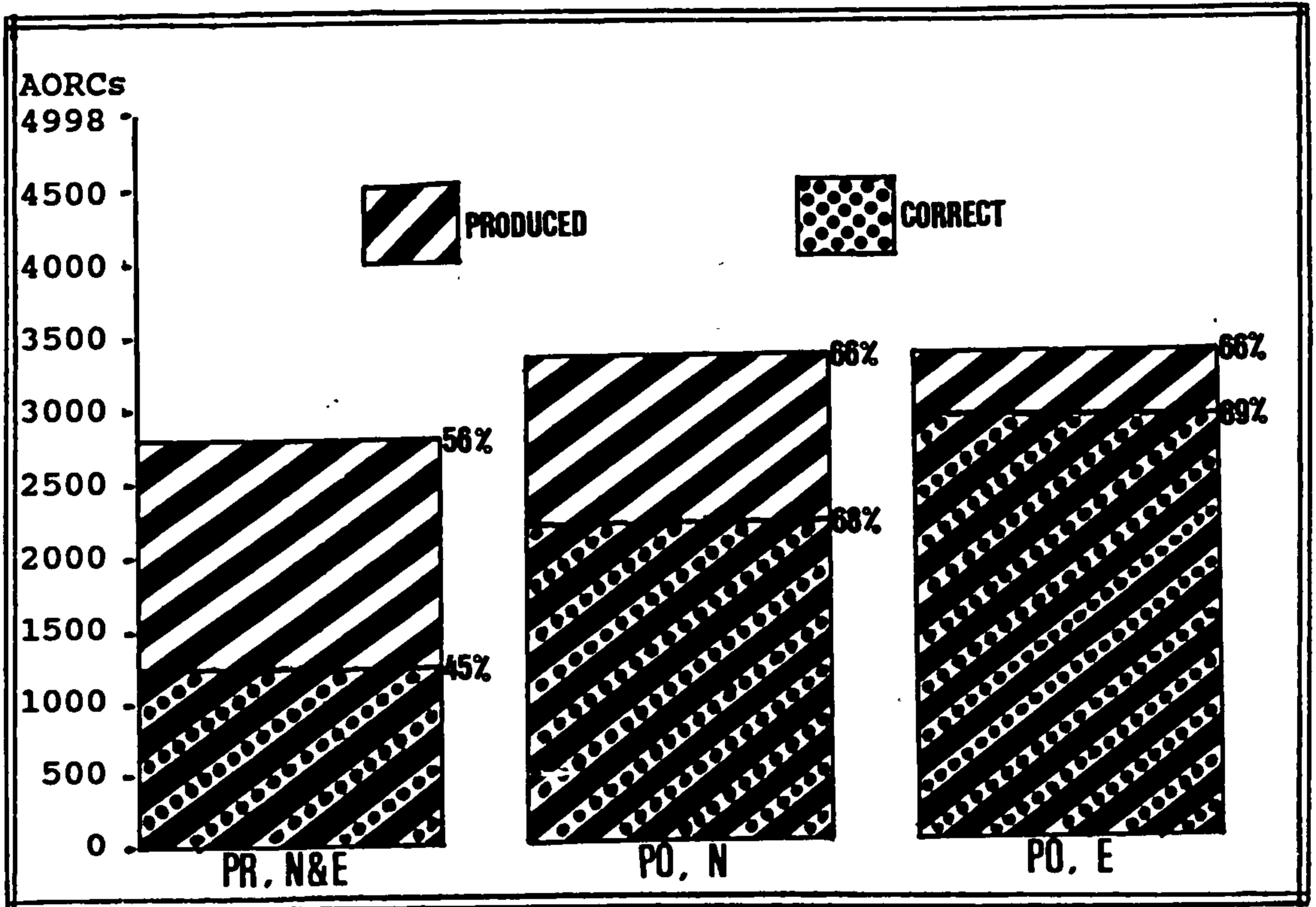


Table (8) and Figure (9) show that the number of correct AORCs produced by the normal groups increased by 23% in the post-test and those produced by the experimental groups increased by 44%. The correct AORCs produced by the experimental groups (89%) were more than those produced by the normal groups (68%).

5.3 Conclusions

The significant differences between the means of the normal and experimental group in all schools support the hypothesis that the error-based interlinguistic comparisons technique of teaching grammar is more efficient in minimizing negative transfer errors than the currently used technique of

teaching grammarians' grammar. The findings illustrate the greater effectiveness of the learner-centred technique compared with the traditional teacher-centred technique in counteracting the negative effects of the interlinguistic transfer strategy. The findings provide empirical support for the theoretical assumptions about the usefulness of using the native language in foreign language teaching in general and the effectiveness of using simple interlinguistic comparisons in teaching grammar in particular.

Through empirical data, this study lends support to the contention that the teaching techniques can be made more effective by being based on the learning strategies. The comparison of the teacher-centred technique with the learner-centred technique of teaching grammar has clearly shown the failure of the former in tackling the negative effects of one of the most frequently employed learning strategies. Some researchers' (e.g. Hughes, 1983) belief that teaching and learning are two different processes should not deter language teachers from making use of the findings of language acquisition and interlanguage studies. The use of error-based interlinguistic comparisons in teaching seems to be one of the important implications that can be drawn from the findings of such studies. On the basis of the underlying theoretical principles and the findings reported in the present study, the interlinguistic comparison technique is recommended, not for the sake of finding applications to the results of language acquisition and interlanguage research but for that of basing the teaching practices on sound

theoretical grounds.

Language teaching can benefit from language acquisition research through the current psycholinguistic trend in error analysis. Learners' errors provide clues to the learning strategies and hence a basis for learner-centred teaching. Language teaching does not seem to have gained very much from the traditional pedagogical error analyses, which begin with the collection, classification and analysis of errors and end up with the statement that the analysis will 'hopefully' be useful to the teachers and textbook writers who may, however, already know the students' problems (e.g. Kharma, 1987, Scott and Tucker, 1974) or with the suggestion of some exercises or teaching techniques which might come to pour into a teacher-centred approach (e.g. Tadros, 1979; Kharma and Hajjaj, 1989).⁸ As such, a traditional pedagogical error analysis may not be different from a linguistics book written in the hope of being useful to the teacher and the textbook writer, but not necessarily to the language learner.

The present study indicated the greater effectiveness of the grammar teaching technique based on the learners' interlinguistic transfer strategy compared to the teacher-centred technique based on the linguists' description of language. One implication of this finding is that error correction can be effective if the learners are made aware of the strategies underlying their errors. Simple contrastive comparisons presented in everyday language seem to yield

better results than reteaching the problem area using rules and metalinguistic analysis, giving remedial exercises, or just giving the correct forms without acquainting the cognitively mature learners with the reasons behind their problems in all cases. Interlinguistic transfer is inevitable when the learner's linguistic means fall short of achieving his communicative goals and when there are similarities between the native and the target language. This role of the native language can be exploited as an inoculation against its own negative effects as the findings of this study suggest. As Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) say, knowing the source of the learners' problems is "a step in the right direction toward...helping learners avoid making mistakes". For the teachers to continue in 'the right direction', they should give the right kind of help beginning with an awareness of the source of the problems on the part of the learners.

As for the implications of the results of this study to teacher training, more emphasis can be put on the psychological aspects of language learning, particularly the learning strategies as reflected by errors. Training programmes can help teachers to bring their teaching techniques close to the learning strategies by having them put themselves in the learners' place and by the psycholinguistic analysis of the most frequent errors made by the learners. Thus, it seems important for teacher training programmes to include a psycholinguistic component focusing on the findings of interlanguage studies, the role of previous linguistic knowledge, psycholinguistic error

analysis, and language learning strategies. Such a component together with a reasonable degree of proficiency in the native and target language and an ability to carry out simple contrastive comparisons may enable the teacher to arrive at a learner-centred approach to tackling at least some of the learners' most frequent problems. The various training courses that tell the teachers about language do not seem to produce competent teachers. It is the case in Sudan that teachers are taught phonetics but that knowledge usually does not improve their pronunciation in English. Apart from the deeply rooted habits of Arabic, such a problem can also be attributed to the fact that the teachers, like their students, opt for nothing more than passing the examination at the end of the course. Courses in theoretical linguistics and the grammar of English provide teachers with facts about the language which are in turn imparted to the students when the teaching-learning situation is not conducive to the development of language as a skill or when the teachers themselves do not have the skill. Unlike facts about language gained from phonetics or grammar, facts about learning seem to be useful when imparted to the learners. In other words, telling learners about how language is learned seems to be more effective in solving their problems than telling them how language works. Needless to say, further research in learner-centred teacher training is greatly needed.

The results of the present study give support to many researchers (e.g. Hassan, 1977; Nickel and Wanger, 1968; Sridhar, 1976) in their claim that foreign language

coursebooks and materials should consider the specific problems of each group of learners. Such coursebooks and materials can be designed in a way that gives special attention to the common and most frequent errors made due to interlinguistic transfer, since such errors constitute about half of the total made. The teacher's book, in particular, can include simple interlinguistic comparisons to be presented to the learners in the problem areas when all the learners are adults and speak the same native language. It can also include an introductory section about the role of the native language in foreign language learning so that the teacher can use it as a preparatory stage before carrying out the comparisons in the problem areas. This preparatory stage can be an integral part of the explanations until the teacher feels that the learners have reached a stage where such an introduction is not necessary.

Another implication that can be drawn from the results of this study is the reduction of the formality of pedagogical grammar as far as possible. The grammatical explanations contained in a language coursebook or teacher-developed material can approximate the learner's grammar as reflected by his or her hypotheses formation process. The more metalinguistic terms and complicated analyses are avoided, the more the learner is involved, and hence the smaller the gap becomes between teaching and learning strategies.

The recommended technique of contrastive comparisons intended to counteract interlinguistic errors can be extended to the areas where the learners make errors due to intralinguistic transfer. Adult learners can be made aware of the role of their previous knowledge of the target language and the strategies underlying the deviant forms they produce. Grammatical explanations can take the form of simple comparisons within the target language forms and structures so that the learners can comprehend the underlying rules governing the production of the correct form without necessarily being able to verbalize these rules.

Although the 714 students who participated in the present study can be said to be representative of more than 200,000 adult Sudanese learners of English as a foreign language, further research is needed to confirm the present findings before they can be generalized. Future research on the effectiveness of error-based comparisons as a learner-centred technique of minimizing transfer errors in the interlanguage of adult foreign-language learners may include:

1. Replication of this study with other groups of Arabic-speaking adult learners of English in Sudan and other Arab countries and with other learners of English from different native-language backgrounds having the same problem.
2. Teaching the other problem areas within the relative clause construction such as omission of

the relative pronoun and substitution of relative pronouns.

