

LEVEL: MASTER II (LINGUISTICS)

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS & ERROR ANALYSIS COURSE



By: Dr. A. BAGHDADI

_____ 2021 _____

Course Description

The course consists of two parts. The first part is devoted to contrastive analysis which introduces students to (i) the concept of contrastive analysis, (ii) a historical overview on contrastive analysis and (iii) the fundamental principles for a contrastive analysis, (iv) the steps of contrastive analysis, and (v) the strengths and weaknesses of contrastive analysis and finally (vi) the implication of contrastive analysis.

The second part of this course concerns the error analysis within which the concept of error analysis is set forth. Then, an overview of its theoretical foundations, assumptions and objectives is offered. To make the students proceed towards the practical side of error analysis, the major steps of conducting it are highlighted and supported with concrete examples. Finally, this part ends up with some criticisms of error analysis.

Course Objectives

At the end of the course, students are expected to discuss the significance of contrastive analysis and error analysis in relation to languages in general. They are expected to be able to discuss the role of contrastive analysis and error analysis in linguistic studies. Furthermore, they are expected to be able to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each. In addition, they should be aware of the importance of contrastive analysis in translation. They are expected to be able to carry out a contrastive analysis of two or more languages; and find out errors

and classify them and know their sources. Finally, they should be able to employ appropriately Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis in the learning as well as in the teaching process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PART I: CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

1. Contrastive analysis definition	1
2. Historical overview.....	1
3. Contrastive analysis Assumptions	3
4. Language Transfer.....	3
5. Types of Transfer.....	4
5.1. Overproduction.....	4
5.2. Underproduction (or avoidance)	4
5.3. Misinterpretation	5
5.4. Production	5
5.5. CAH Versions	5
5.5.1. The strong version of CAH.....	5
5.5.2. The weak version of CAH	5
6. Steps for Contrastive Analysis	5
6.1. Selection.....	5
6.2. Description	6
6.3. Comparison	6
6.4. Prediction	6
6.5. Verification.....	6
7. Arabic & English contrast	6
7.1. English Letters and Sounds	6
7.2. Arabic Letters and Sounds	7
7.3. Comparison between English and Arabic in Phonology.....	8
8. Branches Involved in Contrastive Analysis.....	11
8.1. Translation.....	11
8.2. Teaching.....	12
8.3. Linguistics	12

8.4. Textbook Writing	13
9. Criticism of CA	13

PART II: ERROR ANALYSIS

1. Error Analysis Definition	15
2. Theoretical Foundations	15
3. Theoretical Assumptions	16
4. Error Analysis Objectives.....	16
5. Inter-language.....	17
6. Investigating L2 Errors	17
7. Steps for Error Analysis	18
7.1. Collection of a Sample of Learner Language.....	18
7.2. Identification of Errors	19
7.3. Description of Errors	20
7.3.1. Errors types	Erreur ! Signet non défini.
7.3.2. Explanation of Errors	22
8. Source of Errors.....	23
8.1. Inter-lingual Transfer	23
8.2. Intra-lingual Transfer	23
8.3. Language - Learning Strategies	24
8.4. Communication Strategy	24
8.4.1. Paraphrase	24
8.4.2. Borrowing.....	24
8.4.3. Appeal for Assistance:	24
8.4.5. Mime	24
8.4.6. Avoidance.....	24
8.4.7. Prefabricated Patterns.....	25
8.4.8. Language Switch:	25
8.5. Context of Learning	25

8.6.Nonlinguistic Errors: (Idiosyncratic Errors)	25
9. Criticism of Error Analysis.....	25
10.Conclusion	26
References	26

PART I: Contrastive Analysis

1. Contrastive analysis definition

It is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Contrastive Analysis was extensively used in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviourist theories, language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language depended on the difference between the learners' mother language and the language they were trying to learn.

2. Historical overview

The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty. On the basis of such analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language. Lado himself was an English and Spanish bilingual, who was born in America of Spanish parents, grew up in Spain and then went to college in the USA. He was all too aware of the importance of cultural difference in mastering a foreign language. However, his appeal to compare cultures was not taken up, and in practice contrastive analysis focused on a surface comparison of languages, starting with the sounds, then the grammar and finally - and only selectively - the vocabulary. This emphasis reflected the focus of American linguistics at the time, which was still very much under the influence of structuralism as espoused by the great American structuralist Bloomfield in *Language* (1933). Structural linguistics viewed language as a rule-governed system which could be separated into hierarchically arranged sub-systems, each of which had its own internal patterns and structure. The lowest level in

