ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE ERRORS IN THE WRITING OF SECOND YEAR STUDENTS IN A GHANAIAN UNIVERSITY

A thesis

By

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Declaration

I, Evelyn Joyce Mandor (Student # 18022911), hereby declare that the thesis for the PhD degree at the University of Venda, hereby submitted by me, has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university and that it is my work in design and execution; all reference materials contained therein have been duly acknowledged.

Signature:  Date: February 15, 2021

Dedication

This work is dedicated to
my father, Mr. S.S. Seneagya and my late mum, Mrs G.C. Seneagya,
whose encouragement and prayers pushed me this far; and
my nuclear family, Francis Kwame, Eleanor Akua, Francis Kwaku and Fedora Aseye Mandor, who gave me daily motivation not to give up.

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ABBREVIATIONS

BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
BSM	Bilingual Syntax Measure
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CSP	Communication Skill Programme
EA	Error Analysis
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teaching
IL	Interlanguage
JHS	Junior High School
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LAD	Language Acquisition Device
LFG	Lexical-Functional Grammar
MT	Mother Tongue
NT	Native Language
PH	Processability Hierarchy
PT	Processability Theory
SHS	Senior High School
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
TL	Target Language
WAEC	West African Examinations Council
WASSSCE	West African Senior Secondary School Certificate examinations
WIUC	Wisconsin International University College

ABSTRACT

The writing of undergraduate students in universities across Ghana has been described as pitiable by many researchers. To be able to communicate effectively and succeed in an academic discourse community, a student requires sufficient competence in the use of the English language, which is the medium of instruction in universities across Ghana. However, it is observable that most of the students' writing in the English language tends to be fraught with some recurrent errors. Data collected were in the form of written compositions. A mixed-method comprising both qualitative and quantitative procedures was used. The qualitative aspect looked at error taxonomies and the quantitative aspect employed statistics to obtain error frequencies. The errors in the writing of Second Year students of a Ghanaian university were analysed using Error Analysis procedures. The findings revealed that students demonstrated poor writing skills with inherent grammatical errors and a lack of cohesion and coherence. A total of 16 error categories were detected with 25% (expression, omission, spelling, capitalisation) of the total errors ranking very high in terms of frequency of occurrence. This was followed by plurality, addition, choice of words and concord making up another 25% of the total errors detected. Errors such as tense, punctuation, preposition, pronoun, faulty parallelism, fragment, wrong transition and article although ranked low, made up a total of 50%. Based on the findings, the study suggested a revision of the academic syllabus and the methods of learning and teaching English language, especially at the tertiary level to enable students to demonstrate competence concerning English language compositions.

Keywords: errors, error analysis, second language, first language, academic intervention

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Ghana is a multilingual country that uses the English language as a second language. It is surrounded by Francophone countries, namely; Burkina Faso, Togo and the Gulf of Guinea. The English language was introduced to Ghana by the British, who colonised the country in the 1800s. The English language was initially taught to a selected few to make them interpreters to improve communication between the British, who had colonised the country, and the people of the colony (Sackey 1997). An additional reason for the teaching of the English language was to introduce Christianity to the people so they could read the Bible (Sackey 1997). Though it has been over 60 years since Ghana broke away from her colonial masters, the English language has continued to play a significant role in the affairs of the country. The English language has become the official language – the language of administration, trade and commerce and education. Morris (1998 p.15) advanced that "English is used for official purposes: government, education and diplomacy."

Apart from the English language, there are between 65-80 other languages and dialects spoken across the sixteen regions of Ghana but most of these indigenous languages of the country have somewhat been abandoned (Bodomo & Anderson 2009). They are not taught in schools, though attempts have been made to raise the statuses of the languages by making the dominant ones media of instruction in primary schools. There have also been unsuccessful debates as to which of the languages to adopt as a national language for the reason that choosing one language over the other would seem to suggest that the others and their people were inferior. A study by Morris (1998) revealed that although most Ghanaians love the idea of an indigenous language as a national language, there is the fear that it would lead to several conflicts, so to avoid such a portentous situation, the choice of a 'neutral' language, English language, is deemed appropriate because there is no indigenous attachment to it. Accordingly, Ghana has interacted with the English language for over half a century.

Figure 1 Language Map of Ghana

Figure 1 captures the map of Ghana and ethnic languages. It shows that there is a high degree of linguistic heterogeneity in Ghana (Obeng 1997). For this reason, the

language policy of Ghana has been very unstable. Different committees and programmes were put in place at different times in the country's educational history to review the country's language-in-education policy. Some of these committees and programmes include the Educational Acceleration Programme, of 1951, the Dzobo Committee of 1974, the Kwapong Committee of 1986 and the National Literacy Acceleration Programme (NALAP) of 2006 (in Ansre 2017). Many concerns were raised by educationists based on the fact that if the core objective in Ghana's lower primary curriculum, as stated by the Ministry of Education (2007), is to equip pupils with literacy skills that will improve their learning abilities, and serve as a springboard for further academic pursuits, then pupils need to be taught in a language they can easily comprehend, which is their native language. Consequently, there was another educational intervention in 2009 by the Ministry of Education to promote mother-tongue medium of instruction for lower primary schools all over the country (Leherr 2009). The Ministry of Education approved eleven languages to be used as the medium of instruction in the first three years of primary education; English was to be taught as a subject. These languages are Asante Twi, Akuapem Twi, Fante, Ewe, Ga, Dangme, Gonja, Kasem, Nzema, Dagbane and Dagaree (Ministry of Education 2007). The challenges, however, with this policy intervention is that, because of urbanisation and migration, pupils have diverse linguistic backgrounds. Thus, when the dominant language of a locality is used as a medium of instruction at the lower primary level, there is already some level of a challenge with the acquisition. Some pupils will need to learn the language of instruction in addition to their native language. Subsequently, when the English language is taught as a subject, pupils with multilingual backgrounds tend to have challenges acquiring the new language.

Morris (1998) described the English language as the language of academia in Ghana; therefore, proficiency in the English language is a necessity for success at all levels, including the tertiary level. Unfortunately, at the various levels of education, students tend to commit errors in their use of the English language. As Touchie (1986) revealed, learners of a language, be it First Language (L1) or Second Language (L2), are bound

to make mistakes or commit errors in their speech or writing. This phenomenon is more pronounced in L2 learners' language. It is therefore not so much of a surprise to have Ghanaian students commit errors in their writing. These errors have been identified and reported by the main examining board, the West African Examinations Council (WAEC) in Ghana.

At the High School level in Ghana, WAEC Chief Examiners' Reports over the years have consistently highlighted the problem of poor English proficiency. The most commonly reported errors made by students, especially in the major external examinations in the English Language, that is, in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) and West African Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (WASSSCE) for the Junior High School (JHS) and Senior High School (SHS) respectively in Ghana include poor grammatical constructions, unconventional orthography, truncated sentences, among other related language errors (WAEC: Chief Examiners' Reports on BECE and WASSSCE 2016, 2014, 2012, 2010).