3. Teaching the other grammar areas where the majority of the learners make frequent errors due to transfer.
4. Teaching problem areas in other language skills such as pronunciation, vocabulary, reading strategies, language functions and discourse.

Needless to say, the selection of problem areas to be taught will, after all, be based on the results of a psycholinguistic error analysis focusing on the strategies underlying the production of the errors. Error analysis will, in turn, benefit from further research on language acquisition and interlanguage which will hopefully reveal more about the learners' strategies and the learning process. Further investigation is needed to reveal more about the psycholinguistic distance between the native and the target language and to shed more light on transfer when the second or foreign language learners know more than one version of the native language.

The results of the present study suggest a need for systematic research comparing the interlinguistic comparisons technique with a modified version of the currently used technique: presentation of the same rules and grammatical analysis in the normal lesson (Appendix I) with the least

amount of grammatical terminology. Further research on the use of simple interlinguistic comparisons may manipulate other important variables such as (1) the teachers' qualifications (2) the teacher's attitudes towards using the native language in foreign language teaching, and (3) the language that can be used as a medium of instruction: Should it be English, modern standard Arabic or colloquial Arabic? A related issue that requires systematic empirical verification concerns the effectiveness of using the native language in giving instructions in tests and exercises. Should they be given in the foreign language, native language, or both? If both, in which order?

Since the traditional technique of teaching English grammar in Sudan can, among other factors, be attributed to the influence of teaching the grammar of Arabic, a learner-centred technique may help in weaning the teachers of Arabic from the habit of giving rules and complicated analysis in their attempts to develop their students' linguistic competence in modern standard Arabic (MSA). The Sudanese teachers of Arabic are frequently observed complaining about the deterioration of the students' standards in MSA. They usually refer to transfer from colloquial Arabic (CA) as a major 'factor' contributing to this deterioration. However, transfer from CA is, in fact, not a 'factor' but an indication of the deterioration due, among other factors, to the way students are taught. Accordingly, the findings of the present study suggest a need for similar experimentation in teaching the grammar of MSA. Improvement in the teaching

and learning of MSA may in turn promote English language teaching and learning so long as the latter is also negatively affected by the former.

Although this study gives much support to the use of error-based interlinguistic comparisons to reduce literal translation errors in the interlanguage of adult learners of English, however, there are limitations which should be taken into account. Based on the results of the analysis of errors collected from written compositions, the relative clause construction was chosen to be taught as the most problematic area. A major shortcoming of using free writing as a basis for error analysis is that it gives room for avoidance of problems on the part of the learners. Collection and analysis of errors over a period of time using controlled elicitation techniques might have revealed a more problematic area.

Although translation seems to be an efficient technique of elicitation of specific forms and structures, it may not suit the purpose of statistical analysis. Like free composition, but to a lesser degree, it gives room for free expression in spite of the instructions given to the students. In the present study, only five percent of the total number of students who took the pre-test produced the same number of active object relative clauses in the post-test even though they had been instructed, in Arabic, to stick to the ideas and grammatical forms and structures of the Arabic passage. Some of the students translated at the word level, giving an English word for each Arabic word. It

is most probably this kind of translation that increases interlinguistic errors. Some students translated at the level of ideas; they did not stick to the structures of the Arabic passage. Like free writing, translation also poses problems in classification of errors due to ambiguity, (Section 5.1.3.2).

In schools where more than two classes participated in the experiment, the teacher had to teach a very large group in a big hall, a situation which was worse than that of the normal classroom in the Sudanese schools. The teacher had to lecture more than 100 students in an unprepared hall. Problems of sight, hearing and participation in discussion are inherent in such a situation.

The total number of students who were chosen to participate in the study was 1597. The sample size went down to 714 (i.e. 55% were lost) due to (1) the matching procedure based on the scores of the pre-test and post-test, (2) the absence of some students either in the pre-test, the lesson, or the post-test, (3) forgetting to write the names on the answer sheet, a problem which led to the loss of two students instead of one in each case because the matching procedure was based on the names, and (4) the fact that two classes were lost in one of the schools because the participant teacher did not turn up on the experimentation day for strong reasons and some other one volunteered to replace him without having been thoroughly acquainted with the procedures.

An important factor which might have had an effect on the results of this study is that of novelty. This factor might have positively affected the performance of the experimental group in spite of the introduction of a preparatory stage in the normal lesson. Since grammar is usually taught in isolation from other language skills and as an end in itself, explicit discussion of the relationship between grammar and composition and summary writing was new to most of the students. The native language is usually used for all other purposes but not for making interlinguistic comparisons as a technique of teaching grammar. This technique was new to the students, therefore, the findings of this study are tentative and need to be verified by further experimentation over a period of time that is long enough for the technique to become a regular classroom routine.

NOTES

1. The passage was given in modern standard Arabic (MSA). It could have also been given in colloquial Arabic (CA) since the relative clause construction is almost the same in both varieties and the Arabic-speaking learners of English may transfer such clauses from MSA as well as from CA as has been indicated by the pilot test (page 70). Giving the passage in CA might have also been in line with the assumption that learners transfer from the language which they are most familiar with, in this case CA, because it is the variety of Arabic acquired as a mother tongue. The students' response to the informally addressed question of whether they think in Arabic and write in English also revealed that most of them think in CA, not in MSA, (see Note 3 below).

However, since CA is usually spoken and not written, it would take students a considerable time to read CA because it differs from MSA in many linguistic aspects and because people differ in their conventions when writing in CA. For example, the MSA word 'nafqid' (= we lose) is usually 'binafqid' in CA, which means either 'we lose' or 'we will lose'. The present writer found the following sentence in a text translated from CA: 'Some patients creep to get out of hospital before they are allowed'. Reference to the CA version revealed that the sentence should have been 'Some patients want to get out....'. The translator used 'creep' because the CA word was 'biyifbu'. Since the gemination mark, like other inflection marks, is not used in CA, the word could be read as either 'biyifbu' (= creep) or 'biyifhibbu' (= want). Although the gemination mark is also not usually used in MSA, the lexical and grammatical differences could have led to the correct translation of the word. Grammatically, the MSA word 'yuhibbu:n' is followed by '?an' which is not used in CA. Lexically, the equivalent of 'want' in that context would be 'yawaddu:n' which is not found in CA.

2. See e.g. Tadros 1966 for an analysis of the errors made by the Sudanese students in the use of pronouns in English, and Kharma 1987, and Kharma and Hajjaj 1989 for an analysis of the errors made by Kuwaiti students in the construction of relative clauses in English.
3. One of the students was supported by his classmates when he protested against the language of the passage. He said he would usually think in CA and not in MSA when he wrote in English. He continued saying that he would first 'translate' the passage into CA in his mind and then into English.
4. However, teacher-induced grammar or vocabulary errors may be made when giving the English equivalents of

Arabic words. The teacher may give what he believes to be the root or infinitive form of an English word expecting the students to use its derivatives or correct forms according to the context. For reasons such as low proficiency level in English or being in a hurry to finish the exercise, the students may use the words given by the teacher as they are. Thus, the following errors found in the students' translations were among a large number which might have been teacher-induced:

- *...when he come back he try avoid people.....
- *The habits which migrants bring is unsuitable...
- *The country which....are the rich Arab country.

Such errors might have been due to giving 'try, avoid, is, country' as roots equivalent to 'yuḥa:wil; yatafa:da, taku:n,dawla' in Arabic.

5. In some cases the students resolved ambiguity either by using 'a comma before or after' 'it' or by repeating 'it' in the same place as in the following examples:

- *The countries which migrants go to, it is....
- *The countries which migrants go to it, is....
- *The countries which migrants go to it, it is.

6. In Arabic, the preposition never comes before the relative pronoun even if the relative pronoun is placed at the beginning of the relative clause. In all cases the object personal pronoun is suffixed to the preposition as in the following examples:

(1) ?al duwal ?allati yaḥhabu ?ilyha ?al na:s
The countries which go to it the people

(2) ?al duwal ?allati ?ilayha yaḥhabu ?al na:s
The countries which to it go the people

In rare cases the low-proficiency students (those who scored less than 50% in the pretest) used the preposition before the relative pronoun but repeated the same preposition at the end of the relative clause with the personal pronoun suffixed to it (e.g....the language of the countries to which they go to it). The problem in this case is probably one of losing control over the clause structure; being unaware of the placement of the preposition at the beginning of the clause, or one of having full control over the process of transfer to the extent of searching for a place for the personal pronoun carried over from Arabic.

7. Since the relative clauses were taught in the first year (Corbluth, 1979, pp.46-48,87,88,95), in the second year

(Corbluth, 1981, pp.99 and 140) and at the beginning of the third year (Corbluth, 1982, p.14) the experimental lesson was remedial. A summary of relative clauses together with exercises would appear again in the third year coursebook (Corbluth, 1982, pp 131 and 132).

8. Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) mentioned comparisons between English and Arabic as one of a list of techniques of teaching pronunciation (only consonants, not vowels, stress or intonation) and vocabulary, (pp21 and 85). They did not mention such comparisons in teaching grammar and discourse. The same point applies also to the techniques suggested by Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989).

GLOSSARY**Achievement Strategies**

These are the steps which the learner takes in order to fill in the gaps in the target language knowledge. They include linguistic strategies such as making use of previous linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic strategies such as gesture and asking for help. Achievement strategies are sometimes referred to as compensatory strategies or resource expansion strategies. (p. 35) *

Acquisition

Refers to the process of internalizing the rules and principles of language (see Learning). According to Krashen (1981, 1982), acquisition is the spontaneous internalization of language rules, forms and functions as a result of exposure to language data. As such, it is believed to be different from learning which involves conscious knowledge of how the language works. (p.31).

Acquisition-poor Environment

A continuum ranging from situations where the learners' exposure to the target language is confined to a few hours of language study as a school subject to situations where the target language is studied as a school subject in addition to being used as a medium of instruction in other subjects. (p.1)

*Page number indicates the place where the term first appeared.