the hierarchy was phonology, then morphology, then syntax. The lexicon received scant attention from structuralists and the discourse level of language was quite ignored. In fact, structural linguistics coped best with closed or finite linguistic systems, and, for this reason, deliberately excluded semantics from its description. Bloomfield's (1933: 140) conclusion that "the statement of meanings is therefore the weak point in language study, and will remain so until human knowledge advances very far beyond its present state" is often quoted. In the period immediately after World War II there was renewed interest in language learning and language teaching in the United States, and efforts were made at the University of Michigan to apply the ideas of structural linguistics to language teaching, perhaps most influentially by Charles Fries (1945). The approach to language teaching advocated by the Michigan School laid great emphasis on the principled selection and grading of linguistic items for instruction. It was essentially an analytic, atomistic approach, which took a language apart in order to then put the parts back together again in their logical order during the teaching process, and in this sense it claimed to be scientific. Lado himself actually studied at the University of Michigan with Fries, and contrastive analysis became the basis for the strict selection and grading of material for teaching which was characteristic of language courses at the time. Fries advocated a bottom-up approach to language learning from phonology to morphology to syntax with vocabulary being held to a minimum: [...] the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system[...]second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. (Fries 1945: 3) This structuralist emphasis of the Michigan School found its expression in audio-lingual language teaching, which sought to drill structural patterns, proceeding from the simple to the complex, while filling the slots in the patterns with a limited number of lexical items and insisting on correct pronunciation (e.g. I brush my teeth with a tooth-brush, I brush my shoes with a shoe-brush, I brush my hair with a hair-brush). Contrastive analysis became associated with behaviorist psychology, which was another separate influence on language teaching, particularly on audiolingual language teaching, and especially in the United States. Behaviorism was a general theory of learning. It viewed learning as habit formation brought about by repeated patterns of stimulus, response and reinforcement. For language teaching this fitted in nicely with the pedagogue's piece of folk wisdom that "practice makes perfect". In other words, learners should be provided with a linguistic stimulus (for

example a question to answer, a sentence to put into the negative form, a word to put into the plural form) and be told whether their answer was right (positive reinforcement) or wrong (negative reinforcement). They should be encouraged to repeat correct forms, and, by careful selection and grading of material, possible mistakes should be minimised by the course designer. If mistakes did occur, they were to be immediately corrected by the teacher so that bad habits were not formed. Particular emphasis was placed on the idea that error was to be avoided at all costs, and the idea that one can learn from one's mistakes found no place in language teaching theory and practice at this time.

3. Contrastive analysis Assumptions

1. The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "*those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult*".
2. CA is founded on the assumption that second/foreign language (L2) learners tend to transfer into the target language features found in their native (L1) language.
3. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (Lado: 1957).
4. The transfer may be positive or negative. Transfer is said to be positive when a familiar skill facilitates the learning of a new structure. When the patterns are similar, the acquisition of the new pattern is facilitated, but when there are differences in patterns, these differences hinder the learning of the foreign language.
5. James (1980) states that contrastive studies have four main applications: predicting errors in L2, error diagnosis, testing the learners, and in course design, i.e. what to teach (selection) and when to teach it (grading). If such decisions were to be based solely on teacher's experience, they would lose their objectivity. Linguistic analysis constitutes much more reliable ground for generalizations.

4. Language Transfer

The notion of "transfer" has created some difficulties itself since it is a controversial notion. It was defined differently by different people. Lado (1957) and

Fries (1945) defined transfer as the imposition of native language information on a second language utterance or sentence, but for Odlin (1989) it refers to cross-linguistic influence. Schachter (1983, 1992) has considered the fact that learners may have imperfect knowledge of the second language and she even proposed that transfer is not a process at all, but rather a constraint on the acquisition process. Odlin (1989, p.27) has brought some observations about what transfer is not and concluded that “Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired”. And then he stresses that it is only a working definition. Even recently, Pavlenko and Scott (2002) as cited in Ahmadvand (2008) argued that transfer is not unidirectional but bidirectional and simultaneous that is shown by paradigmatic and syntagmatic categories. All this indicates the degree of the complexity of the notion of transfer without any consensus.

5. Types of Transfer

Language transfer is generally divided into two main categories: **positive** or **negative**. According to Gass and Larry (2001), positive transfer results in correct utterances and facilitates language learning. Basically, the learner’s L1 might facilitate L2 learning. Lado (1957, 158) asserts that "The basic premise of CA hypothesis is that language learning can be more successful when the two languages – the native and the foreign – are similar". Nevertheless, negative transfer results with incorrect outcomes. It results in deviations from the TL. Al-khresheh (2013) points out that there are four types of divergences that are caused by differences between NL and TL. They can be summarised as follows:

5.1. Overproduction

Learners produce a given L2 structure with much greater occurrence than natives of L2 do. They can often be as a result of underproduction. Instead, learners make extreme use of what they supposed to be correct and acceptable; consequently, resulting in overuse of certain words or structures.

5.2. Underproduction (or avoidance)

Learners produce hardly any or no examples of L2 structure. They can often be caused by conscious avoidance of complex L2 structures.

5.3. Misinterpretation

This type of errors occurs when L1 structures influence the interpretation of L2 messages.

5.4. Production

This type of errors can be classified into six categories: *substitutions* (i.e. think is pronounced as /fink/ in Poland and /sink/ in Egypt, people as /beoble/ in Arabic, love as /laugh/ in Saudi Arabia, fish as /fis/ in Malaysia, and thirty as /dirty/ in India), *calques*, *under-differentiation*, *over-differentiation*, *hypercorrection* and *alterations of structures*. According to Odlin (2003, 37), calques, substitutions and alterations of structures compose most forms of production errors.

5.5. CAH Versions

In view of predictability, CAH is classified into strong and weak versions.

5.5.1. The strong version of CAH

Wardhaugh (1970) classified the strong version of CAH as the version that claims ability to predict difficulty through contrastive analysis. The assumption is that the two languages can be compared a priori.