Researchers like Owu-Ewie and Eshun (2019) believe that the lack of proficiency stems from the language-in-education policies. The authors observed that Ghana's language-in-education policy is not being adhered to strictly because of the multi-lingual nature of the Ghanaian classroom. They, however, found that though there are multilingual classrooms, L1 was used as the medium of instruction in some classrooms, especially when teachers understood the L1 of the community. Yevudey and Agbozo (2019) commented on the disparities between policy and practice of the language-in-education policy. They are of the view that the language-in-education policy neglected the multilingual realities of Ghana and the linguistic backgrounds of the teacher trainees. Some of these teachers would be posted to different communities where the common language spoken is not understood by the teacher.

Some researchers have conducted studies at the tertiary level to highlight the problems of students in their English language usage. Some of these studies include Hyde (1988); Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994); Dako, Denkabe and Forson

(1997); Anyidoho (2002); Afful (2007); Bakar (2009); Agor (2010) and Asemanyi (2015). In other countries where the English language is learnt as a Second Language and/or as a Foreign Language (ESL/EFL respectively), research has likewise established that learners commit various degrees of errors. Some of these researchers are Banlomchon (2006); Hengwichitkul (2006); Mungungu (2010); Dewanti (2014); Atmaca (2016); and Sermsook, Liamnimitr and Pochakorn (2017).

It has been established in the works of researchers in countries (where English is taught as a Second Language, ESL hereinafter) across the world that students at various levels of education have writing problems, and Ghana is not an exception, as exemplified in the works of Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994); Adika (1999); Agor (2003); Mungungu (2010); Mireku-Gyimah (2014); and Sermsook, Liamnimitr and Pochakorn (2017).

1.1.1 The dynamics of academic literacy in Ghana

Formal education is acquired through language and in Ghana, English is the language of education especially at the tertiary level. Thus, if the language has not been mastered very well, progress in the academic field will be a challenge. At every stage or level of education, a student needs to be very conversant with the demands of the language for the particular level to succeed. Incompetence in the language will be a stumbling block to progress.

At the tertiary level, “the ability to use language to meet the demands of tertiary education is called literacy”. It also refers to “the ability to use academic discourse across different fields of study” (Weideman 2018 p. iii). This means that a student ought to have had adequate knowledge in the language after several years of instruction from primary school through to senior high school to achieve this literacy. Receiving the right instruction from trained instructors or facilitators and having adequate exposure to the use of the language can go a long way to help a student attain academic literacy which may include using appropriate vocabulary and

expression, making sound arguments and drawing logical conclusions, and being able to synthesise information.

Unfortunately, twelve years of instruction in the English language among Ghanaian students have not yielded the much-desired results for various reasons as noted by some researchers (Odamtten, Denkabe & Tsikata, 1994; Dako, Denkabe & Forson, 1997; Anyidoho, 2002; Agor, 2003; Amoakohene, 2017). Some of the reasons assigned for the incompetence of students in the English language include inadequate instruction in the English language, persistent use of Pidgin English among students, the influence of the economic system, ignorance of correct grammatical structures and inadequate training of teachers.

For these various reasons, universities in Ghana have adopted the teaching of academic literacy as a subject or course of study in the first year mostly to get students acquainted with academic language requirements. The course description of English 1 at a Ghanaian university states "This introductory course emphasises the development of comprehension, study skills and strategies that will enhance students' success in academic work; help students communicate using grammatically correct expressions with complex sentence patterns in various situations; enable students to analyse, identify and correctly use types of phrases, clauses and sentences; encourage correct sentence constructions; and enhance students' reading and writing skills through paraphrasing. Another university in Ghana, the University of Ghana, in their academic writing course states that the course "orientates students to understand the expectations of lecturers concerning university-level reading and writing assignments, and equips them with the skills and strategies to meet the requirements". In essence, students need to acquire these skills to be able to write effectively. Effective writing is described by Defazio *et al.* (2010) as "a skill that is grounded in the cognitive domain. It involves learning, comprehension, application and synthesis of new knowledge". Effective writing is not just about the observation of writing conventions but putting one's thoughts together on paper while developing mastery of the rules of writing such as spelling, citation format and grammar (Defazio

et al. 2010). According to Stanford and Richards (2018), “reading is pivotal for solving many language-related issues and is essential for building one’s vocabulary”. Unfortunately, lately, students do not read much because of technology. Students read shallowly but think they have acquired enough knowledge. Thus, they are unable to read longer texts and even concentrate on and follow complex arguments.

1.1.2 The Theories of Second Language Acquisition

To put this study into perspective, it is necessary to look at Second Language Acquisition (SLA, hereinafter) and its theories concerning the linguistic environment. The purpose of these theories is to understand the reason why learners acquire a second language when they already have good knowledge in one. SLA involved various contributions from linguistics, sociolinguistics, psychology, cognitive science, neuroscience and education. These contributions were grouped into four major research disciplines;

- The linguistic dimension of SLA
- The cognitive dimension of SLA
- The socio-cultural dimension of SLA and
- The instructional dimension of SLA

The common goal of these disciplines is to help the learner to facilitate successful language learning. Researchers such as Stephen Krashen proposed that language acquisition does not require broad usage of conscious grammatical rules, and does not require tedious drill. According to Krashen (1982) acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language – natural communication – in which speakers take no notice of the form of their utterances, but the messages being conveyed, and understanding. Krashen specialised in theories of language acquisition and his widely known and well-accepted theories have had a large impact in all areas of second language research and teaching. Krashen’s theory of SLA consisted of five main hypotheses namely;

- the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis,
- the Monitor hypothesis,
- the Input hypothesis,
- the Affective Filter hypothesis,
- the Natural Order hypothesis.

Amongst the five hypotheses, the Acquisition-Learning distinction is the most fundamental of Krashen's theory and most widely known and used by linguists and language teachers. Krashen introduced two independent systems of foreign language performance; the 'acquired system' and the 'learned system'. The acquired system comes from a subconscious process that is similar to the process children undergo when acquiring their first language. The system requires meaningful interaction in the target language – natural communication – where speakers are concentrated in the communicative act rather than the form of their utterances.

The 'learned system' is a result of formal instruction which comprises a conscious process that results in conscious knowledge about the language. An example is the knowledge of the target language grammar rules. The Monitor hypothesis explains the relationship between acquisition and learning. The acquisition system is known as the utterance initiator while the learning system performs the role of the 'monitor' which acts in a planning, editing and correcting function where three conditions are met (Schütz 1998). These conditions are:

- The second language learner has enough time at their disposal.
- The learner focuses on the form or thinks about correctness.
- The learner demonstrates knowledge of the rule.

Krashen (1982) asserted that the role of the monitor is minor and only used to correct deviations from "normal" speech and to give a speech a polished appearance. Schütz (1998) posits that the Input hypothesis explains how learners acquire a second language and how language acquisition takes place. The hypothesis is only

concerned with ‘acquisition’. The learner is believed to improve and progress along with a ‘natural order’ when he/she receives second language ‘input’ that is a step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. The Affective Filter explains Krashen’s view that many ‘affective variables’ play a facilitative, but a non-causal role in second language acquisition. According to Schütz (1998), the affective variables include motivation, self-confidence, anxiety and personal traits. According to Krashen, learners who pose high motivation, self-confidence, a good self-image, a low level of anxiety and extroversion are better placed and equipped for success in second language acquisition. The opposite of these traits can raise the affective filter and form a ‘mental block’ that can prevent comprehensible input from being used for language acquisition. Thus, positive affect is necessary but not sufficient on its own for acquisition to take place.