Acquisition-rich Environment

Refers to the situation where the learner is exposed to the target language as a means of everyday communication. In addition, the learners may be exposed to the language as a school subject and as a medium of instruction. (p. 1)

Addition

Refers to the instances where the learner incorrectly inserts a form in the target language due to negative transfer from a previously learned language or form the language being learned. For example, Arabic-speaking learners of English often use the definite article 'the' before abstract and mass nouns such as 'life, water'. A learner may say 'We went to the home' on the basis of 'We went to the house'. (p.56)

Arabicization

Using Arabic as a medium of instruction at any educational level in an Arabic-speaking country instead of a foreign language. Accordingly the foreign language materials, textbooks and references are replaced by Arabic ones. The foreign language may be retained as a school subject. (p. 5)

Avoidance

Avoidance is one of the strategies which language learners employ when their linguistic knowledge falls short of achieving their communicative goals. The learners may either abandon the topic altogether or reduce the message functionally or structurally to suit their linguistic means. (p.56)

Behaviourist Learning Theory

The theory where learning is seen as a matter of habit formation involving stimulus, response, reinforcement and repetition of correct responses. The theory focuses on external factors and de-emphasises the role of internal mental ones. (p.48)

Code-switching

It is a linguistic achievement strategy where learners use mother or other tongue words, phrases, or sentences when they do not know the relevant target language forms. (p.23)

Commercial Teaching

Sudanese teachers of EFL use 'commercial teaching' to refer to the kind of teaching which aims at satisfying the school administration, finishing the course, or enabling the students to pass the examinations. This kind of teaching often falls short of developing the students' skill in the language as a means of communication. (p. 7)

Communication Strategies

Communication strategies account for how learners use their knowledge of the language and how they get around the problems of communication when they lack the requisite linguistic knowledge. The learner may employ either avoidance strategies such as topic abandonment and message adjustment, or achievement strategies such as linguistic transfer from previous linguistic knowledge, gesture and appeal for help. (p. 50)

Communicative Approach

A set of techniques that aim at teaching language as a means of communication rather than a group of linguistic forms and structures devoid of social context. According to the communicative approach, structures can be learned through expression of functions and notions. Appropriacy in language use is as important as linguistic accuracy. Students are trained to express meaning by using different forms and structures depending on the social context. Activities such as games and role playing are believed to be useful in creating context for communication. Active participation on the part of the learners makes the teacher's role less central. (p. 3)

Competence

According to Ellis (1985), competence refers to the internalization of the linguistic rules and patterns and their organisation into a system. The ability to use these rules is referred to as performance. Linguistic competence refers to the knowledge of linguistic rules as part of communicative competence which also includes the appropriate use of these rules to convey meanings in different communicative situations. (p. 23)

Consciousness Raising

According to Rutherford (1988) consciousness raising (CR) refers to the process of drawing the learners' attention to the formal features of the language. It is "a continuum ranging from intensive promotion of conscious awareness through pedagogical

rule articulation on the one end, to the mere exposure of the learner to specific grammatical phenomena on the other". Elsewhere (Rutherford, 1987) he sees CR as different from grammar teaching in that CR is necessary but not sufficient and the learner contributes, whereas grammar teaching is necessary and sufficient and the learner is a tabula rasa . (p. 34)

Contrastive Analysis

Refers to the systematic comparison of some aspect or aspects of two or more languages. (p.47)

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

This hypothesis maintains that languages are different and the learners' errors are due to this difference. The strong version of the hypothesis sees the differences between languages as a basis for the prediction of errors. The weak version sees the differences as a basis for explanation of some of the errors that are actually made. (p. 47)

Creative Construction Hypothesis

As proposed by Dulay and Burt (1973, 1975, 1977), the hypothesis represents a reaction against the behaviourist habit learning theory. According to this hypothesis, language acquisition, whether first, second, or foreign, is considered as a creative process. The hypothesis de-emphasises the role of the native language in second or foreign language learning. The influence of the native language is excluded from the creative aspects of second or foreign language learning because of its association with the behaviourist learning

theory, (i.e. interference of old habits). The hypothesis is sometimes referred to as the identity hypothesis or L2=L1 hypothesis. (p.47)

Cross-linguistic Influence

The effect of one language on learning and using another language. This may lead to positive transfer (i.e. production of correct forms) or negative transfer (i.e. error) depending on the distance between the languages as perceived by the learner. (p.56)

Developmental Errors

Errors that occur in the course of learning a native, second or foreign language and disappear as the learner's competence in the language increases, (see Fossilized errors). (p. 61)

Error Analysis

Refers to the collection by researchers and language teachers of language data from learners for the purpose of identifying errors, and classifying and describing them according to their linguistic categories and according to their frequencies and underlying strategies. (p. 30)

Feedback

The response which the learners get in the form of correction, confirmation, or mere exposure to the language data. Feedback helps the learners to verify (i.e. accept or reject) their hypothesis about the target language and hence represents a link between the strategies of learning and those of communication. (p. 50)

Foreigner Talk

The formally and/or functionally adjusted language which native speakers use when addressing non-native speakers to facilitate comprehension. (p. 57)

Foreignization

Refers to the interlinguistic transfer strategy of making the native language forms sound like the target language ones by means of phonological or morphological features transferred from the target language. For example, some Sudanese students were observed adding English morphemes such as the plural 's' and '-tion' to Arabic words (e.g. bagaras=cows, hajiration=migration). (p.56)

Formal Learning

The kind of learning that occurs in the classroom with a teacher, a syllabus, and a specific period of time and the learners are helped to learn by being made consciously aware of the target language rules. (p. 2)

Fossilized Errors

Fossilization is a term introduced by Selinker (1972) to refer to the state of failure to attain native-speaker competence in the language. Fossilized errors are those which persist irrespective of their underlying strategies and in spite of the corrective feedback provided. (p. 81)

Hypercorrection

Excessive concern about and correction of learners' errors which may in turn lead to errors. For example, the teacher's frequent correction of the third person

singular 's' in simple present tense verbs may lead the learner to use that's' in cases where it should not be used. Arabic-speakers' pronunciation of 'box' and 'bite' as 'pox' and 'pite' respectively may be due to hypercorrection. (p.39)

Hypothesis Formation

Refers to the learner's observation of language data and arriving at rules and principles which may be correct or incorrect. It is the learner's rule discovery procedure based on the language or languages he has already learned or the language he is learning. For example, observation of cases such as 'killed, tried, satisfied, etc...' may lead the learner to formulate a hypothesis (i.e. ed = pastness) about the other forms he has not heard or seen. Accordingly, he may produce forms such as 'achieved, hided, calculated, forgetted, etc....' (p. 22)

Hypothesis Testing

Refers to the process of trying out the hypotheses already formulated and, as a result, these hypothesis are either accepted or rejected. The various types of feedback which the learners get may lead them to accept or modify the hypothesis they formulated about the target language. For example, the 'ed' rule mentioned earlier in hypothesis formation may be verified upon provision of feedback (i.e. correction or exposure to the language). The feedback provided may confirm 'achieved' and 'calculated' and modify 'hided' and 'forgetted'. (p. 22)

Interface

The interface position in language learning is that there is seepage from acquisition to learning and vice versa, as opposed to the non-interface position which maintains that the two types of knowledge are separate and therefore acquired knowledge cannot become learned knowledge and vice versa (see Acquisition and Learning).

(p.136)

Interference

According to the behaviourists, learning is a matter of habit formation and the negative influence of previous learning on subsequent learning is referred to as interference, that is, old habits hindering the learning of new ones. Accordingly, the influence of the native language on the target language is interference. However, from a cognitive perspective, language learning is a creative process and, therefore, not all of the native language features that appear in the target language are cases of interference. The influence of the native language is seen as part of the hypothesis formation process which involves active thinking and creativity, (see Negative Transfer). (p. 47)

Interlanguage

A term coined by Selinker (1972) to refer to the learner's knowledge of the target language before he or she attains the native speaker's competence. The term applies to all interim languages, whether native, second or foreign, at any one stage of learning or as a series of interlocking stages. (p.23)

Interlinguistic Transfer

Refers to the achievement strategy of making use of a previously learned language in learning or using another language. This strategy includes literal translation, code-switching , and foreignization. The strategy may lead to positive or negative transfer.

(p. 23)

Intralinguistic Transfer

Refers to the achievement strategy of making use of the previously learned parts of the target language in learning or using the same language. This strategy includes over-generalization, paraphrasing, coining words and restructuring. The strategy may lead to positive or negative transfer. (p. 30)

Learning

Learning is synonymous with acquisition when it is used to refer to the process of internalizing the rules and principles of a language for the purpose of communication. Krashen (1981, 1982) uses learning to refer to the process of developing conscious or metalinguistic knowledge of the language. Internalization of linguistic rules and principles by means of analysis: observation of language data and arriving at rules and principles or direct teaching of rules. Learning does not necessary involve metalinguistic knowledge: naming the rules and patterns discovered by observation of language data. (p. 31)

Learning Strategies

According to Ellis (1985) learning strategies are devices for internalizing the rules of a language. These devices include the hypothesis formation and testing process. Learning strategies differ from communication strategies in that the former account for how learners internalize the rule system and the latter account for how learners use that system. (p. 50)

Linguistic Simplification

Refers to the production of reduced or more familiar linguistic forms and structures such as in the motherese, telegraphese, foreigner talk, and the learner's language. However, motherese and foreigner talk are simplified to facilitate comprehension. Telegraphese is simplified for the purpose of economy. The learner's language is simplified due to incomplete knowledge of the code. Although the reasons for simplification are different, the produced forms may be similar. (p. 58)

Markedness

The linguistic rules are believed to be either universal or language specific. The universal rules are considered to be unmarked while the language specific ones are marked. (p. 65)

Metalinguage

Refers to the linguists' or grammarians' jargon: the language used to talk about language. The naming of linguistic categories and describing how language works by using terms such as relative pronouns, adverbial,

prepositional phrase and so forth is called metalinguistic knowledge. (p. 46)

Motherese

Motherese is the simplified language which mothers and other caretakers use when addressing children. Like foreigner talk, motherese is intended to facilitate comprehension and sustain communication. According to Krashen (1981, 1982) motherese and foreigner talk may help in acquisition since they provide 'comprehensible input'. (p.57)

Negative Transfer

Refers to the formation of incorrect hypotheses about the target language based on the knowledge of the mother or other tongue, or on the partial knowledge of the target language itself. Negative transfer can be seen as different from interference in that in the former case the learner engages in active thinking to make up for the parts he or she does not know. In the latter case the learner may know the relevant target language form but still finds it difficult to get rid of an old 'habit' particularly when learning motor skills such as pronunciation. (p. 31)

Omission

Refers to errors made due to dropping a form in the target language due to negative transfer from the native language or the language being learned. For example, an Arabic speaker may say 'A man met me gave me this bag', thus dropping the subject relative pronoun 'who' as a result of transferring the Arabic relative clause when

the head noun is indefinite. Omission of the relative pronoun in 'The person always sits here is called Ali' may be based on observation of cases such as 'The person I met is called Ali'. (p. 56)

Over-generalization

Refers to the intralinguistic transfer strategy which leads native, second and foreign language learners to produce forms such as 'goed, mans, unlegal, etc...'. These are instances of extending the scope of applicability of rules to the cases that are not covered by these rules. (p. 30)

Positive Transfer

Refers to the formation of correct hypotheses about the largest language based on the mother or other tongue, or on the partial knowledge of the target language itself. However, when a learner produces a form correctly, it may be difficult to tell whether it is due to positive transfer (i.e. formation of a correct hypothesis) or due to facilitation resulting from the similarity of the new 'habit' and an old one in the behaviourist sense. Furthermore, the production of a correct form may be due to 'acquisition' according to Krashen's (1981, 1982) definition, (see Acquisition). (p. 31)

Proficiency

Proficiency refers to the learner's linguistic or communicative competence in the target language. Second or foreign language proficiency is usually measured in relation to the native speakers' proficiency. (p. 24)

Psycholinguistic Distance

Refers to the degree of similarity or difference between the native and the target language as perceived by the learner. Contrary to the predictions of a purely linguistic contrastive analysis, the forms that are different in the two languages may be easy to learn.