5.5.2. The weak version of CAH

Here, the emphasis shifts from the predictive power to the relative difficulty to the explanatory power of observable errors. The weak version focuses not on the a priori prediction of linguistic difficulties, but on the a posteriori explanation of the sources of errors in language learning.

6. Steps for Contrastive Analysis

As mentioned earlier, CA can be used to understand the differences as well as the similarities between the learner's NL and the TL. Knowledge of the similarities and differences can be of great help in understanding L2 errors. Therefore, following the CA gives a great systemic description to the both languages (L1 & L2). CA can be broken down to a set of component procedures. The five steps for making a systematic comparison and contrast of any two languages are: Selection - description - comparison - prediction - verification.

6.1. Selection

The first step is to select or take the two languages, L1 and L2, and writing formal descriptions of them (or choosing descriptions of them). Writing a formal description

needs choosing a special theoretical model which can be traditional, structural or transformational. In this step, there is a need to decide what is to be contrasted/compared with what. That is because it is quite difficult to compare everything (sound, word, structure...etc) so the analysis should be limited to a specific category. Once the selection is done, the selected linguistic units/structures can be described.

6.2. Description

This step is called 'description'. The two languages should be linguistically described within the same theory which is CA. The main focus should be on the differences. Third, having described the linguistic-selected units, it is crucial to compare the structures with each other. This step is called 'comparison'.

6.3. Comparison

In this step, the differences and similarities can be compared in form or meaning. Here, the term 'form' refers to any linguistic unit of any size. It is impossible to clearly compare the two languages without giving a full description.

6.4. Prediction

It is about making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast. The CA can noticeably predict for the similarities and differences of the two compared languages. Based on the researcher's knowledge, he/she can judge if the differences and similarities are problematic or not.

6.5. Verification

Here, the researcher should find out whether the predictions given in the previous step (prediction) are true or not.

7. Arabic & English contrast

7.1. English Letters and Sounds

According to Pronunciation tips from bbclearningenglish.com

1- There are 26 letters in the English alphabet but there are over 40 sounds in the English language. This means that the number of sounds in a word is not always the same as the number of letters. For example: The word '**CAT**' has three letters and three sounds but the word '**CATCH**' has five letters but still only three sounds. If we write these words using phonemic symbols, we can see exactly how many sounds

they have. *CAT* is written /k æ t/, *CATCH* is written /k æ tʃ/ In 'CATCH' the three letters TCH are one sound represented by one phonemic symbol /tʃ/.

2- English letters are divided to **21 consonants** letters and **5 vowels**.

3- There are **5 vowel** letters “a, e, I, o, u”, but there are **20 sounds** for these vowels, short vowels, long vowels and diphthongs. (Appendix3).

4- English letters can come initially, in the middle or finally in words.

5- The English Alphabet has 26 letters. In alphabetical order, they are: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

According to ([English Alphabet English Club](#)) , Five of these letters are "vowels".

Twenty one are "consonants":

5 vowels	a	e	i	o	u
21 consonants	b c d	f g h	j k l m n	p q r s t	v w x y z

Each letter may be written as a "large letter" (capital) or "small letter".

Capital letters	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
Small letters	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z

7.2. Arabic Letters and Sounds

1- There are 29 Arabic letters in the Arabic alphabet each letter has three sound according to the mood () ؤ ؤ ؤ (there are three sounds for the letters (ؤ) according to the mood.

2- Arabic letters are divided to:

A. 1- Sun letters, these letters are 14 letters (ط - ض - ص - ص - ط - ص - س - ر - د - ث - د) these letters cause not to pronounce the (ل) in ال () when it is written; the (ل) is silent when it precedes them.

B. Moon letters, these letters are 14 letters (و - ه - و - ك - ق - ف - غ - ع - خ - ح - د - ة - أ) these letters cause to pronounce the (ل) in ال () when it is written preceding them.

3- Arabic letters can come initially, in the middle or finally in words.

7.3. Comparison between English and Arabic in Phonology.

Arabic language is a consonant language, but vowels letters are more in English language.

A- Plosive Consonants

According to Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic

English Letter sound	Transcription	Arabic Letter sound
P (pen)	/p/	پ
b (boy)	/b/	ب
t (tea)	/t/	ت
d (door)	/d/	د
k (king)	/k/	ك
g (goat) (general)	/dz/	-----

Notes:

I. The sound of /g/ is not found in classical Arabic, but we find it standard Arabic such as جمال .

II. /t/ is alveolar but /ت/ is dental.

III. /t/ has different sounds sometimes is voiced when it comes:

a- Between two vowels e.g. (butter).

b- Between/n/ & /y/ e.g. (twenty).

c- Between two voiced vowels (at another).

d- Before syllabic /l/ e.g. (settle).

e- Before stressed vowel and preceded by /l/ e.g. (malted).

But /ﺫ/ in Arabic has the same sound.