The Natural Order hypothesis affirms the findings of researchers like Dulay and Burt (1974), and Fatham (1975) which suggested that the acquisition of grammatical structures by learners follow a ‘natural order’ which is predictable. According to Krashen, the Natural Order is independent of the learner’s age, L1 background and conditions of exposure. The Natural Order hypothesis proposed that some of the rules of the target language tend to come early and others come late. Although the hypothesis applies to both first language and second language acquisition, the order of acquisition differs. Research by Selinker (1972), Dulay and Burt (1974) and Krashen (1982) provide an in-depth understanding of linguistic features (phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics) and errors, which form the basis of the error analysis in this particular study.

1.1.3 Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

Several scholarly studies have been done by researchers who have had a wealth of experience in the linguistic corpus. This current study adopted insights from these studies (Table 1). It is important to broaden the scope surrounding the sources of

learner strategies and their relation to the scope of this study which is discussed further in subsequent chapters.

Table 1. Definitions of Language Learning Strategies

Source	Definition
Stern (1983)	A strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour.
Weinstein and Mayer (1986)	Learning strategies are the behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that is intended to influence the learner's encoding process.
Chamot (1987)	Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information.
Wenden and Rubin (1987)	Learning strategies are strategies that contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly.
Cohen (2003)	Learning strategies are conscious thoughts and behaviours used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language.

Source: Canadian Centre of Science and Education (2011)

1.1.4 Methods and approaches to second language teaching

There have been several approaches to teaching language over the years but the choice of one over the other depends on factors such as the theory of language at the time, the theory of learning, learners' needs and the level of the learners. These approaches or methods include the direct method, grammar-translation method,

audio-lingual method, structural approach, natural approach, communicative language approach, total physical response, and many other methods and approaches. Each of these methods and approaches has its aims and focus as well as its shortcomings. The following paragraphs give a brief discussion of some methods and approaches.

- *Total Physical Response (TPR)*

TPR was developed by James Asher, a psychology professor in the 1960s. He describes TPR as a method of teaching language using physical movement to react to verbal input to reduce student inhibitions and lower their affective filter. Richards and Rodgers (2001) also describe TPR as a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action; it attempts to teach language through physical activity. Asher sees successful adult second language (L2) learning as parallel to child first language (L1) acquisition. Asher further draws attention to the fact that speech directed to young children consists primarily of commands, which they respond to physically before they begin to produce verbal responses.

- *Communicative Language Teaching Approach*

Littlewood (1981 p.1) describes CLT as an approach that pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language. The theory of language underlying this approach is communication. Hymes (1972) refers to the goal of language teaching as to develop “communicative competence”. Widdowson (1978) in his book “Teaching Language as Communication” focused on the communication acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. In CLT, language activities are selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use rather than the merely mechanical practise of language patterns. The objectives of CLT as discussed by Piepho (1981) are as follows:

- An integrative and content level
- A linguistic and instrumental level

- An effective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct
- A level of individual learning needs
- A general educational level of extra-linguistic goals

- *Situational Language Teaching (SLT) Approach*

SLT approach is based on two principles which are firstly that language is primarily speech and secondly that a language is a set of habits-language learning is said to be habit-forming. The theory of learning underlying the SLT approach is a type of behaviourist habit-learning theory where the language is learned through selective stimuli and repetitive pattern. Grammatical and vocabulary items are taught orally until they have been mastered before reading and writing is done. This approach has two main objectives; namely,

i. to ensure that there are no errors as accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar as errors are to be avoided at all costs.
ii. to ensure the automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns, which is fundamental to reading and writing skills.

A learner will have automatic control of a language when the language has become a habit. This means that SLT focuses on oral practice and correct grammar and sentence patterns.

- *Direct Method*

Teaching is done directly in the TL in this method. Students are forbidden to speak in the MT in the formal education setting. Grammar rules are avoided and there is the emphasis on good pronunciation. The approach focuses on the development

of oral skills. The teaching concepts and vocabulary are done through pantomimes, real-life objects and other visual materials. Grammar is taught inductively; learners find out rules through the presentation of adequate linguistic forms in the TL. Richards and Rodgers (2001 p.13) noted that DM required "teachers" who were native speakers or who had native-like fluency in the foreign language. The method was heavily criticised for various reasons including the argument that the method was often counterproductive because teachers had to go through great lengths to avoid the use of the NL which could help a student to easily comprehend concepts.

- *Grammar Translation Method (GT)*

This method is derived from the classical method of teaching Ancient Greek and Latin. Richards and Rodgers (2001 p. 7) point out that GT has neither a theory nor any advocates. In GT classes, students learn grammatical rules and then apply these rules by translating sentences between the TL and the NL. Rules are memorised and lists of vocabulary are learned by heart and as Richards and Rodgers (2001) put it, learners went through "a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translations of silted or literary prose". Little or no emphasis is put on developing oral ability. Two main goals of the GT are:

i. to enable students to read and translate literature written in the source language
ii. to further students' general intellectual development.

Krashen (1982) proposed five predictable stages of second language acquisition which were pre-production, early production, speech emergence, intermediate production and advanced production. Out of these predictable stages, students in the tertiary institutions are assumed to be at the advanced production level. Thus, the student has a near-native level of acquisition both in speech and writing. Students are

hence assumed to be able to write effectively, include main plot elements and leave unnecessary details. For this reason, though there are general approaches and strategies to language teaching across the linguistic environment (Selinker,1972), teachers at the tertiary levels of education in Ghana tend to use approaches they consider appropriate for their students as there has not been any evidence of a prescribed approach for language teaching at the tertiary level. Teachers tend to adopt approaches that they believe would lead to attaining the desired results of making students literate. It must be noted that the content of the teaching syllabus is specific to each university though some items in the contents may be similar. Selinker (1972) observed, however, that teaching methods influence the language acquisition process of learners. Therefore, if the choice of teaching methods of a language teacher is inappropriate, learning will be ineffective, and this may have accounted for the poor performance of students in the English language usage.

1.1.5 The contents of the English Language academic syllabus

Unlike the basic and secondary schools, universities tend not to have a prescribed syllabus for the courses taught. Individual universities, therefore, develop their course syllabus with its contents. Also, individual universities have standard procedures and formats for developing courses and programmes. As to whether the contents of the syllabus meet any specifications is difficult to ascertain. It is important to note that a learner cannot learn everything that needs to be learned about a language at the same time. Krashen and Terrel (1983) posited that students learning a second language move through five predictable stages namely; preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency and advanced fluency. Language items that must be learned at any level need to be carefully selected to meet the needs of learners. These items need to be organised systematically. This systematic procedure forms part of the organisation of the content of an academic syllabus. It is therefore important to understand what a course syllabus is and why it is important.

By definition, a syllabus is a “specification of work of a particular department in a school or college, and it might be broken down into subsections, which will define the work of a particular group or class. A syllabus must specify a starting point, which should be related to a realistic assessment of the level of beginning students, and ultimate goals, which may or may not be realised by the end of the course, depending on the abilities of the learners and their progress in a particular course” (Bradford vts no date p. 3).