(p. 48)

Reordering

Refers to the incorrect arrangement of the target language forms due to negative transfer from the native language or the language being learned. For example, an Arab learner of English may say 'He not will come' following the native language order 'huwa ma:ña yiji'. Another example from Arabic speaking learners is 'the countries the rich', most probably produced on the basis of the Arabic word order where the noun usually comes before the adjective. (p.56)

Restructuring

Restructuring is an intralinguistic strategy: the learner attempts to communicate by using a certain structure and, upon the discovery of a linguistic problem, changes his or her mind and uses another structure. For example, a learner may begin a passive construction and change it into an active one when he or she does not know which form of the verb 'BE' to use or not sure of the past participle of the main verb.

(p. 63)

Simplification

Simplification refers to the way in which learners try to ease the task of learning or using the target language. They opt for a maximum degree of learning or communication by making use of the limited number of rules and patterns they already know. Task simplification may result in errors of omission (i.e. linguistic simplification), errors of substitution, addition, reordering. (p. 56)

Substitution

Refers to the error of using one linguistic form instead of another due to negative transfer from the native or the target language. For example, an Arabic speaker was observed saying 'They laughed on me'. The use of 'on' instead 'at' may be due to transfer from Arabic where 'ʕala' is often used in cases where English uses 'on'. The error in 'He came in Monday' may be due to negative transfer from (1) the native language, Arabic, where 'fi' is used in most cases where English uses 'in', or (2) the target language, English, on the basis of other cases such as 'in April, in 1985'.

(p. 56)

Target Language

The target language is the language that is being learned whether second or foreign. (p. 25)

Telegraphese

Refers to the language of telegrams where some structure words are dropped, some content words are shortened and abbreviations are used with the sole aim

of economy. (p. 57)

Transfer

Transfer in language learning (i.e. linguistic transfer) refers to the process of making use of previous linguistic knowledge in learning or using a language, (see Interlinguistic and Intralinguistic Transfer). (p. 23)

APPENDIX A**Quotations from Free Compositions written by
Sudanese Secondary-School EFL Teachers**

- Teacher (1): Most of our students have deserted English from that very beginning of their study due to the harsh treatment of their former teachers. Unfortunately those teachers didn't teach them how to enjoy English, they just punish them and curse them.
- Teacher (2): The [intermediate school] teachers do not give enough exercises in writing. Also some teachers in the intermediate school are not well experiences, so the result will be that bad hand-writing.
- Teacher (3): It is very difficult for students to use the language because they don't well trained in the previous intermediate schools...the students have no any desire to study Nile Course because it is really needs to well trained teachers, and teachers who specialized in English language. Therefore they, the teachers, marginalize teaching the Nile Course, they concentrated in teaching grammar. So grammar of course is more comprehensive for students that other parts of the language, so the student gradually pay more attention to study grammar and this resulted in their bad results which they obtain annually.
- Teacher (4): The first problem is that most of the students shame of their language, therefore they don' try to talk in English. They always speak to the teacher in Arabic language and ask the teacher to explain everything in Arabic.
- Teacher (5): My girls can talk and write for they have a great ambition and they are interested in their lesson so as to go forward and study at university, beside that most of my girls spend most of their life abroad and they have got ability in using English as well as the foreigner themselves...some of the student try to translate the Arabic words in English, the worried and refused to share us in the class why I don't know.
- Teacher (6): Most students are unable to differentiate between the mother tongue and English as a foreign language and this leads to the problem of translation.

- Teacher (7): Nile Course [book] 4 is not complicated compared with [book] 5 but as for the grammar material is not enough and is scattered, that is why students complain of the quality of grammar and tend to search for other sources of books to help them.
- Teacher (8): A lot of students entertain in their mind that English is grammar only and so they are greatly obsessed by it. they don't confide in Nile Course at all and so they don't confide in the teacher who might draw their attention to its material of which they incessantly complain and they admit it provide them with a lot of boredom and monotony.
- Teacher (9): To my opinion, the old books were so interesting and exciting..1.So the Nile Course is an excellent book.... but if they conclude all the grammar and some peon or proverb I think it will be interesting.
- Teacher (10): One [problem] is that accumulation of the students in the class the number of students sometime exceeds eighty students and this prevents the process of following up the students with their work in the class as there are not channels for the teacher to pass through the desks for marking and correcting their work. Moreover, the students generally in secondary schools are weak at spelling, they make silly mistakes with simple words. I could also add to this that the students hate composition too much and they don't carry out homework and the exercises given by teacher.
- Teacher (11): Believe it or not you can find more than ninety (90) students in one class, therefore it is very difficult for the teacher to make control on and follow up the whole class. Secondly, shortage of books and materials is the biggest problem, because more than three students share one book.
- Teacher (12): The third problem is resulted from the lack of books - thus you may find one book for more than three students.
- Teacher (13): A.....fatal problem is that the teachers of English are overloaded. This problem results in, the teacher can not follow up his students and their homework. Related to this also some classes are overcrowded and of course the participation of all the class will be impossible.

Teacher (14):

A second problem which faces the English teacher in some schools is the problem of suitable English readers. Even in the schools where you find a lot of English books, you find that it is difficult for the students to understand. A third problem which has been facing me since I started teaching is that you have no time to go through all the exercise books to see the work of the students. This problem I think is a result of the great number of classes given for a teacher. I think that the number of students given to a teacher should not exceed 80 students, in order to enable him to check their work and follow them daily.

APPENDIX B

Teacher-made Grammar Notes

* NOTES ON SOME
GRAMMATICAL ITEMS

BY USTAZ

WAD MEDANI BOYS SCHOOL

Pronouns:-

Words which stand instead of nouns.

They can be divided into the following according to their positions in the sentences:-

- a) subjects in the sentences.
- b) Objective pronouns . They are always objects in the sentences.
- c) Possessive pronouns. These which imply possession-somethings or things belong to nouns

e.g : My, Mine, His, Your, Yours, Our, Ours, Their, Theirs, It, Her, Hers,.

2

Notes on English Grammar

Collected by Ustaz:

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

This is (a) or (an).

- * The form (a) is used before words beginning with a consonant, or a vowel sounded like a consonant, e.g.
a boy, a bus, a university.
- * The form (an) is used before words beginning with a vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or words beginning with a mute (h), e.g. an hour, an egg, an honour, an elephant.
- * Used before singular countable nouns when mentioned for the first time and stands for no particular person or thing.
A horse is an animal. She met a man.
- * Used before a singular countable noun when used as an example of a class of things, e.g.
A camel never forgives.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

A conditional clause has two parts : the 'if' clause, and the 'main clause'

In the sentence: 'If he comes, I shall tell you.
'If he comes', is the if clause, and 'I shall tell you', is the main clause.

There are three types of conditional clauses :

1) PROBABLE CONDITION:-

The verb in the if-clause is in the present tense, the verb in the main clause is in the future tense,

2) IMPROBABLE CONDITON:-

The verb in the if-clause is in the simple past tense, the verb in the main clause is a 'would do' tense i.e. a conditional tense,

3) IMPOSSIBLE CONDITION:-

The verb in the if-clause is in the past perfect tense, the verb in the main clause is a 'would have done' tense, i.e. perfect conditional tense,

Clause Of Condition :

It has three types . .

- (a) type (1) "possible" .
[present in the adverbial clause and future in the main clause].
If it rains , I shall stay at home .

If he has finished his work , we will be able to take him .
If you help me , we can finish by six .
- (b) type (2) "impossible" .
[past simple in the adverbial clause and would or should in the main clause]
If he came , I would see him .
Even if you were to try , you wouldn't be able to do it .
- (c) type (3) improbable .
[past perfect in the adverbial and conditional perfect in the main clause].
If I had seen him , I would have saved him .
If you had been at the meeting , I should have seen you .
Had he asked me , I would have advised him .

12.3.1989

Int. to Summary

meaning of summary = Precis

Brief and clear statement with readable and connected shape of the substance of longer passage:

- ① compression of words
- ② compression of ideas
- ③ compression of words

RF: express the passage again by using the lesser numbers of words

Compression of Ideas:

the art of how select the main point and reject an important [details and examples]

Sentence [سنتینس]

Simple sentence

consists of only clause (sup. verb)

e.g. Ali went away

Compound sentence

consists Main clause + Co-ordinate clause

Main clause

The main clause important sentence

Co-ordinate clause

The same important as the main clause
Co-ordinate conjunction and ^{or} ~~and~~

e.g. Ali went away and bought a pen.

Complex sentence

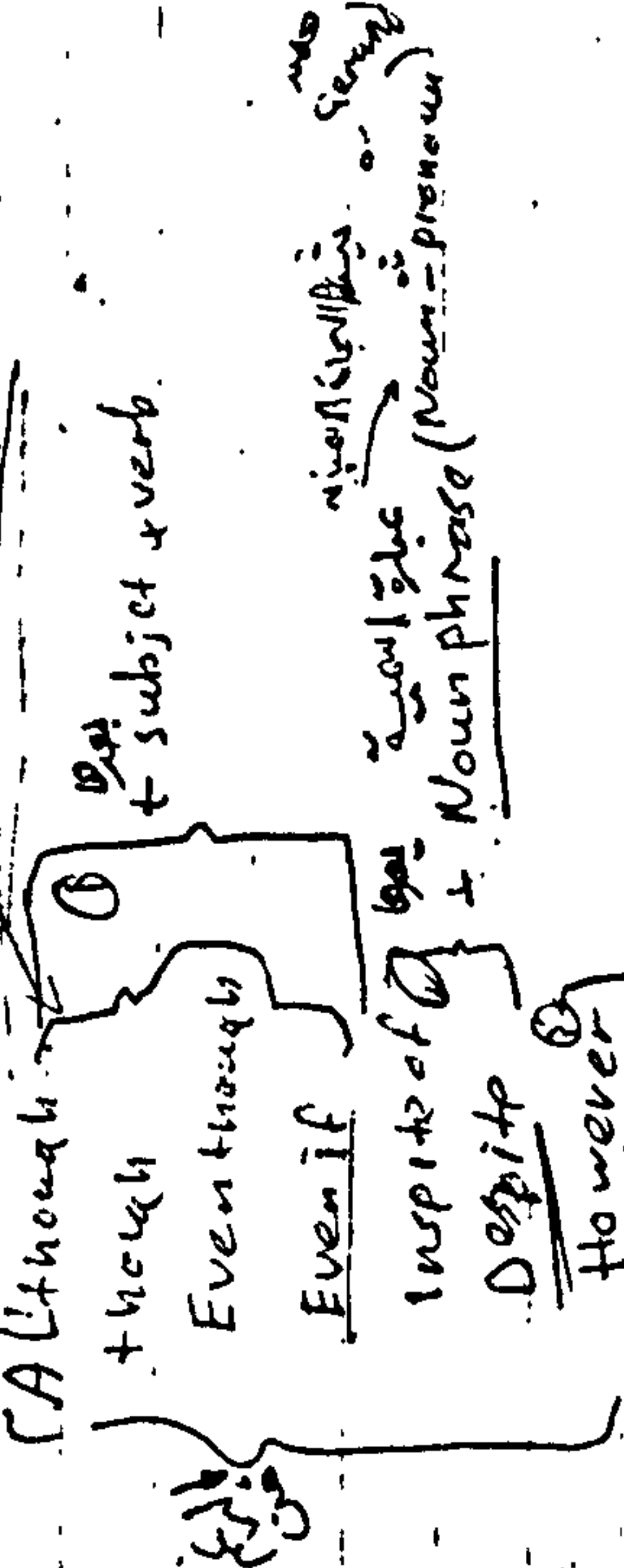
consist. Main clause + (Subordinate)