B- Fricative Consonants

According Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic

B- Fricative Consonants

English Letter sound	Transcription	Arabic Letter sound
f (for) , ff (off), gh (cough), ph (philosophy)	/f/	ف
v (van)	/v/	-----
th (the)	/ð/	ذ
s (see)	/s/	س
s (son)	/s/	ص
z (zoo)	/z/	ز
sh (wash)	/ʃ/	ش
ʒ (measure)	/dʒ/	-----
r (road)	/r/	ر
h (hot)	/h/	هـ

Notes:

I. /ʒ/ sound is taken from French and it is not found in classical Arabic but at the end of some words in standard Arabic.

II. /f/ & /v/ sounds have only one phoneme in Arabic /ف/ not like English.

III. /ð/sound stand for /ذ/ & /θ/sound stand for /ث/, if not taught at schools, there will be a blinder between these two sounds and the sound /ð/ may stand for /ذ/ or /ص/, and /θ/ may stand for /ث/ or /ط/.

IV. /s/sound can stand for /ط/ as in (sun); /s/ can stand for /ص/ as in son.

C- Nasal Consonants

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic identified

English Letter sound	Transcription	Arabic Letter sound
m (man)	/m/	م
N (near)	/n/	ن
Ng (bring)	/ŋ/	-----

Note:

ŋ sound is not found in Arabic

D- Lateral Consonants

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic postulates

English Letter sound	Transcription	Arabic Letter sound
Clear “I” (clear, leave)	/l/	ل
Dark “I” (feel, people)	/l/	ل

- I. Clear “I” before vowel such as in (live) & (leave) and before j (jelly).
- II. Dark “I” is only used before all consonants such as (cold) in (and finally such as (vessel).
- III. Both clear “I” and dark “I” stand for the Arabic letter “ل”.

E- Semi Vowel

Daniel (1996) (in Arabic) claimed

English Letter sound	Transcription	Arabic Letter sound
“w”	/w/	و
“y”	/y/	ي

Notes:

- 1- “W” seems bilabial when make our lips round but it is velar sound.
- 2- We call them semi vowels because they behave as vowels.
e.g. a- go /gou/, /gow/ b- day /dei/, /dey/

F- Vowels

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic claimed

English Language vowels & sounds vs. Arabic Language vowels and sounds.

English main vowels are: “a” “e” “o” “I” “u” but Arabic vowels are: "ا" "و" "ي" .

- 1- Some English vowel sounds are exchanged by mood in Arabic such as: / /, / / /.
- 2- /i/ such as in **bit**, it is difficult in Arabic.
- 3- /i: / such as in **beat**, in Arabic it is higher sound.
/ε/ **not** found in Arabic but it can be compared to” ”.
- 4- /e/ it is found in Arabic / bed/.
- 5- /e/, /e: /, /ε/ are various in English phoneme (separate phoneme) not like Arabic same Phoneme /ε/ .
- 6- /ʌ/ **such** as in “**cut**”, it looks like “ ” in Arabic.
- 7- /u/ stand for “ ”in Arabic.
- 8- /u:/ stand for " و" in Arabic.
- 9- It is difficult for students to differentiate between /u/ like in “**book**” and /u: / like in “**spoon**”.

- 10- /ɔ/ such as in “hot” not found in Arabic.
- 11- /ɔ:/ such as in “tall” not found in Arabic.
- 12- /θ/ most common sound in English but not found in Arabic.
- /ð:/ not found in Arabic, instead mood is used in Arabic such as /a/ /u/ /i/
- 13- Stress is used in English language such as in ”seat” but in Arabic there is gimation , //

English Language Writing System	Arabic Language Writing System
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Writing from left to write. 2- There are capital and small letters. 3- There is italic in writing. 4- There is a different between typing and writing. 5- There are no identical letters 6- Most of the letters are written above the lines. 7- There is a difference between pronouncing and writing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Writing from right to left. 2- One form and no capitalization. 3- No italic in writing. 4- There is no different between typing and Writing. 5- There are identical letters in forms but the different in dotes such as: ب، ج، ح، خ and ت، ث. 6- Some letters are written below the line. 7- There is no difference between pronouncing and writing.

8. Branches Involved in Contrastive Analysis

The branches which contrastive analysis is involved are **Translation, Teaching, Linguistics, Textbook Writing, and Error Analysis.** These are discussed in details as follows:

8.1. Translation

As regard to translation as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

- a. As a translator, she/he should be faithful to the text, so she/he should know the exact equivalents in two languages (Source Language (SL) and target Language (TL)).
- b. A translator understands that most of the differences in two languages are not semantically but culturally.

c. She/he understands that most of these differences comes from:

- i. Different beliefs;
- ii. Different values; and
- iii. Different patterns of thought.

8.2. Teaching

Learning the second language is different from acquiring the first language. A child acquiring English as a native language makes perceptual differences about different languages, he acquires language system. But an Arabic child who is learning English as his / her second language does not have this perception about different situations, he / she just learns the language. e.g.: the concept of the word "cousin" for an English child is completely different from that of an Arabic child.

The Contrastive Analysis can help teachers to do the following:

- To design teaching and learning materials (methodology);
- To engage learner in activities to be a good user of target language.(classroom activities);
- To evaluate text books;
- To pay attention to the structure of the texts beyond sentence level;
- To pay attention to conversation in its regular pattern in different situations;
- To pay attention to complex areas like intonation; and
- To pay attention to different underlying rules those differ from culture to culture.