“The syllabus is a form of support for the teaching activity that is planned in the classroom and a form of guidance in the construction of appropriate teaching materials” (Bradford vts no date p.5). Syllabi are designed taking into consideration the diversity of the learners’ needs, wants, and aspirations, the concept of the syllabus for SL/FL teaching (Bradford vts no date p.5). Thus, if the course aims to make learners fluent speakers at the end of the course duration, topics that will enhance this are to be put together in the syllabus of such a course.

According to Eberly *et al*. (2001), instructors are masters in their field of expertise and syllabus construction is not typically included in graduate school. However, Instructors look to senior instructors for input and suggestions on how to create and what to include in a syllabus. Fink (2012) explains the roles that syllabi play for different groups within an institution. These roles include a communication mechanism, a planning tool for instructors, a course plan for students, a teaching tool or resource, an artefact for teacher evaluation, and evidence for accreditation.

Based on these roles, it can be deduced that the role a particular syllabus plays depends on the institution and the individual using it. For instance, Fink (2012) explains that while administrators need the syllabi to provide certain information for the integrity of programmes and ultimately for accreditation, the departments (faculty) need to include course goals, objectives and outcomes in their syllabi so that the students get information on what they are expected to know and by what time (Becker & Calhoon 1999; Fink 2012).

For these very reasons, universities in Ghana have different course syllabi. Though most of the contents may be similar, some variations can be noticed, even with the course names. For instance, in the university under study, the English course, which is mandatory for the Level 100s for all programmes except the Business School, is named English 1 for the first semester and English II for the second semester. The Business School, because of the required total credit hours for their programme, opted for only a semester of this mandatory academic requirement thus their course is named English Language. The difference with their course is that while the rest of the Level 100s do the English course in two semesters, the Business School does theirs in one semester. Thus, the topics extracted from English I and English II are compressed and taught in just one semester. This does not allow the lecturer enough time to delve deep into the topics and the student enough time to grasp them. Some of the topics taught in all three courses (English I, English II and English Language) include parts of speech; phrases and clauses; sentences and sentence types; concord; punctuations; sense relations; avoiding faulty sentences; tenses; and paraphrasing. The others are reading strategies/techniques; formal and informal English in academic writing; the paragraph structure; the academic essay; plagiarism and referencing; and paraphrasing and summarising. Comparing the course syllabus of the university under study to that of the University of Ghana, there are a few similarities and differences. At the University of Ghana, the required English course, a mandatory one at that, is called Academic Writing. This course is taught in two years, that is, Level 100 and Level 200. In Level 100, it is called Academic Writing 1 while Level 200 is called Academic Writing II. Here, a student has the choice of offering the course in the first or second semester of each year unlike in the university under study, was English I is taught in the first semester of the first year and English II in the second semester of the same year. The course content of the Academic Writing I and Academic Writing II courses in the University of Ghana include; introduction to academic writing, academic style, the paragraph structure, essay writing, reading for information: skills and strategies, tenses and punctuation, and a general introduction to referencing skills and plagiarism; and deviant usage and common mistakes, writing

skills(making notes from a text), writing skills (summary writing), grammar (dangling modifiers/misplaced modification), academic presentation skills, writing from multiple sources (using references, quotations, verbs of reference, combining sources, providing cohesion), and writing models (reports, essays, scientific reports, etc.) respectively. It can be noted here that the English language course for both universities is very similar. However, the big question is the methodology; how is the teaching done/how is the content handled by the teachers; do the students gain the level of competence required at the end of the course; is there enough time allocated for the course; what is the student-teacher ratio; are the teachers able to measure the level their students have attained in the English language acquisition process/how do teachers measure the level of acquisition of their students?

1.1.6 Aspects of discourse in written composition

To achieve good essay writing skills, students need to have the capacity to use lexical and grammatical cohesion. The composition consists of the greatest level of sentences in the language hierarchy. The relationship between sentences in composition must be organised continuously and must also form cohesion. This cohesiveness of meaning and form is amongst one the important factors concerning the level of legibility. A very good composition must take into account the relationship between one sentence and another within a paragraph, and also between paragraphs. A complete paragraph, which consists of several sentences, and an effective paragraph require cohesion and coherence. These two elements (cohesion and coherence) are important in maintaining interconnectedness so that the sentences become integrated within the composition. Cohesion in the English language is related to the linguistic system and this implies that when constructing a text in various meanings, it should be associated and what is being written must be connected to the semantic environment to ensure that they are related to each other. This is an indication that cohesion is an extremely important component in essay writing. Cohesive devices can be essentially different among languages, especially in Ghana. Teachers need to pay attention to these devices to maintain students' understanding of the interrelation among the sentences in essay writing. The linkage of forms in

linguistics shows the cohesion and coherence in any essay. Ampa (2019 p.1339) iterated that “Cohesion is a relationship between sections in the text marked by the use of language elements”. According to Ampa and Basri (2019), cohesion is an interrelationship within a discourse that can exist either in a grammatical or in a particular lexical structure. Ampa and Basri (2019 p.1339) stated that cohesiveness arises because of the harmony of one element relation with other elements in the discourse to create a coherent understanding. Hoey (1991) affirms this by defining cohesion as the way of certain words or grammatical features of a sentence that can relate the sentence with others in a text. Carter (1998) defined cohesion as to how the texts are orally connected. Ampa and Basri (2019) state that from a syntactic point of view, cohesion is the suitability and continuity of a text form. Similar to components of the semantic system, cohesion can be realised through grammar and vocabulary. Cohesion exists as either grammatical or lexical cohesion.

The tertiary education in Ghana does not follow a systemic functional linguistic structure. ‘Systemic’ refers to the view of language as a “network of systems or interrelated sets of options for making meaning” (Halliday 1961). ‘Functional’ refers to Halliday’s view that language is the way that it is because of what it has evolved to do and thus goes further to define the multi-dimensional architecture of language. This study may not probe deeper into the multi-dimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relation concerning language but limits itself to looking at written compositions and aligning the theories of Halliday and Hasan (1976) hence the adoption of cohesion and coherence as an aspect of composition writing.

To determine the quality of writing among students of a Ghanaian university, it is essential to assess the cohesion, coherence, syntax and morphology of their written composition. The following paragraphs will look at these four categories but the emphasis will be laid more on cohesion and coherence. Thus, the study will focus on the lexicon and sentence structure. To discuss these aspects of written composition, this part of the study first looks at the grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion in written composition.

1.1.6.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical Cohesion refers to the way that grammatical feature is attached across sentence boundaries. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), grammatical cohesion consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions. Each category is described briefly in the following paragraphs:

Reference

The term Reference refers to the situation in which one element cannot be semantically interpreted unless it is referred to another element in the text. According to Bloor and Bloor (2013), devices such as pronouns, articles, demonstratives and comparatives are used to refer to items in linguistic or situational texts. The authors iterated that Reference may either be exophoric or endophoric. Exophoric reference may task a reader to infer the interpreted referent by looking beyond the text in the immediate environment shared by the reader and the writer (Bahaziq 2016 p.113).

Endophoric reference is embedded within the text itself. Endophoric reference can be classified as either anaphoric or cataphoric. Paltridge (2012 p.115) describes anaphoric reference as “where a word or phrase refers back to another word or phrase used earlier in the text.” In an example:

John went to the hospital. He sat in front of David.