e.g. While I was going to school I met Ali
Subordinate + Main clause → Complex

met. Ali while I was going to school
e.g. Although the examination was difficult many student were able to pass.
Words

Shorter construction

e.g. Although we were tired, we did not want to leave
Main clause
subordinate
cause of contrast



Note: These are two pages from a student's notebook

APPENDIX C

An Arabic Grammar Lesson

الإبدال والإعلاء

(١) قلب الألف والياء وأو

الأمثلة

شُوهِدَ الهَرَمُ .	شَاهَدَ السَّاحُونَ الهَرَمَ .
حُوكِمَ السُّهْمُ .	حَاكَمَ القَاضِي السُّهْمَ .
سُوِّحَ المُنْدَبُ .	سَامَعَ الحَكِيمُ المُنْدَبَ .

فَأَلْتَمِرُ مَوْبِعُ .	أَبَيْعَ الشَّعْرُ .
فَأَلْتَأَجِرُ مَوْبِرُ .	أَبَيْسَرَ التَّاجِرُ .
فَأَنَا مَوْقِنٌ بِهِ .	أَبَيْتُ بِالخَيْرِ .

البحث

الأفعال في الطائفة الأولى مبنية للمعلوم منتزعة على ألف زائدة ، وفي الأمثلة المقابلة لما ترى الأفعال نفسها مبنية للمجهول ، وترى أن هذا البناء سبب ضم أولها ، ثم إنك لا تجد الألف التي كانت في أفعال القسم الأول ، ويجد مكانها واو ، وإذا بحثت عن سبب لهذا التغيير لا ترى إلا حدوث الضم قبل الألف ، وكذلك شأن كل ألف بطراً للضم على ما قبلها : فإنها قلب واو .

١٩

والأفعال في الطائفة الثانية بها ياء مفتوح ما قبلها ، وإذا رجعت إلى الأمثلة المقابلة لما لا تجد هذه الأفعال ، بل تجد اسم فاعل لكل منها ، ثم إنك لا ترى في اسم الفاعل الياء التي كانت في فعله ، بل تجد مكانها واو ، وإذا تساءلت عن السبب لم تر إلا أن الياء بعد أن كانت في الفعل ساكنة بعد فتح أصبحت في اسم الفاعل ساكنة بعد ضم ، ولهذا قلبت واو ، وكذلك كل ياء في غير هذه الأمثلة تقع ساكنة بعد ضم .

فانت ترى من الأمثلة السابقة أن حرفاً وُضِعَ بدل حرف ، فوضعت الواو بدل الألف في الأمثلة الأولى ، وبدل الياء في الأمثلة الثانية ، وهذا يسمى إبدالاً ، ولما كان الحرف المتغير حرف علة صح أن يسمى إعلالاً أيضاً .

القواعد

(٥) الإبدالُ جَعْلُ حَرْفٍ مَكَانَ آخَرَ ، وَإِذَا كَانَ الحَرْفُ

المتغير حَرْفَ عِلَّةٍ يُسَمَّى إعْلَالاً أَيْضاً .

(٦) إِذَا وَقَعَتِ الألفُ بَعْدَ ضَمِّ ثِقَلٍ وَأَوَّ .

(٧) إِذَا وَقَعَتِ الياءُ سَاكِنَةً بَعْدَ ضَمِّ ثِقَلٍ وَأَوَّ .

تعرين (١)

إِنِّي للمجهول كل فعل مما يأتي وبين ما يحدث فيه من الإعلاء وسببه :
زاحم . ناقص . صادر . صاحب . باذر . جاهد .

(١) بعد قلب المزة حرف علة إعلالاً كما إذا اجتمع مرثان وكانت هائية ساكنة فإنها قلبت مناً من جنس حركة الأولى ، نحو آمن أمين إيماناً .

APPENDIX D

Sample Free Compositions written by
Sudanese Secondary-School EFL Teachers

Composition 1

No doubt that, English teaching now a day faced many problems. Teaching a foreign language is a real problem, because many students are not accustomed to hear, read or listen the language before. So there are many problems existed in teaching English.

Many problems faced our students; Firstly: the feeling that English is a difficult language. Secondly the weakness of the students standard. Thirdly the base of their studies is not concrete. Fourthly: the English programme is not as suitable for the students standard and the time allowed through the academic year. Many unexpected vacations are set through the year. Some times we do not find a qualified teachers. So I think many problems are intermingling to cause this decrease and failure in studying English language. Sometimes we can add the problem of having exhausted teacher who is doing two phases in a day, so the out put of the teacher himself will be lower. The students are not practicing English as much as required, so they keep the language only on their note books, as other subjects which depend on keeping information.

There are many firm actions which can be done to overcome this problem; the most important is the stability of academic year and the teacher have enough time to overcome the programme. Moreover, using many assistant tools to study the language. Teacher must make the students familiar to the language by doing many homework and out reading in addition to having a good change of spoken English. At the end we can improve out students standard.

Composition 2

Firstly, English language is lik any other language in the world, there for much problems facing it in different fields, and there must be solutions and recommendations to the authorities so as to see for a full integrated English Course which assists and helps in spreading this essential language and to have our ultimate goal.

These problems I can include them in three points, firstly the lack of a full integrated English Course combing with the modern methods of teaching, a pupil is always seeking for things that are interesting and

amusing, that is to use the Audio Visual means of teaching and have cassettes and so on.

The second problem is that a trained and a qualified teacher so as to achieve this aim or goal then in the classroom this problem may be an obstacle or a hindrances to give the student using different skills of teaching and try to simplify it for them.

Thirdly, the student himself in the classroom with no ambition or he is passive and inactive in order to carry out the load and to get on with his work and do his exercise. Beside this the time element it self is a problem, why because one may need about eight months all through the year to complete the English Course and to tackle the different aspects of language and the different skills, speaking, reading writing and listening. In the last lack of Reference and some important books related to the topic.

There are some solutions if maintained there will be a slight increase in the standards of English language among the students and lies on the shoulders of the Ministry of Education to improve the schools and to give them their needs of books, References and the modern teaching methods, beside training and helping in the different field of education or to have a solutions to the above problems.

APPENDIX E

Arabic Words in English Texts

1.A Passage from a Coursebook

C. THE RAT TRAP: Part Two

The Criminals Meet

Two men sat together in a small upstairs room in a poor district of Ashborough. They were very different. One of them was a small, mild-looking man in a rather dirty old suit, a man who always looked as if he was avoiding you, who always looked guilty. This was George Moss—"The Mouse"—who had been a burglar in Ashborough for the last twenty years. He never used violence, he had great skill at safe-breaking but no skill at avoiding arrest, so he had a long police record.

Fred "Ratface" Randall, by contrast, was a tall, thin, smartly-dressed fellow with a face which did indeed make you think of a rat. For many years he had made money by all kinds of criminal activities, and he had been clever enough to avoid prison for most of the time, unlike "The Mouse". "The Mouse" was clever with his hands; "Rats" was just clever—and he could be cruel.

At this moment, Moss was not looking very cheerful. In fact, he was looking miserable—as he usually did.

"It's impossible to trick the police these days," he was saying, "We'll never do it."

"Nonsense!" exclaimed Randall, "It's quite easy to fool Inspector Sharp. I've done it before, and I'll do it again. Don't be so pessimistic."

"Pessimistic!" cried Moss, "Listen, I'm 48 and I've spent about twelve years of my life in prison. I don't want to go back again."

"Don't worry. The local police aren't so clever. Anyway, I've telephoned Sharp already—in the middle of the night too." Randall laughed as he said this.

"What for?" asked Moss, very surprised.

"To tell him our plans," answered Randall, smiling.

Moss got up from his chair, angry and frightened.

"What do you mean?" he shouted.

"Calm down," said Randall, "I haven't told him our *real* plans. I've told him you're going to break into Barclays Bank in Charter Street."

"But why tell him that?"

"So that he will send all his men there, of course, while we're busy at the jeweller's in Church Street."

"It wasn't easy to make Sharp believe that, was it?" asked "The Mouse".

"I think he believes me; maybe Sergeant Tibbits doesn't. So don't worry, George. Everything will be all right."

Randall certainly didn't look worried. He was not the sort of man to worry about someone else going to prison.

2.A Supplementary Reading Passage

Read the following passage carefully and then answer the questions

When Things Go Badly

In China famine is never away, and when it comes there are no reserves of rice to help the population until the next harvest. Lack of water is the most common cause of crop failure, and the crops fail from this cause as often as one year in every five. The other extreme of nature - floods - comes next as a cause of famine. The rivers burst their banks and spread destruction for and wide over the flat plains. In the years after the floods, all the land made fertile by the deposits which the water leaves on it; but the year of floods brings death and destruction to man and beast; some are drowned and some get no food because the land is not cultivated.

Earthquakes and storms are other, though less frequent, causes of famine. A fourth cause is locusts. These insects sometimes descend in large numbers upon a wide region which is green with growing crops. In scarcely any time at all the locusts change the peasants' carefully cultivated land into a desert. About one famine in every eight that occur is partly or wholly due to locusts.