The Contrastive Analysis does not suggest a method or a teaching technique but it helps methodologists to pay attention to the **Whats** of teaching and **Hows** of teaching.

8.3. Linguistics

As regard to linguistics as a branch involved in the Contrastive Analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

- The Contrastive Analysis pays attention to different languages at the lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic levels; and
- The Contrastive studies find similarities and differences between languages in:
 - i. Grammatical structures (pronouns, articles, verbs, consonants and vowels)
 - ii. b) Sentences and constructions (interrogatives, relatives, negatives, normal phrases, syllables, diphthongs...)
 - iii. c) Rules of the compared languages (interrogative, passivization ... etc.)

According to Richards (1971), researches show that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level, for this, many of the common mistakes are syntactic errors in written work.

8.4. Textbook Writing

As regard to Textbook Writing as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there is what is called the “*Principle Programming for Writing a Textbook*” as well as there are the following two points that should be taken into consideration:

- a) The Contrastive analysis helps a textbook writer avoid using the material with a high degree of difficulty and high degree of occurrence in a same text (which makes the text more difficult); and
- b) The writer should balance among the most difficult items and the least difficult items throughout the text.

9. Criticism of CA

1. The process of L2 acquisition is not sufficiently described by the characterization of errors
2. Errors in L2 acquisition do not only arise from interference
3. The structural differences between two languages are not sufficient to predict the occurrence of errors in L2 acquisition.
4. In its strongest formulation, the CAH claimed that all the errors made in learning L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be continued by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid- and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by CA were inexplicably not observed in learners' language.
5. Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that CA could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of errors. These developments, along with the decline of the behaviorist and structuralist paradigms considerably weakened the appeal of CA.
6. James (1980) states that contrastive studies have four main applications: predicting errors in L2, error diagnosis, testing the learners, and in course design, i.e. what to teach (selection) and when to teach it (grading). If such decisions were to be based

solely on teacher's experience, they would lose their objectivity. Linguistic analysis constitutes much more reliable ground for generalizations.

Part II: ERROR ANALYSIS

1. Error Analysis Definition

Error Analysis has been defined by James (1998:1) as "*the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language*". Schaumann and Stenson (1976, p. 4) state that "*the task of EA is to explain and analyze why one aspect of the target grammar has not been adequately acquired whilst a second is learnt without difficulty*". The systematic analysis of errors made by FL/L2 learners makes determining areas which need reinforcement in teaching possible (Corder, 1974). EA has mainly focused on the actual committed errors by FL/L2 learners and became very popular in the field of applied linguistics.

2. Theoretical Foundations

CA was an effective theory and famous for its ability to compare between the structures of two languages (L1 & TL) in order to identify the areas of similarities and differences between them (Al-khresheh, 2013). Similar structures might be easy for FL learners to master, but the different ones might be difficult, and consequently, might lead to different types of errors. Its main objective was to predict the areas of differences between the L1 and the L2. Consequently, and for a decade, EFL teachers were optimistic about the predictive ability of the CA approach. However, like any other theory, the CA had some theoretical limitations. Generally, the main criticism was that:

- Not all the similarities between the L1 and the TL were easy to be mastered, nor were all the differences complicated or different (Schachter, 1992). Furthermore,
- CA was also criticized as being insufficient for describing L2 errors by comparing structural differences between L1 and L2.
- Interference from L1 is not the only reason for the occurrence of errors in SLA. Therefore, there was a need to employ another approach in order to clearly describe EFL learners' errors.

EA can provide a good methodology for investigating L2 learners' errors because it plays a fundamental role in *investigating, analysing, and categorising* errors made by L2 learners.

In the field of SLA, EA was first established by Stephen Pit Corder and his colleagues in the late of 1970s and became a very popular approach for describing L2 errors. Corder is the father of this theory. He first indicated it in his article "**The significance of learner errors**" in 1967 when he mentioned that L2 errors are interesting because they can reflect some of the underlying linguistic rules. His theory came as a reaction or a result of the severe criticisms which CA received. Hence, a shift of focus from potential errors to the actual committed ones is needed.

3. Theoretical Assumptions

As mentioned previously, EA involves a systematic description and classification of L2 errors contained in a sample of learner's speech or writing. EA has challenged the CA on the assumption that FL/L2 learners' errors cannot only be caused by interlingual interference from the L1, but they might also be caused due to intralingual interference from the TL itself. In simple words, EA acknowledges interference from L1 as one of the sources of L2 errors, which makes it to some extent related to the CA.

According to EA, a great number of errors made by FL learners are similar regardless of their MT. Such errors are caused due to intralingual interference or transfer. James (1998) claims that such a type of interference from the structures of the TL itself is the main cause of intralingual errors. These errors can be created without referring to L1 features.

4. Error Analysis Objectives

According to Corder (1973), there are two main objectives of EA: one theoretical and the other being known applied.

- 1) The theoretical objective: It checks the validity of the theories such as the theory of transfer. In other words, this objective can help in understanding **how** and **what** a FL learner learns whilst studying a FL.
- 2) The applied objective: This objective enables learners of L2 to learn their TL more efficiently and effectively by using the previous knowledge of their dialects for pedagogical purposes. Once L2 errors are analyzed, the nature of

problems and difficulties encountered by language learners will be identified. Identifying such difficulties can therefore help EFL/ESL teachers pinpoint their students' weaknesses and hence revise their teaching methods and learning materials accordingly (Alkhresheh, 2011).