In the statement above, ‘He’ refers to John, implying that ‘He’ is an anaphoric reference.Cataphoric reference according to Bahaziq (2016) looks forward to another word or phrase mentioned later in the text. For example:

Immediately he arrived, Seth sat on the chair.

In the sentence above, ‘He’ is a cataphoric reference that looks forward to Seth.

Substitution

To avoid repetition, an item is replaced by another item in a text. Such a replacement is called substitution. Substitution differs from *reference* in the sense that it lies in the relation between words, whereas reference lies in the relation between meanings. Substitution can be categorised into three types namely; nominal, verbal and clausal. To give a brief overview of the three, nominal substitution occurs when a noun or a nominal group is substituted with another noun. For example:

This chair is broken. I will purchase a new one.

In the example above, 'one' substitutes 'chair'. Elements of nominal substitution include one, ones and same.

Verbal substitution involves the substitution of a verb or a verbal group with another verb. For example:

I need you to eat that food before I do.

In the example above, 'do' has been used to substitute 'before I eat that food.' Elements of verbal substitution include: do.

Clausal substitution involves substituting clauses with 'so' or 'not'. For example,

a. Do you think it will rain tomorrow?

b. No, I don't think so

In the example above, 'so' substitutes the clause 'it will rain'.

Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976) look at ellipsis as the process of omitting an unnecessary item that has been mentioned at an earlier stage in a text and replaced with nothing.

Ellipsis is similar to substitution in the sense that it is simply 'substituting by zero'. It is also considered an anaphoric relation because the omission occurs within a text. However, the text can still be understood. Ellipsis equally exists in three types namely; nominal, verbal and clausal.

Nominal ellipsis occurs when a noun is omitted. Bahaziq (2016 p.113) gives a perfect example by stating that "My brothers love sports. Both [o] love football."

In the second sentence, the noun 'My brothers' is omitted. Verbal ellipsis is simply the omission of a verb. The examples below demonstrate verbal ellipsis.

a. Have you been cooking?
b. Yes, I have [o]. [o: been cooking]

Causal ellipsis simply occurs when the clause is omitted. For example:

a. Who is working on the roof?
b. Peter is [o]. [o: working on the roof]

Conjunction

Conjunctions are words that serve as linking devices between sentences or clauses in a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), conjunctions express the 'logical-semantic' relation between sentences rather than between words and structures. Conjunctions tend to structure the text in a logical order and this promotes meaning to the reader. There are four types of conjunctions namely; additive, adversative, causal and temporal. To give a general definition for these types, additive conjunctions connect units that share semantic similarity (Bahaziq 2016). Examples include; 'and',

'likewise', 'furthermore' and 'in addition'. Adversative conjunctions, according to Bahaziq (2016), express contrasting results or opinions examples include; 'but', 'however', 'in contrast' and 'whereas'. The author further describes causal conjunctions as words and phrases which are used to introduce a cause, reason or explanation for a given action within a sentence. Some examples include; 'so', 'thus', 'therefore' and 'because'. Temporal conjunctions, Bahaziq (2016) explains, express the time order of events. Examples include; 'finally', 'then', 'soon' and 'at the same time'.

To put the study of cohesion and coherence in student composition into perspective, Halliday and Hasan (1976) and De Beaugrande and Dressier (1981) concluded that cohesion is an essential component of coherent text. As mentioned earlier, cohesion and coherence are essential components of a written composition that promote the meaning of effective written composition.

However, the fact about cohesion being an essential part of a text was disputed among the likes of Enkvist (1990) who proposed the linguistic-stylistic model in 1976, and Carstens (1987,1997) who provided examples to demonstrate that cohesion is neither a necessary nor sufficient condition for a text to be interpreted as coherent. According to Carstens, (1987 p.27), the text which is linked by examples of various categories of lexical cohesion may nevertheless be incoherent if it shows no meaning relations (1987 p.28). This was affirmed by Enkvist (1990 p.12) who provided the text below despite the presence of repetition links but may be considered incoherent.

"My car is black. Black English was a controversial subject in the seventies. At seventy most people have retired. To re-tire means "to put new tires on a vehicle". Some vehicles such as hovercraft have no wheels. Wheels go round".

(Enkvist, 1990 p.12)

The text above shows the presence of cohesive links. However, there are no underlying semantic meaning relations and the reader, therefore cannot derive a "consistent world picture" (1990 p.12) from the text.

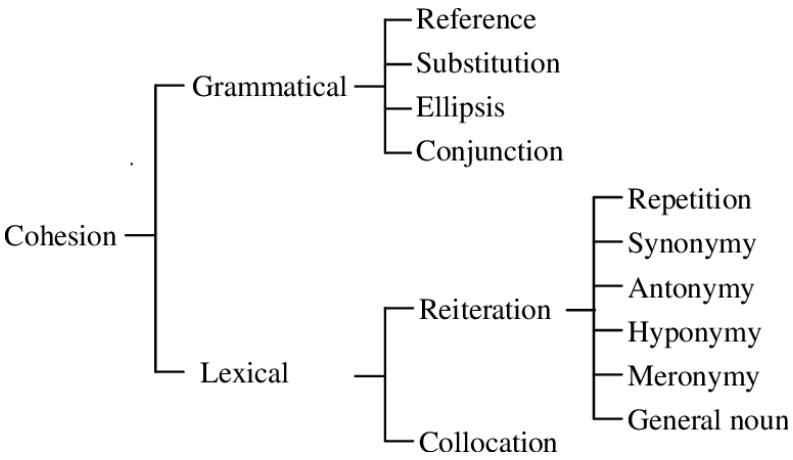

Figure 2. Types of Cohesion based on Halliday and Hasan (1976)

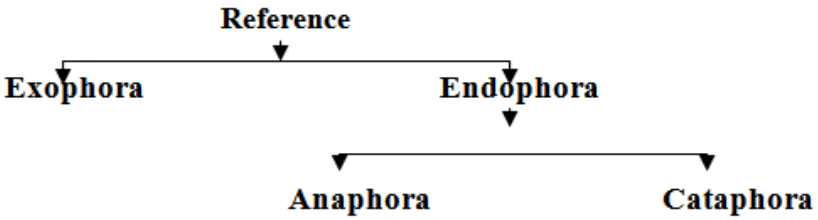

Figure 3. Reference classification by Halliday and Hasan (1976)

1.1.6.2 Lexical cohesion

Fouché and Oliver (2020) define a text as a piece of language use that is experienced and accepted as a communicative unit on syntactic, semantic and pragmatic foundations. Texts express unique linguistic (syntactic, morphological and lexical) structure. Texts should be understandable, intelligible and explainable in a linguistic sense. Another characteristic of the identification of a text is the presence of texture. According to Fouché and Oliver (2020), the texture is acquired when a text functions

as a unit concerning its surroundings. To accomplish this unit, cohesive markers are used and consequently ensure texture.

Reiteration

According to Arifiani (2016), reiteration involves the repetition of a lexical item at one end of the scale, using of a general word to refer back to a lexical item at the other end of the scale, and a number of the things between of synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate. Reiteration is divided into six types namely repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and general noun. Repetition is simply repeated words or word phrases threading to the text according to Halliday and Hasan (1976).