At first it seems impossible to solve the problem China. Each year, in spite of sickness, floods and hunger, the population increases, and the difficulties of improving the standard of living become more severe. But the very size of the problem is a challenge. The knowledge needed to master the enormous task now exists; it is a task which is not only China's responsibility but the world's also. Important advances have already been made, but the effort will have to be continued for many years if China's great problem is to be solved.

Draw a circle round the letter a, b, c or d of the best answer

- 1- When famine comes in China there is....
 - a) no reserves of corn
 - b) lack of water
 - c) no rice to last Chinese for a year
 - d) a common cause of crop failure
- 2- Crop failure is
 - a) usually caused by lack of water
 - b) always caused by lack of water
 - c) most commonly caused by this cause
 - d) caused as often as one year in every five.
- 3- The writer says, "floods - come next as a cause of famine. He means next to.....
 - a) famine
 - b) the harvest
 - c) crop failure
 - d) lack of water
- 4- An advantage of floods mentioned in the passage is.....
 - a) the rivers burst their banks.
 - b) that some are drowned
 - c) the land becomes rich
 - d) the land is not cultivated

3. The First Four Pages from a Literature Book

FIRST ACT

SCENE

Morning-room in Algernon's flat in Half-Moon Street. The room is luxuriously and artistically furnished. The sound of a piano is heard in the adjoining room.

(LANE is arranging afternoon tea on the table, and after the music has ceased, ALGERNON enters.)

ALGERNON: Did you hear what I was playing, Lane?

LANE: I didn't think it polite to listen, sir.

ALGERNON: I'm sorry for that, for your sake. I don't play accurately - any one can play accurately - but I play with wonderful expression. As far as the piano is concerned, sentiment is my forte. I keep science for Life.

LANE: Yes, sir.

ALGERNON: And, speaking of the science of Life, have you got the cucumber sandwiches cut for Lady Bracknell?

LANE: Yes, sir. (Hands them on a salver.)

ALGERNON (inspects them, takes two, and sits down on the sofa): Oh!... by the way, Lane, I see from your book that on Thursday night, when Lord Shoreman and Mr Worthing were dining with me, eight bottles of champagne were entered as having been consumed.

لان. من اجل الفنت و...

LANE: Yes, sir; eight bottles and a pint.

ALGERNON: Why is it that at a bachelor's establishment the servants invariably drink the champagne? I ask merely for information.

LANE: I attribute it to the superior quality of the wine, sir. I have often observed that in married households the champagne is rarely of a first-rate brand.

ALGERNON: Good heavens! Is marriage so demoralizing as that?

LANE: I believe it is a very pleasant state, sir. I have had very little experience of it myself up to the present. I have only been married once. That was in consequence of a misunderstanding between myself and a young person.

ALGERNON (languidly): I don't know that I am much interested in your family life, Lane.

LANE: No, sir; it is not a very interesting subject I never think of it myself.

ALGERNON: Very natural, I am sure. That will do, Lane, thank you.

LANE: Thank you, sir.

(LANE goes out.)

ALGERNON: Lane's views on marriage seem somewhat lax. Really, if the lower orders don't set us a good example, what on earth is the use of them? They

seem, as a class, to have absolutely no sense of moral responsibility.

(Enter LANE)

LANE: Mr Ernest Worthing.

(Enter JACK. LANE goes out.)

ALGERNON: How are you, my dear Ernest? what brings you up to town?

JACK: Oh, pleasure! pleasure! What else should bring one anywhere? Eating as usual, I see, Algy!

ALGERNON (stiffly): I believe it is customary in good society to take some slight refreshment at five o'clock. Where have you been since last Thursday?

JACK (sitting down on the sofa): In the country.

ALGERNON: What on earth do you do there?

JACK (pulling off his gloves): When one is in town one amuses oneself.

When one is in the country one amuses other people. It is excessively boring.

ALGERNON: And who are the people you amuse?

JACK (stiffly): Oh, neighbours, neighbours.

ALGERNON: Got nice neighbours in your part of shropshire?

JACK: Perfectly horrid! Never speak to one of them.

ALGERNON: How immensely you must amuse them! (Goes over and takes sandwich.) By the way, shropshire is your country, is it not?

JACK: Eh? shropshire? Yes, of course. Hallo! Why all these cups?

Why cucumber sandwiches? Why such reckless extravagance in one so young? Who is coming to tea?

ALGERNON: Oh! merely Aunt Augusta and Gwendolen.

JACK: How perfectly delightful!

ALGERNON: Yes, that is all very well; but I am afraid Aunt Augusta won't quite approve of your being here.

JACK: My I ask why?

ALGERNON: My dear fellow, the way you flirt with Gwendolen is perfectly disgraceful. It is almost as bad as the way Gwendolen flirts with you.

JACK: I am in love with Gwendolen, I have come up to town expressly to propose to her.

ALGERNON: I thought you had come up for pleasure... I call that business.

JACK: How utterly unromantic you are!

ALGERNON: I really don't see anything romantic in proposing. It is very romantic to be in love. But there is nothing romantic about a definite proposal. Why, one may be accepted. One usually is, I believe. Then the excitement is all over. The very essence of romance is uncertainty. If ever I get married, I'll certainly try to forget the fact.

JACK: I have no doubt about that, dear Algy. The Divorce Court was specially invented for people whose memories are unusually constituted.

لان. من اجل الفنت و...

APPENDIX F**A Sample Lesson from Mohammed (1983)****The Definite Article****Explanation:**

The concept of definiteness, ʔal taʔri:f, is found in both Arabic and English. Both English and Arabic use the definite article, ʔada:t ʔal taʔri:f, 'THE' and 'ʔal' before geographical names (e.g. seas, mountains, etc...), nouns made definite by the situation or by a relative clause or by having been mentioned before, and adjectives representing a class of persons. These are some of the cases where ʔal can be translated into 'the'.

Examples:

1. ʔal bana:t ma: da:yra:t yigʕudan maʕa ʔal ʔusra.
The girls do not want to stay with the family.
2. ʔal ʔaʕniya mafru:ʔ yisa:ʕdu ʔal masa:ki:n.
The rich should help the poor.
3. ʔal kita:b fawg ʔal tarabe:za.
The book is on the table.

In English, the definite article 'the' is not used with mass nouns (e.g. money, water), abstract nouns (e.g. life, love), and plural countable nouns (e.g. girls, books) when they are used in a general sense. In Arabic, 'ʔal' is used in such cases.

Examples:

1. Work is not just a means of earning money.
ʔalʕamal ma: wasi:la li kasb ʔal guru:ʕ wa bas.
2. Marriage should not be a girl's only function in life.
ʔal zawa:j ma: mafru:ʔ yiku:n muhimmat
ʔal bit ʔal waʕi:da fi ʔal ʕaya.
3. Men and women believe that marriage
should be based on love and understanding.
ʔal rij:al wa ʔal nisa: biftakru: ʔinnu ʔal
zawa:j mafru:ʔ yiku:n mabniʕala ʔal ʕub
wa ʔal tafa:hum.

Translation from Arabic often leads to errors such as:

- * The work is not....earning the money.
- * The marriage should not...in the life.
- * The men and the women believe that
the marriage should...on the love and the
understanding.

Exercises:

(A) Translate the following into English:

بعض النساء يذهبن للعمل لمساعدة أزواجهن في مواجهة مشاكل الحياة بالرغم من أنه من الصعب على المرأة أن تذهب للعمل مع القيام برعاية الأطفال في نفس الوقت. بعض النساء يفضلن العمل قبل الزواج أو قبل اتجاب الأطفال باعتبار أن العمل يتعارض مع الزواج ورعاية الأطفال.

(B) Use 'the' where appropriate:

Nagat believes that...marriage should be based on...mutual understanding and... love. She says that after they get married...women do not do anything creative. They just stay in ... house spending their whole life in ... kitchen. Like...men,...women should go to ... work.

(C) Correct the errors in the following:

1. Some the people believe that the women should not go to the work. They say that the women should stay at the home to look after the children because this is their function in the life.
2. For the most women the freedom to go to the work is only a beginning. Mariam says, 'We have been brought up to believe that our only function in the life is to prepare ourselves for the marriage.'

APPENDIX 6**Translation Passages****1. Modern Standard Arabic Version (Pre-and-Post-test):**

اقرأ القطعة التالية وحاول التعبير عن الأفكار التي وردت فيها باللغة الإنجليزية مع مراعاة الآتي :
 * الالتماز بنفس التركيب وأجعل والأفكار
 * لا تجعل الاسم المفرد جمعاً أو المفعول به فاعكاً أو المعلوم مجهولاً والعكس

الهجرة هي أحد المواضيع التي يتحدث عنها الناس هذه الأيام. الدول التي يذهب إليها المهاجرون هي الدول العربية الغنية. إحدى المشاكل التي تسببها لنا الهجرة هي أننا نفقد العمال المؤهلين الذين تقدر عليهم الدولة. مشكلة أخرى هي أن بعض العادات التي يأتي بها المهاجرون غير مناسبة لمجتمعنا. بعض المهاجرين يصرفون الأموال التي يجمعونها في أشياء غير مهمة. أحياناً عندما يعود المهاجر يحاول أن يتفادي الناس الذين كان يعيش معهم لأنه يعتقد أن الأموال التي يأتي بها تجعله أغنى من الآخرين. بعض المهاجرين يحاولون أن يتعلموا اللهجة التي يستعملها الناس في الدول التي يهاجرون إليها. إنهم لا يستعملون اللهجة التي تعلموها في الطفولة، اللهجة التي يستعملها أفراد أسرهم ومجتمعهم. مشكلة أخرى هي أن المهاجر يعيش بعيداً عن الأسرة التي يعولها. هل مهاجر من أجل المال ونتجاهل المشاكل التي تسببها لنا الهجرة ؟

2. Sudanese Colloquial Arabic Version (Pilot Test):

اقرأ القطعة التالية وحاول التعبير عن الأفكار التي وردت فيها باللغة الإنجليزية مع مراعاة الآتي :
 * الالتماز بنفس التركيب وأجعل والأفكار.
 * لا تجعل الاسم المفرد جمعاً أو المفعول به فاعكاً أو المعلوم مجهولاً والعكس

الهجرة هي واحد من المواضيع التي يتكلم عنها الناس الأيام دي. الدول التي يمشوا إليها المهاجرين هي الدول العربية الغنية. واحد من المشاكل التي تسببها لنا الهجرة هي أننا بنفقد العمال المؤهلين التي تقدر عليهم الدولة. مشكلة ثانية هي إنو بعض العادات التي يجيبوها المهاجرين معاهم ما مناسبة لمجتمعنا. بعض المهاجرين بيصرفوا الأموال التي يجمعوها في حاجات ما مهمة. بعد مرات لاهن المهاجر يرجع يحاول يتفادي الناس الكان عايش معاهم لأنو بيقتلر إنو الأموال أجابها بتخليهو أغنى من التانيين. بعض المهاجرين بيحاولوا يتعلموا اللهجة التي يستعملوها الناس في الدول التي يمشوا إليها. ما بيستعملوا اللهجة التي تعلموها في الطفولة، اللهجة التي يستعملوها ناس بيتهم ومجتمعهم. مشكلة ثانية هي إنو المهاجر بيعيش بعيد عن الأسرة التي يعولها. هل مهاجر عشان المال ونتجاهل المشاكل التي تسببها لنا الهجرة ؟