5. Inter-language

The term 'interlanguage' was firstly used by John Reinecke in 1935. He always used 'interlanguage' to refer to a non-standard variety of a first or second language. It is defined by Larsen, et. al. (1992: 60) as “ a continuum between the first language and the target language along which all learners traverse (Larsen, et. al., 1992: 60). By this definition, scholars reject the view of learner language as merely an imperfect version of the target language. Ellis (1994: 351) quoted Selinker's idea about the characteristics of interlanguage as follows:

- (1) Language transfer (some, but certainly not all, items, rules, and subsystems of a learner's interlanguage may be transferred from the first language)
- (2) Transfer of training (some interlanguage elements may derive from the way in which the learners were taught)
- (3) Strategies of second language learning (Selinker talks about an 'identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned)
- (4) Strategies of second language communication (an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language)
- (5) Overgeneralization of the target language material (some interlanguage elements are the result of a 'clear overgeneralization' of target language rules and semantic features)

6. Investigating L2 Errors

EA is different from CA in the way it *looks, investigates, describes and analyses* learners' errors in general. As stated earlier, CA explains errors committed by L2 learners by comparing between the two systems of the TL and native language of the learners. Negative interference from learners' L1 is not the only source of errors in SLA. L2 errors cannot be only committed because of the influence of their MT. There are certainly some other causes of L2 errors which need to be addressed.

However, such other causes can be clearly explained through the EA approach. According to EA, L2 learners' errors can be attributed to two main different sources:

- 1) **Interlingual** and
- 2) **Intralingual** interference (the effect of the TL itself).

Exploring different sources of L2 errors is needed for the sake of understanding the nature of the language being learnt. EA can help in exploring, investigating and analysing such errors. EA was lately revitalized following important works in the framework by Selinker (1972), Brown (2000). Those researchers have proved the validity of the EA theory in explaining different types of FL learners' errors such as syntactic, grammatical and phonological errors.

7. Steps for Error Analysis

EA is carried out in four consecutive stages as stated by Ellis (1994, p. 48). These stages are as:

- (1) Collection of a sample of learner language,
- (2) Identification of errors,
- (3) Description of errors, and
- (4) Explanation of errors". These stages are summarized and discussed in the following subsections.

7.1. Collection of a Sample of Learner Language

Researchers are different from each other in their choice of data collection methods. According to this stage, learners' errors are influenced by a group of important factors. Ellis (1994, p. 49) asserts that these factors are significant in "collecting a well-defined sample of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produce and under what conditions". The factors are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Factors to Consider when Collecting Samples of Learner Language (Ellis, 1994, p. 49).

Factors	Description
A. Language
<i>Medium</i>	Learner production can be oral or written
<i>Genre</i>	Learner production may take the form of a conversation, a lecture, an essay, a letter, etc.
<i>Content</i>	The topic the learner is communicating about
B. Learner
<i>Level</i>	Elementary, intermediate, or advanced
<i>Mother tongue</i>	The learner's L1
<i>Language learning experience</i>	This may be classroom or naturalistic or a mixture of the two

7.2. Identification of Errors

a) Distinguishing between an error and a mistake: There are certain ways to distinguish between an error and a mistake.

- **Error:** It is associated with checking the consistency of the L2 learner's performance.

if he/she always uses it wrongly, then it is an error.

- **Mistake:** If a learner sometimes uses the correct form of a certain structure or rule and later on uses the wrong one and can be self-corrected.

b) The second way is associated with asking an L2 learner to correct his/her deviant utterance. In case that he/she is unable to, the deviations are errors, and where he/she is successful, they are definitely mistakes. Identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is.

c) Corder's model: because Identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is, Corder (1980) has provided a common model for identifying errors in the utterances of L2/FL learners. According to his model "every sentence is to be regarded as **idiosyncratic** until shown to be otherwise" (p.21). His model provides a good distinction:

1) *Overt errors*

2) *Covert errors*.

If a sentence is ill-formed in terms of TL rules, it has been regarded as '*overtly idiosyncratic*' whilst the sentence that is superficially well-formed but does not mean what the learner intends to mean has been regarded as '*covertly idiosyncratic*'.

d) Interpretation of learners' utterances. Such an interpretation might reveal the main differences between '*what a learner wants to say*' and '*what a learner has said*'. Corder's model shows that literal translation can be a probable indicator of the FL learners' errors which might be attributed to interference from their own MT.

7.3. Description of Errors

This stage of EA takes place after the identification step. No description can be made without identifying the errors. Such a description of FL learners' errors is a prerequisite for a good explanation of errors. Particularly, description of errors helps in serving three major purposes. These purposes can be summarized as follows:

- Initially, would be to instinctively expound all that is unstated, so as to substantiate an individual's instinct.
- The second purpose can be as a prerequisite for counting learners' errors.
- A third purpose is to create categories and subcategories for errors which can help in the process of developing a comprehensive taxonomy of L2 errors.

Corder (1973) classifies FL learners' errors in terms of three dimensions: **1- Types of Errors 2- Levels of Errors, and 3- Stages of Errors.**

7.3.1. Types of Errors

➤ **Addition:**

*Does can he go to college?