A synonym is another form of lexical cohesion that involves the use of lexical items which are synonymous. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the concept of synonymy can apply to words that do not belong to the same word class. For example, 'cheered' and 'applause' used in the sentences:

Everyone '*cheered*.'

The leader acknowledged the '*applause*.'

Antonymy describes a relationship between lexical items that have opposite meanings. Hyponymy describes a "specific general" relationship between lexical items. Meronymy describes a 'part-whole' relationship between lexical items.

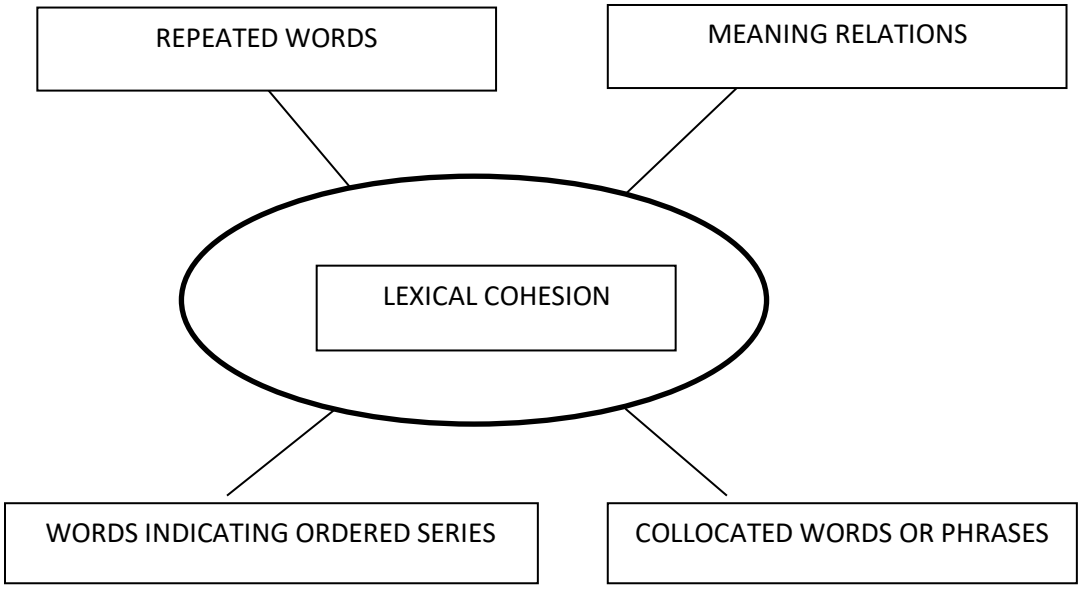

Figure 4. Lexical cohesion

The definitions of lexical cohesion have been similar across researches. Halliday and Hasan (1976) presented an in-depth description of lexical cohesion which has been relied on extensively by linguistic to define and describe cohesion in the corpus of linguistics. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), lexical cohesion represents a group of words that is lexically cohesive when all the words are semantically related. The two functions for lexical cohesion are: first, to link word and word, phrase and phrase within a text. Lexical cohesion can be subcategorised into repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy and general word; second, to indicate co-occurrence of words with related meanings and in the same environment.

Collocation

Collocation is related to lexical items with the tendency to o-occur. According to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) systematic model of cohesion, collocation is the final form and the most problematic part of lexical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan's illustration of collocation is through the poem 'A little fat man of Bombay'

‘A little fat man of Bombay
Was smoking one very hot day
But a bird called a snipe
Flew away with his pipe
Which vexed the fat man of Bombay’.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) posit that there is a strong collocational bond between smoke and pipe in the poem.

1.1.6.3 Coherence

When sentences and ideas are connected and flow together smoothly, coherence is said to be achieved. In composition writing, it is important for the reader to nderstand the ideas and main points of the essay. This means that coherence acts as the logical bridge between words, sentences and paragraphs. Lack of coherence in a written composition denies the reader the ability to understand and follow the writing. In other words, ideas in a written composition should be interwoven and ‘glued’. Coherence can be increased through the use of signposts and transitional words, parallelism, consistent point of view and repetition.

In this part of the study, coherence is defined to increase readers’ knowledge about the aspects of written composition investigated which formed the basis of many of the errors detected in the data collected from the participants. Coherence is a product of two factors namely; paragraph unity and sentence cohesion, according to (Kies 2003). Kies argues that writers must:

- Ensure that arguments raised in a written composition are logically structured and arranged.
- Develop arguments logically through the use of paragraphs
- Be sure to produce a clear introduction, body and conclusion
- Ensure every part of the text fits together.

- Make sure every new paragraph is related to the previous paragraph in the writing.
- Plan the flow and development of your argument before writing.
- Ensure that paragraphs are conceptually linked and not only sentences.

1.1.7 Key concepts of Error Analysis

According to Corder (1976), errors are significant within three frameworks. Interestingly, before Corder, learners' errors were observed by linguists and these errors were divided into categories to investigate which ones were common and which were not. However, not much attention was given to EA's role in SLA. Corder (1967) postulated that information about errors would be helpful to teachers, researchers and learners.

First, errors inform the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed if they undertake a systematic analysis and consequently, what remains of the learner to learn.

Second, errors provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned or acquired and the strategies the learner employs in their discovery of the language.

Third and most important, errors are indispensable to the learner because committing errors can be regarded as a device the learner uses to learn. According to Corder (1976 p.163), the occurrence of errors is merely signs of "the present inadequacy of our teaching methods". These needed to be investigated and are presented below:

The input is determined by the learner. In this regard, the teacher may present a linguistic form that may not necessarily be the input but simply what is available to be learned. This implies that learners' needs must be considered when teachers are planning their syllabi. It should be noted that syllabi were previously based on theories and not much of the learners' needs. Learner built-in syllabus according to Mager (1962) is more efficient than the teacher's syllabus and this was backed by Corder (1967) who reaffirmed that if such a built-in syllabus exists, then errors committed by

learners would confirm its existence and would be systematic. Corder (1967) goes on to distinguish between systematic and non-systematic errors and calls the unsystematic error as one that occurred in a learner's NL. Corder notes that down as "mistakes" and reiterated that they are not significant to the process of language learning. Corder maintained the term "errors" as the systematic ones which occur in an L2.

To solidify the second point raised under the significance of errors, Corder reaffirmed that apart from errors showing teachers how a language is required as well as the strategies the learner uses, they also show the learner how they can learn from these errors. Corder stems on this point by postulating that when a learner has made an error, the most efficient way to teach them the correct form is not giving it to them but to allow the learners themselves discover it and test different hypothesis. Corder discovered that many errors were a result of the transfer of learner's NL and iterated that possession of one's NL is facilitative. Corder claimed that errors, in that case, were not inhibitory but rather a sign to show one's learning strategies. For example, in a language classroom, the teachers are used to correcting errors automatically and regard all hesitation on the part of the student as a request for help. Thus, a delay in the correction would give the learner a greater opportunity for self-correction which would go along to help the development of autonomous control processes on the part of the learner. This is a characteristic of the competence in the communication of the NL and considered essential in the socialization of the TL. A routine correction by the teacher will run the risk of making learners dependent on corrections by others. Moreover, error correction by the teacher as self-correction of a problem of perception reduces the risk of hurting the self-esteem of students and would confirm the conditions of acquisition found in a natural setting.