APPENDIX H**Classification and Quantification of Grammar Errors
in the Written Composition of Sudanese Learners of English****Stage 1: L1-based versus other Errors**

Number of Students	Total Number of Errors	L1 - based		Other	
		Number	%	Number	%
396	4951	2619	53	2332	47

Stage 2: Areas of L1-based Errors

Area	Number	%
Pronouns	943	36
Articles	629	24
Prepositions	498	19
Verb 'BE'	262	10
Word Order	157	6
Tense	78	3
Miscellaneous	52	2
Total	2619	100

Stage 3: Errors in the Area of Pronouns

Type of Pronouns	Number	%
Personal	847	90
Relative	72	8
Demonstrative	24	2

Stage 4: Types of Errors in the Area of Personal Pronouns

Addition		Omission		Substitution	
Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
513	60	143	17	191	23

Stage 5: Redundant Personal Pronouns

Type	Number	%
Object pronouns in relative clauses	311	61
Subject pronouns before verbs	202	39
Total	513	100

APPENDIX I**Normal Lesson****The Relative Clauses****Section 1: Introduction**

Well, before we go to our lesson, let's see the relationship between grammar and other language skills. This is a grammar lesson, how can it help in learning and using language? Knowledge of grammar is important in understanding and producing written and spoken language (i.e. in reading, listening, writing and speaking).

Today we will see how relative pronouns 'who, whom, which, whose' are used to join sentences. Joining sentences by such pronouns is useful in:

1. composition = to produce complex sentences
2. summarizing = to use your own words

Language skills are all integrated; without grammar you cannot write good sentences when you write a composition or summary. Relative clauses may contain relatively less important information. This means we can take two related facts and put them in one sentence instead of two; the less important will be subordinated to the more important by using relative pronouns thus producing a complex sentence. In summary writing, on the other hand, you join the two related facts in one sentence if they are expressed in two separate sentences or you may leave out the relative clause as containing less important information, thus reducing the number of words.

Section 2: Presentation

Now look at these pairs of sentences:

1. Ali met the man. The man won the prize.
2. Osman took the books. The books were useless.
3. The man's house was robbed. He is called Ali.

In the three examples you see two facts expressed in two sentences, one fact in each sentence. Now we want to express the two facts in one sentence in each case; to join the pairs by using the relative pronouns 'who, whom, which, whose'.

1. (a) Ali met the man who won the prize. or
(b) The man whom Ali met won the prize.
2. (a) Osman took the books which were useless. or
(b) The books which Osman took were useless.

In case of 2(a) you can say:

Osman took the useless books.

3. The man whose house was robbed is called Ali.

In each sentence the underlined part is the relative clause (i.e. the subordinate clause) and the other part is the main clause. So, in each sentence we have a main clause and a relative clause. The relative clause tells us something about the noun in the main clause 'The man, the books', therefore, it also called 'adjectival' clause. The question of which clause to be the main and which to be the subordinate or relative clause depends on the relative importance of the facts expressed. In sentence 1(a), for example, the fact that Ali met the man is more important than the man's winning the prize, the opposite is true in 1(b).

Now let's take the sentences one by one: In sentence 1(a), the relative clause tells us something about the noun 'The man' as subject (The man won the prize). So, the relative pronoun 'who' is used because the noun in the main clause is subject and refers to a human being. In sentence 1(b), the relative clause tells us about 'the man' as object (Ali met the man). Like the pronoun 'who', 'whom' is used with human beings but it refers to an object noun. The difference between 'who' and 'whom' is, then, that 'who' is used with subject nouns whereas 'whom' is used with object nouns, but both relative pronouns can be used with singular and plural nouns (man-men) whether masculine or feminine (man-woman).

In sentences 2(a) and 2(b), again the relative clause tells us something about the noun used in subject position (The books were useless) and in object position (Osman took the books). In both sentences, the relative pronoun 'which' is used because the noun 'the books' refers to a non-human. So, 'which' is used to join two sentences if the noun is non-human, subject or object, singular (book) or plural (books).

In sentence 3, the relative clause tells us something about the noun 'the man' in a possessive case (The man's house). The relative pronoun 'whose' is used in case of possession whether the noun it refers to is singular or plural, masculine or feminine. Although 'whose' is the possessive form of 'who' it sometimes used with non-humans as well as humans as in the following examples:

The table the leg of which is broken is.....

The table whose leg is broken is.....

Summary:

Sentence = main clause + relative clause.

The relative clause is a subordinate clause. It tells us something about the noun in the main clause, so is called 'adjectival' clause.

There are three types of relative clauses:

1. subject relative clause (who, which)
2. object relative clause (whom, which)
3. possessive relative clause (whose, of which)

Pronoun	Used with
who	humans, subject, singular and plural, masculine and feminine
whom	humans, object, singular and plural, masculine and feminine
which	non-humans, subject and object, singular and plural
whose	humans and non-humans, possessive, singular and plural
of which	non-humans, possessive singular and plural

Section 3: Exercises

A. Choose the part that best completes the sentence and show why each of the other options is incorrect.

1. We are grateful to Babikir Bedri....introduced female education in Sudan.

A. who B. whose C. who D. which

2. The trees....leaves have all fallen look very bare.

A. whom B. whose C. who D.

which

3. Only one of the many places.....was historical

A. which we visited it
 B. whom we visited
 C. which were visited
 D. which we visited them

4. The problems....are not very serious

- A. about which people talk
- B. which people talk about them
- C. whose people talk about
- D. which people talk about it

5. The newspaper article...was about co-education in Sudan

- A. which I was reading it
- B. which Ali showed it to Ahmed
- C. whom you wanted to read
- D. the writer of which is a foreigner

B. Say whether the sentence is grammatically correct or not. If incorrect show the mistake and correct it.

1. I am looking for Sami's book who can tell me everything about refugees in Sudan.
2. In Sudan there is only one main port through which all imports and exports must go.
3. The person whom you spoke to him yesterday is a manager of a large group of companies.
4. Who is the student whom the headmaster wanted to see yesterday?
5. Ashraf did not receive most of the letters which his friend sent them last year.

C. Join each of the following pairs by using 'who, whom, whose, or which'. See if you can join a pair in more than one way.

1. Do you know the people?
I told you about them.
2. Agriculture earns 90% of our foreign currency.
It supports 80% of the population.
3. I have met a lot of students.
Their names are either Mohammed or Ahmed.
4. You can visit a place like Dindir.
Many kinds of wild animals live in it.
5. The government is trying to deport refugees.
These refugees live in Khartoum.

D. Complete each of the following sentences by using the word given in brackets.

1. The tall lady.....is an actress. (whom)

2. The film which we.....(interesting)
3. This is the football team.....(cup)
4. Please tell me if you see the person.....(whose)
5. One of the problems which refugees.....(food)

APPENDIX J**Experimental Lesson****'Who, Whom, Which, Whose'****Section 1: Introduction**

Well, you have already learnt Arabic and now studying grammar and other things to learn English. What is the role of Arabic in learning English? O.K. Knowledge of the Arabic language, whether colloquial or modern standard, is a previous experience on which we frequently depend when learning and using English. If you tend to think or arrange your ideas in Arabic and then express them in English, this is normal because we usually make use of what we have already learnt when learning something new. Take, for example, a person who is used to driving a small car. When he comes to drive a big one (e.g. a lorry), he will try to make use of his experience in driving the small car. That is, he comes to the new experience with certain assumptions based on his previous experience. He may, for instance, expect the horn to be in the centre of the driving wheel as in the small car. The same applies to learning English after we have learnt Arabic. We expect many things we found in Arabic also to be found in English. Whether knowledge of Arabic as a previous experience helps in learning English or not, depends on the degree of similarities between the two languages.

Section 2: Presentation

Take for example the words 'ʔallaḏi' and ʔallati' in modern standard Arabic (MSA), and their equivalent 'ʔal' in colloquial Arabic (CA). These words are used to join sentences. For example, if you have:

raʔaytu ʔal walada. kataba ʔal waladu ʔal xita:b (MSA)

ʔana jufta ʔal walad. ʔal walad katab ʔal jawa:b (CA)

you say:

raʔaytu ʔal walad ʔallaḏi kataba ʔal xita:b (MSA)

ʔana jufta ʔalwalad ʔal katab ʔal jawa:b (CA)

With this knowledge of joining sentences in Arabic, we come to find the same process in English. The words 'who, whom, whose, which' are used for the same purpose.

Now look at these examples from Arabic and English:

1.qa:bala Aliyyun ʔal rajula. fa:za ʔal rajulu
bilja:ʔiza (MSA)

Ali ga:bal ʔal ra:jil. ʔal ra:jil fa:z bilja:yiza (CA)

Ali met the man. The man won the prize.

2.ʔaxaḏa Osmanun ʔal kutuba. lam takun ʔal kutabu
mufi:datun (MSA)

Osman ?axad ?al kutab. ?al kutub ma:ka:nat mufi:da
(CA)
Osman took the books. The books were useless.

3.nuhiba manzilu ?al rajul. ?al rajulu ?ismuhu Ali
(MSA)
be:t ?al ra:jil ?itnahab. ?al ra:jil ?ismu Ali (CA)
The man's house was robbed. The man is called Ali.

In these cases, Arabic uses '?allaoui, ?allati' (MSA) and '?al' (CA) and English uses 'who, whom, which, whose' to join the pairs as follows:

- 1.(a) qa:bala Alyyan ?al rajul ?allađi fa:za bil ja:?iza
(MSA)
Ali ga:bal ?al ra:jil ?al fa:z bil ja:yiza (CA)
Ali met the man who won the prize.
- (b) ?al rajul ?allađi qa:balahu Ali fa:za bil ja:?iza (MSA)
?al ra:jil ?al qa:balahu Ali fa:za bil ja:yiza (CA)
The man whom Ali met won the prize.
- 2.(a) ?axađa Osmanun ?al kutub ?allati lam takun mufi:da
(MSA)
Osman ?axad ?al kutub ?al ma:ka:nat mufi:da (CA)
Osman took the books which were useless.
- (b) ?al kutab ?allati ?axađaha Osman lam takun mufi:da
(MSA)
?al kutub ?al ?axada Osman ma: ka:nat mufi:da (CA)
The books which Osman took were useless.
3. ?al rajul ?allađi nuhiba manziluh ?ismuhu Ali (MSA)
?al ra:jil ?albe:tu ?itnahab ?ismu Ali (CA)
The man whose house was robbed is called Ali.