*He will to go home.

➤ **Omission / Deletion:**

*I went to # movie. (the)

* My father is # doctor. (a)

➤ **Ordering / Reordering:**

* I to the cinema went. (I went to the cinema.)

* We last night went to the cinema. (We went to the cinema last night.)

➤ **Substitution:**

*I lost my road. (way)

*I goed home. (went)

7.3.2. Levels of Error

a. Phonology (Orthography) Error:

*I went to skuul. (I went to school.)

* He is happyer than Maryam. (He is happier than Maryam.)

b. Grammar (Syntax) Error

* I to the cinema went. (Level: Grammar.- type: ordering)

c. Lexicon (Vocabulary) Error

*I lost my road. (Level: Lexicon- type: substitution)

*I enjoyed from the film. (Level: Lexicon- type: addition)

d. Discourse Error: it is beyond sentence level.

A: How are you?

B: The crops were destroyed by the rain! (No cohesion and coherence)

7.3.3. Stages of Errors

a. Pre-systematic Stage

b. Systematic Stage

c. Post Systematic Stage

7.3.3.1. Pre-systematic Stage:

a. Random Errors:

The learner has no any definite rule in his mind. He can't explain his error and naturally cannot correct it. He she doesn't know where he should use the rules and how. He has no any system in mind.

i. *Hassan cans sing. (Hassan can sing.)

ii. *Hassan can to sing. (Hassan can sing. Or (Hassan has to sing.))

b- Emergent Errors:

In these kinds of errors, the learner tries to make a rule and internalize a system in his mind. These rules may not be correct but they are legitimate in the mind of the learner. Again in this stage the learner cannot correct the errors and even after correcting the native speaker he doesn't understand his errors.

Avoidance of structures and topics can be seen here. .e.g.:

Learner: I go to New York.

Native-Speaker: You are going to New York?

Learner: (doesn't understand) what?

Native-Speaker: You will go to New York?

Learner: Yes

Native-Speaker: when?

Learner: 1999

Native-Speaker: Oh, you went to New York in 1999.

Learner: Yes, I go 1999. (Again he doesn't understand the correction of the Native speaker.)

7.3.3.2. Systematic Errors:

In this stage the learner is more mastered on language and he has some rules in his mind although these rules may not be well-formed. The system in his/her mind is very near to the native speaker's. In this stage the learner is able to correct his/her errors whenever a native speaker mentions them. She/he tries to convey his idea through paraphrasing. (Changing words to convey the message)

Learner: Many fish are in the lake. These fish are serving in the restaurants near the lake.

Native speaker: (laughing) the fish are serving?

Learner: (laughing) Oh, no, the fish are served in the restaurant.

Learner: I lost my road.

Native speaker: What?

Learner: I got lost. (Paraphrasing and avoiding the use of structure)

7.3.3.3. Post-systematic Errors: (Stabilization)

In this stage the learner has a few errors and has mastered the system. The learner is self-controlled on his/her errors without waiting for feedbacks from someone else.

Learner- *I lost my road; I mean I lost my way. If the learner in this stage makes some errors it means his errors has been **fossilized** and correcting these kinds of errors will be very difficult, these errors are permanent.

7.4. Explanation of Errors

The ultimate objective of EA theory is explanation of errors. Hence, this stage is considered the most important for EA research. In order to reach to some effective remedial measures, Corder (1973) claims that the analyst should be aware of the mechanism that triggers each type of error.

Explaining the nature of errors is a fundamental issue in SLA. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005.p,62) declare that "explaining errors involves determining their sources in order to account for why they were made".

8. Source of Errors

8.1. Inter-lingual Transfer

Inter-lingual errors result from the transfer of the elements of the learner's mother tongue to the learning of the target language.

a) Transfer of Phonological Elements of the Mother Tongue:

* /sukuul / instead of /skuul/

b) Transfer of Morphological Elements:

* Three clever student instead of three clever students

c) Transfer of Grammatical Elements

* I am going to university at 8 o'clock every day.

In Arabic: Simple Present Tense = Present Progressive

d) Transfer of Lexicosemantic Elements:

Two different concepts in Arabic are used with the same word which makes interference in English:

1. *I can't study in the dormitory because some students open their radios loudly.
2. *He had a quarrel with his woman.
3. *My father bought a new machine last week.
4. *He smokes a lot of cigar.
5. *It was my chance to be in your class.

e) Transfer of Stylistic and Cultural Elements:

* Mr. Hassan are a good teacher. /al-,ustaath hasan mudarris-un gayid/

8.2. Intra-lingual Transfer

The learner applies one rule in the Native Language for other structures in the Target Language inappropriately.

a) Overgeneralization

I always try to study.

We always go to cinema on Saturdays.

Maryam and Hassan always play the chess-set every night.

* He always try to help me.

* I don't know how did they find my address. (Subject –Verb inversion)

b) Ignorance of Rule Restriction

The Arabic learner doesn't know the restriction and exceptions of a general rule in English.

*There are many fishes in the lake.

*Teachers always give us good advices.

c) False Analogy

It refers to the use of certain elements in inappropriate contexts through analogy.

*I think she should remain home and grow up her child.