1. 2 Statement of the problem

After several years of instruction in the English language as a subject and as a medium of instruction from the basic school level to the university level in Ghana, students

ought to have a good grasp of the English language by the time they get to the university. However, researchers such as Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994), Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997), Adika (1999), Anyidoho (2002), Agor (2003) and Mireku-Gyimah (2014) have found otherwise among university students in Ghana. Among some of the deviance identified by these researchers in the English language writing of students in the university level are:

- lack of cohesion and weak handling of thematic progression.
- problems with concord, tense, word choice, pronouns, subordination, ambiguity, punctuations and spelling.

These errors found in students' writing have led to the introduction of academic support in the English language in nearly all universities in Ghana for First Year (Level 100, hereinafter) students. This is a mandatory or required course without which a student may not be eligible to graduate.

In the selected university for the study, English I (Grammar), and English II (Academic Writing) are taught as a form of academic support in the first and second semesters of Level100 respectively. Despite this academic support, students still commit errors in their usage of the English language, especially in their writing.

1.3 Aims of the Study

The study aims to discuss the competence level of Level 200 students after they have been given the academic intervention in the English Language for two semesters in Level 100. This study seeks to analyse whether the students can apply the impacted knowledge gained from the intervention programme by writing error-free compositions or whether challenges are still faced in avoiding errors in their compositions. The second underlying purpose is to also reactivate the interest of language acquisition researches in students' use of the English language at the tertiary level of education and subsequently seek to update the academic syllabus periodically.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to analyse English Language errors in the writing of Level 200 students of a selected university in Ghana. The specific objectives are:

a. To analyse the types of errors in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university.
b. To identify the frequency of the errors in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university.
c. To examine how sentence-level errors affect discourse-level issues in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university.
d. To examine the effectiveness of the academic intervention given to Level 100 students of the selected university.

1.5 Research Questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

a. What types of errors are found in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university?
b. How often do these errors occur in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university?
c. To what extent do sentence-level errors affect discourse-level issues in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university?
d. How effective is the academic intervention given to Level 100 students of the selected university?

1.6 Assumptions underpinning the study

The study operated on the following assumptions:

- Students' writing that is characterised by English language errors was considered sub-standard and, therefore, inhibited students' success in the academic discourse community.
- When the English language errors in students' writing are not rectified at the university level, the errors become cyclical and chronic.
- The tendencies to use unacceptable English language structures and constructions in their correspondences at work after university become greater.

1.7 Delimitation of the study

The study explored errors in the writing of students. It was mainly limited to the university community. Specifically, its scope covered Level 200 undergraduate students in a Ghanaian university. Emphasis was placed on manifestations of errors (both the morphological and syntactic levels) in the academic writing of undergraduate students.

1.8 Significance of the study

The study is significant in two ways. These are described below:

- The role of Error Analysis concerning Second Language Acquisition

Discussed in detail in the upcoming sections, Error Analysis (EA hereinafter) is significant because it offers a systematic method to analyse learners' errors which provide insights into the complicated processes of language development. The role of EA is to provide a systematic way of identifying, describing and explaining students' errors. These errors help teachers and researchers better understand the processes of second and foreign language acquisition. The significance of this study is to apply EA to students' written performance and better understand students' lack of grammatical accuracy as well as lack of rule applications to the English language in the linguistic environment.

EA's role in SLA has also been to help teachers and researchers understand new ways of teaching through feedback on errors made by learners. The errors tend to provide new insights and techniques to teachers, researchers and linguists in sorting out issues related to language learning. This makes EA undoubtedly important in second and foreign language teaching and learning.

- The contributions of the study

The contributions of researchers like Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994), Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997), Anyidoho (2002), Agor (2003) and Mireku-Gyimah (2014) on the errors that students at the tertiary level commit cannot be discounted. However, many of these researches were conducted on learners of the English language at the beginners' stages, that is, fresh students or First Year students (Level 100), who have little or no knowledge of academic discourse and academic vocabulary. Again, some of these studies focused on word-level errors while others focused on sentence-level errors. In this study, English language errors in the writing of Second Year (Level 200) students in a Ghanaian university, at both word and sentence levels were critically considered. A mixed-method approach to analysing EA data ensures appropriate quality description of all aspects of Error Analysis which have been challenging for many researchers. This current study adds breadth to a multidisciplinary team of researches by fostering the interaction of mixed-method scholars who are not many in the social science environment in Ghana.

When the English language writing of students is characterised by errors, they pose a great threat to students' success in the academic discourse community. This tends to lead to communication challenges such as miscommunication and misconstruction of information. It was therefore relevant for the study of errors to be conducted especially among the Level 200 students of a Ghanaian university to:

- Address the errors identified in the writing of Level 200 students.
- Ascertain the effectiveness or otherwise of the academic support given to

students at Level 100.

- Introduce apposite pedagogies or modify the present pedagogies to aid students to fit better into the academic discourse community.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter One provides a background of the study. This covers the general introduction to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions guiding the study, delimitation of the study, assumptions, significance of the study and the structure of the study.

In Chapter Two, existing literature on works of experts and other researchers that have covered the subject of the study is reviewed and the theory underpinning the study was explored in detail.

Chapter Three focuses on the methodology that is used in the study. It covered the research approach and design, data collection procedures, population and data sampling techniques as well as methods of analysing the data.

Chapter Four presents, analyses and discusses the findings of the data obtained from the study.

The Fifth Chapter presents the summary, concludes the study and also offers recommendations for future studies.

1.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a general overview of the entire study and introduced the reader to the background of the study, the problem research objectives and questions, and the assumptions underpinning the study. Additionally, a perfunctory look was taken of related fields of literature. The significance of the study and how the study

was carried out to achieve the set objectives was further spelled out. The chapter ended with the organisational structure of the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Many reviews on studies conducted have been discussed in this chapter to explain what constitutes errors and mistakes and what accounts for these errors and mistakes. The introductory part of this section defines linguistic terms related to Error Analysis (EA hereinafter); this introductory part focuses on explaining some terms, theories and hypotheses with the EA framework. The study examines the corpus of theories, issues and concepts underpinning the research. There is a focus on existing theories, the relationship between these theories and their degree of investigations. In this chapter, a survey of the history of literature concerning EA is exposed to broaden the scope of the chronological progression of language acquisition over the past years, and their status in modern linguistic study.