Now let's see some of the differences between Arabic and English. In MSA, we use '?allađi' for one, '?allađa:n' for two, and '?allađi:na' for more than two human or non-human males. Similarly, '?allati, ?allata:n, ?alla:?i' are used with females. In CA, '?al' is used in all cases. English, like CA, does not differentiate between male and female, or one and more than one. From the examples you can see that MSA and CA do not differentiate between humans and non-humans, but in English 'who' and 'whom' are used with humans whereas 'which' is used with non-humans. Arabic uses '?allađi' and '?al', and English uses 'whose' for possession in all cases, but in English 'of which' is also used for non-humans.

There is a very important difference between English and Arabic in examples 1(b) and 2(b). Look at the words which I have just underlined:

- 1(b) met [= qa:balahu (MSA) , = ga:balu (CA)]
2(b) took [= ?axađaha (MSA), = ?axada (CA)]

You find 'hu, u' and 'ha, a' at the end of the Arabic words, but you do not find their equivalents 'him' and 'them' after the English words 'met' and 'took'.

1. (a)	?al	rajul	?allađi	qa:bala	hu	Ali (MSA)
	?al	ra:jil	?al	ga:bal	u	Ali (CA)
	The	man	whom	met	-	Ali
2. (b)	?al	kutub	?allati	?axađa	ha	Osman (MSA)
	?al	kutab	?al	?axad	a	Osman (CA)
	The	books	which	took	-	Osman

When you think in Arabic and write in English, when you depend on Arabic as previous knowledge, you have to be careful in this case because 'hu, ha, hum' will be incorrectly carried over to English as 'him, her, it, them'. A lot of errors are made due to transferring 'hu, u, ha, a, hum' from Arabic into English. These are examples of actual errors made:

- * The reason which I mentioned it at the beginning.....
- * The problems which refugees face them in Sudan.....
- * The people whom we meet them in the streets.....
- * The countries which they come from her are.....
- * The diseases which they spread it in our.....
- * The place which they come from him may be.....

These errors have been made because in Arabic we say:

.....?allađi	đakartu	hu	
(.....which	I mentioned	it)	
.....?allati	yuwa:jihu	ha	
(.....which	they face	them)	
.....?allađi:na	nuqa:bilu	hum	
(.....whom	we meet	them)	
.....?allati	ya?tu:na	min	ha
(.....which	they come	from	her)
.....?allati	yanfuru:na	ha	
(.....which	they spread	it)	
.....?allađi	ya?tu:na	min	hu
(.....which	they come	from	him)

Section 3: Exercises (same as in the normal lesson)

APPENDIX K**Teaching and Testing Procedures for Teachers**

The purpose of this study is to compare two techniques of teaching grammar to see which is more effective in minimizing literal translation errors made by students.

On the basis of their scores on a translation test, the students will be matched and randomly assigned to two equal groups, say group (1) and (2). Both groups will be taught by the same teacher. The normal lesson will be taught to group 1 and the experimental lesson to group 2, (the two lessons attached). The normal lesson will be taught in the second and third class periods (80 minutes) and the experimental one in the fourth and fifth class periods (80 minutes (see teaching plant attached). The two lessons will be taught on the same day. Each of the two lessons is divided into three sections as follows:

<p>Section 1</p>	<p>: Introduction (10-15 minutes)</p> <p>Group (1) The importance of grammar in learning and using other language skills</p> <hr/> <p>Group (2) The role of Arabic in learning and using English</p>
<p>Section 2:</p>	<p>Presentation (45-50 minutes)</p> <p>Group (1) Normal discussion of relative clauses in English with examples and rules using grammatical terms as usual</p> <hr/> <p>Group (2): Discussion of similarities and differences between English and Arabic relative clauses with examples. Grammatical terms avoided as far as possible</p>
<p>Section 3:</p>	<p>Practice (20 minutes)</p> <p>The exercises are the same for both groups. They are to be done orally in classroom</p>

The same translation test will be given to both groups on the same day. Time allowed is again one hour. Group (1) will take the test in the fourth and fifth class periods. Since you will be teaching the other group, another English language teacher can administer the test. Give him the testing instructions at the end of these procedures. Group (2) will be tested in the sixth and seventh class periods.

When teaching:

1. The normal lesson, you can use Arabic for any purpose but not for comparing relative clauses in English and Arabic. You can use it, for example, in the introduction, in explaining difficult grammar and vocabulary items, and in giving instructions.
2. The experimental lesson, use colloquial Arabic to explain the similarities and differences between relative clauses in English and Arabic. You can also use it for other purposes as in the normal lesson.

When doing the exercises:

1. Give the meanings of unfamiliar words and expressions.
2. Let student read the item silently for comprehension before answering.
3. Avoid humiliating techniques of error correction. If the error is a redundant pronoun in object relative clauses, (e.g. This is the place which we visited it last year),
 - (a) the students in the normal group are to be corrected without being shown the reason behind the error;
 - (b) the students in the experimental group are to be shown the reason; remind them of the basis of their incorrect hypothesis.
4. If the class period ends before you finish the exercises, take some time from the following break.

When administering the tests:

1. The student should write his/her name and the name of his/her class (or faculty) and translate in the space provided under the Arabic passage.
2. Time allowed is one hour, but you can allow some more time to enable the majority to finish.

3. Students should not know that the same pretest will be given again.
4. Students should not be made aware of the relationship between the lesson and the two tests.
5. The instructions given in writing above the Arabic passage should also be given verbally, in colloquial Arabic, at the beginning of the testing session.
6. Tell students to feel free to ask you about vocabulary and spelling, but not grammar. If two or three students ask about the same thing, write it on the chalkboard and draw the students' attention to it just in case other students have the same problem.
7. Help students to feel relaxed by telling them that it is an exercise and not an examination; a kind of guided composition.

APPENDIX L

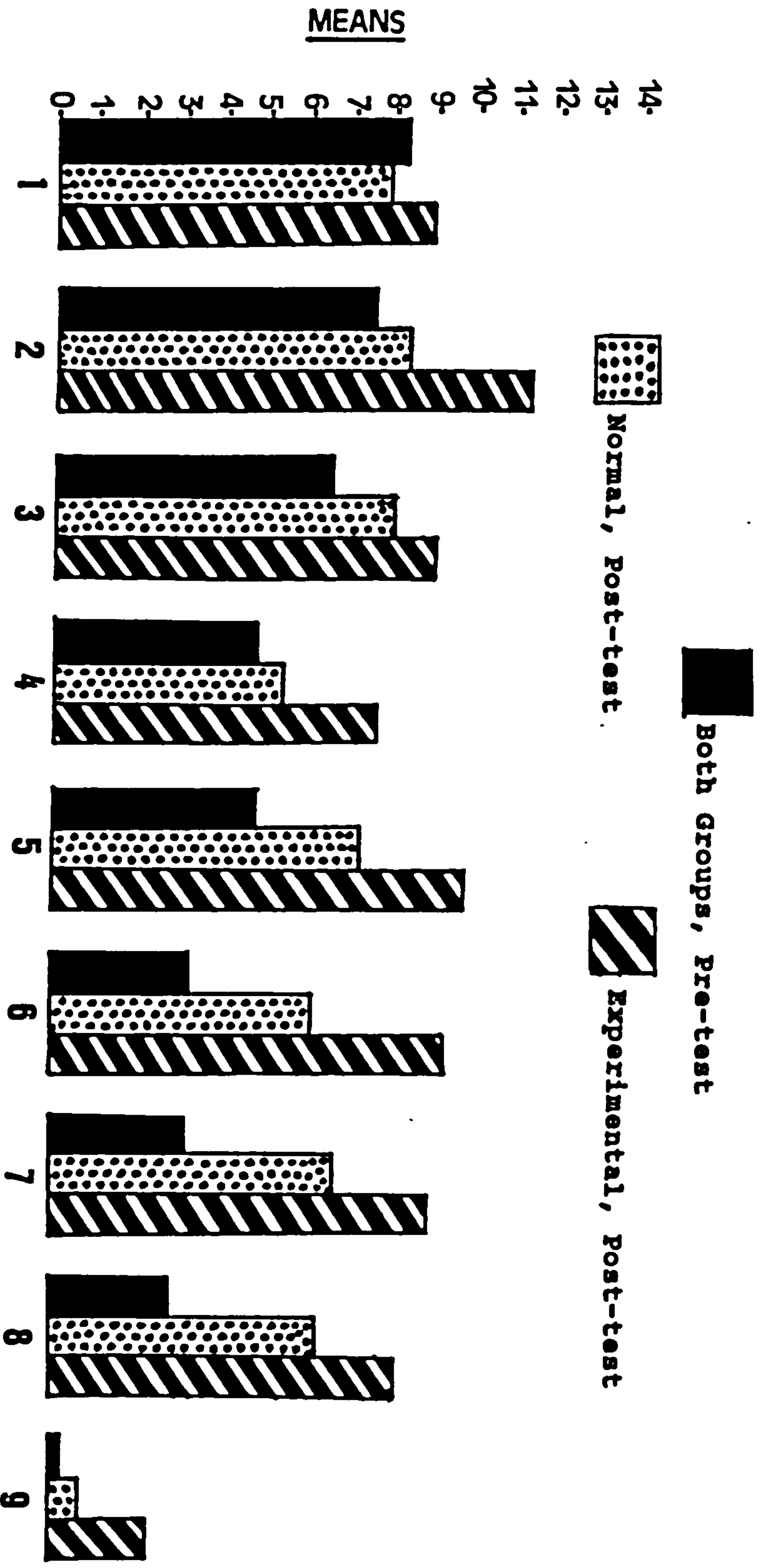
Teaching and Testing Plan

2nd and 3rd class periods (80 minutes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Normal lesson - Experimental group given to a teacher who taught a subject common to all third-year students. University experimental group went to self-access audio-visual centre
Breakfast (45 minutes)	
4th and 5th class periods (80 minutes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Normal group posttest administered by another English language teacher - Experimental lesson
Second break (15 minutes)	
6th and 7th class periods (80 minutes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Experimental group posttest administered by the participant teacher or the teacher who administered the normal group test - Normal group given to the same teacher who taught the experimental group in the 2nd and 3rd class periods. University normal group went to self-access library and audio-visual centre.

- Note:**
1. Students were given a five-minute break between the two teaching class periods as usual, but testing continued without a break.
 2. The same plan was followed in the university.
 3. The experiment was carried out in the first term of the academic year 1990-91.

APPENDIX N

PRE AND POST TEST MEANS OF THE NORMAL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN EACH SCHOOL



SCHOOLS

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