8.3. Language - Learning Strategies

It refers to strategies used by the learners in dealing with the target language:

a) Overgeneralization

b) Transfer of rules from the mother tongue

c) Simplification: (we discuss in here) in this strategy learner tries to simplify the rules of target language form himself:

* I am student English language.

* I begin my work afternoon usually.

8.4. Communication Strategy

It is used when the learner is forced to express himself with the limited linguistic resources.

a) Paraphrase

"Pipe" (انث ب) 'unbuub/ instead of "the water pipe" (انث ب ا ماء) 'unbuub al-maa "

Air-ball" (which the learner makes it himself) instead of "balloon"

b) Borrowing

* Don't be tired. Instead of don't work hard. (The learner translates word for word from the native language.)

c) Appeal for Assistance:

*What is this? What called? (The learner asks for the correct term)

d) Mime

Clapping his hands instead of applause (Using nonverbal action in place of lexical items)

e) Avoidance

i. Lexical Avoidance:

I lost my road.

You lost your road?

Uh...I lost. I lost. I got lost.

(The learner tries to avoid the lexical item 'road', not being able to come up with the word ' way' at that point)

f) Syntactic Avoidance

He finished his homework; he went to bed. (Instead of "Having finished his homework, he went to bed.")

g) Prefabricated Patterns

The learner memorizes certain stock phrases or sentences:

- Where is the toilet?
- How much does it cost?
- Where is this address?

h) Language Switch:

Finally, when all the strategies fail, learners may resort to language switch. That is, they may simply use their native language whether the hearer knows it or not.

8.5. Context of Learning

The source of error here is teacher or text book. For example wrong or unsuitable usage of a rule by teacher or using dialogues in a text book without mentioning the formality or informality of occurrences may cause some errors for learning.

8.6. Nonlinguistic Errors: (Idiosyncratic Errors)

These kinds of errors are specialized to individuals or a small group of learners who had the same teacher, used the same textbook, shared identical learning strategies, but the learners do not have a specific methodology for learning and cannot make a generalization for designing a textbook or give the students a specific learning activity.

9. Criticism of EA

There are three points to consider as to criticism of errors according to Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977):

1. Focused only on errors
2. Did not deal with avoidance (relative clauses: Chinese and Japanese vs. Spanish and Farsi English passive avoidance by Arabic speakers phrasal verbs by Hebrew speakers)

3. In short, EA did not deal with what the students were doing that caused them to succeed, that is, it did not deal with what led to learning.

10. Conclusion

Error analysis was criticized for misdiagnosing student learning problems due to their "avoidance" of certain difficult L2 elements. The result today is that both contrastive analysis and error analysis are rarely used in identifying L2 learner problem areas. The debate over contrastive analysis and error analysis has virtually disappeared in the last ten years. Most researchers agree that contrastive analysis and error analysis alone can't predict or account for the myriad errors encountered in learning English (Schackne, 2002).

REFERENCES

- Ahmadvand, M. (2008). Analyzing errors of Iranian EFL learners in their written productions. Retrieved in March 2019 from <http://moslem17.googlepapers.com/AnalysingerrorsofIranianEFLlearners>
- Aiman, S., 2012. *Altagwid almswar*. 2nd Edn., Damascus, Syria: Algazry Library, (In Arabic). BBC Learning English.
- Al-khresheh, M. (2013). *The Misuse of Word Order in the Writing of Jordanian EFL Learners*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*
- Corder, P. (1980). *Error Ailall,srs and Interlangunpe*. Oxford. O.U. P
- Corder, P. (1973). *Introducing applred Iirigilrstic~* New York Penguin,
- Daniel, J., 1996. *An outline of english phonetics*. Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, Rod. 1989. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, Rod; Barkuizen, Gary. (2005). *Analysing learner language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fisiak, Jacek. *Contrastive Linguistics and The Language Teacher*. Oxford: Pergammon Press.

- Fries, C. C. (1945). *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Gass, Susan M.; Selinker, Larry. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring*
- James, Carl (1980). *Contrastive Analysis*. London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across Cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Lado, Robert (1957). *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*. Michigan: The University of Michigan Press
- Larsen, Diane, et al. 1992. *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. London: Longman
- Odlin T. 1989. *Language transfer*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Odlin T. 2003. *Crosslinguistic influence*. In C. Doughty & M. Long (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 436– 486). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Pavlenko A., & Jarvis S. 2002 Bidirectional transfer. *Applied Linguistics*, 23, 190– 214.
- Schachter, J. & Celce Murcia, M. 1977. "Some Remarks Concerning Error Analysis". *TESOL Quarterly*, VOL 11 4: 441 -451.
- Schachter, J. 1991. "Constructive feedback in historical perspective". *Second Language Research*, VOL 7 12: 89-102
- Schackne, Steven. 2002. *Language Teaching Research*. *Journal of Language and Linguistics*. Volume 1 Number 2, ISSN 1475 – 8989
- Schumann, J. and Stenson, N. (eds.). 1975. *New frontiers in second language learning*. Rowley, Ma.: Newbury House.
- Selinker, L. (1972). *Interlanguage*. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(3), 209-231.
- Wardhaugh, R. (1970). 'The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis'. *TESOL Quarterly*.