2.1 Errors and Mistakes

Errors and Mistakes are both forms of deviations. By definition, a deviation is something that does not conform to the standard. Therefore an expression or the use of a language system that is inconsistent with the language learnt can be classed as a deviation. To distinguish between errors and mistakes, Corder (1967, 1971) and James (1998) introduced a criterion that helps the process - a mistake can be self-corrected, but errors cannot. This is because errors are “systematic,” and often not recognised by the learner. According to Norris (1983), errors are a systematic deviation when a learner has no absolute knowledge about something and consistently gets it wrong. A mistake, in Norris’ perspective, is an inconsistent deviation when a learner has knowledge about a certain form and tends to use that form correctly sometimes and at other times uses it inconsistently. Brown (1994) likewise posited that in language learning, an error is what learners make in their L2 writing because they do not know the syntactic and lexical structures, whereas a mistake is looked at concerning the learners’ low competence in using a foreign language. Moreover, Ellis (1997) explains that errors reflect the gaps in learner’s knowledge. Furthermore, a deviation, according to Brown (2000), is termed a mistake if it refers to a performance error, that is, either a random guess or a slip which is

perceived as a failure to use a known system correctly. Besides, Richards and Schmidt (2002) define an error as the use of language in a way that a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as faulty or incomplete learning. Brown (1987) advances that language learning, like any other human learning, is a process that involves the making of mistakes. Errors are a normal phenomenon in language learning, and even native speakers of a language do make mistakes. Learners of language learn through errors and mistakes. Consequently, Norrish (1983) concludes that making mistakes can, indeed, be regarded as an essential part of learning.

2.2 Errors in the Process of Second Language Acquisition

Errors in the English language may exist in different forms. It is important to take a deeper dive into understanding the different forms of errors that are related to this study. This section takes a look at the selected types of errors relating to the subject or topic. These errors are emphasised to help researchers' understand the categorisation of data to be used for the study.

2.2.1 Performance Errors and Competence Errors

First mentioned by Noam Chomsky in 1965, performance errors are associated with errors made by learners due to tiredness, laziness or hurriedness (Touchie 1986). These errors are often not considered as serious and can be overcome with efforts from the learner. Competence errors, on the other hand, tend to be serious errors. This is because competence error depicts inadequate learning. Suryani and Hidayatullah (2017) describe errors of competence as the result of the application of rules by the first language learner which do not correspond with the second language norm, and errors of performance as the result of a mistake in language use. According to the authors, with the error of competence, the learner knows what is grammatically correct. The authors further explain that errors of performance manifest themselves as "repeats, false starts, corrections or slips of the tongue" (69).

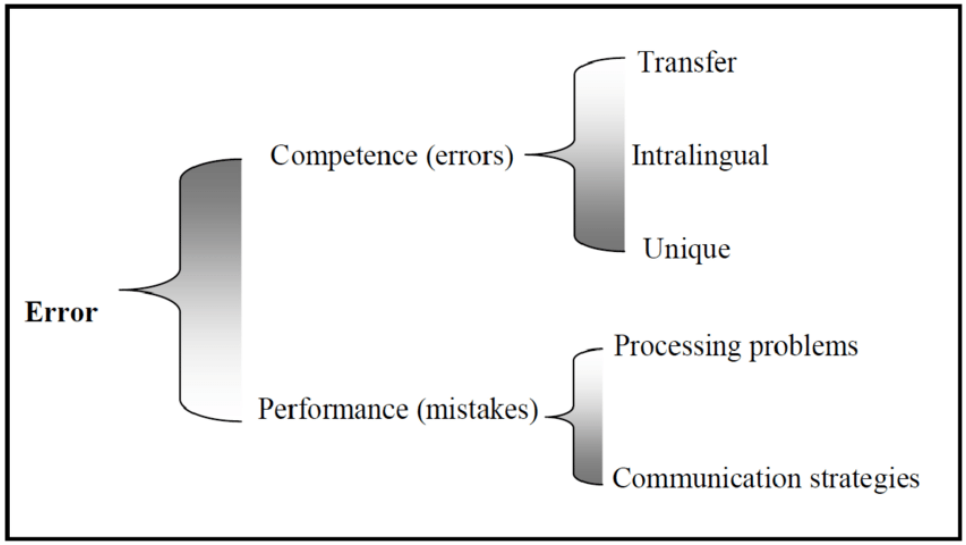

Figure 5. Psycholinguistic sources of errors (Ellis 1994 p.58)

2.2.2 Global Errors and Local Errors

Global errors, according to Burt (1975), are errors that may or can alter the intended meaning of the speaker substantially. They include errors such as misordering of words when using connectors and under/over-generalisation of syntactic rules. In other words, global errors interfere with the comprehensibility of a text. Thus, they embed the overall content, ideas and organisation of the argument made by the writer. Wrong word order in a sentence is another example of a global error. Local errors on the other hand are errors that do not significantly hinder comprehension, for example, mistakes in the use of nouns, articles, auxiliaries and inflexions. Local errors are often related to minor errors such as grammar, spelling or punctuation. They do not hinder understanding of a text nor hinder communication. However, Tran (2013) in a study on *Approaches to Treating Errors*, observes that it is not easy to distinguish between global and local errors. According to Tran, one type of error may be a global error in one text but it may also be a local error in another text.

2.3 Sources of Errors

According to Touchie (1986), there are two main sources of errors in SLA. The first major source is known as Interlingual errors and the second source is Intralingual and developmental errors. This section takes a brief look at their definitions.

2.3.1 Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors, also called transfer or interference errors, according to Al-khresheh (2010), are errors caused by the impact of the Native Language (NL hereinafter) or the Mother Tongue (MT hereinafter). This definition was introduced by Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977 p. 443) as "those caused by the influence of the learner's MT on the production of the Target Language (TL hereinafter) in presumably those areas where languages differ". These errors exist either positively or negatively and are normally a result of the negative transfer of certain linguistic structures of L1 (Al-khresheh p. 2010). According to Ellis (1994 p. 62), transfer is "a very complex notion which is best understood in terms of cognitive rather than behaviourist models of learning". Lim (2010 p. 24) also emphasised that "interference has long been regarded as one of the major factors causing difficulties in the acquisition of a second language, yet what constitutes interference remains a subject of great interest". It is this interference that has been the major source of errors in the language of ESL learners.

2.3.2 Intralingual and Developmental Errors

Intralingual and developmental errors are often due to the difficulty of the Second/Target Language. Al-Tamimi (2006) agrees with Brown (2000) and asserts that the errors that do not reflect the structure of the learners' Native Language (NL) or Mother Tongue (MT) are caused by intralingual interference from the TL itself.

Some factors promote Intralingual and Developmental errors and these include:

a. Simplification: Learners choose simple forms and constructions rather than complex ones. Touchie (1986) gives an example of simplification as the use of simple present tense instead of the present perfect continuous tense. In other words, the learner commits errors by omitting grammatical necessities. For instance, instead of a learner using a longer structure like '*I saw a serious accident yesterday'* would say '*I saw accident yesterday'* (Mahmoud 2014).

b. Overgeneralisation: This refers to construction in one context and the extension of its application to other contexts where it is not applicable. An example is given by Touchie (1986) as *'comed* and *goed, putted, casted, spitted'* used as past tense instead of *'came and went, put, cast, spat'* because a learner has learnt to use 'ed' for the past tense . In another example, the learner may write *'mouses, oxes, mans,* instead of *'mice, oxen, men'.* Such errors are due to overgeneralisation.

c. Fossilisation: Fossilised errors are those that are quite difficult to get rid of. These errors are often found in pronunciations that have persisted for long periods. Fossilised errors become ingrained like bad habits and will reappear despite remediation and correction. Touchie (1986) presented an example using some Arab ESL learners who have difficulties distinguishing between /p/ and /b/ in English. Thus, the students tend to say 'pird' instead of 'bird' or 'pattle' instead of 'battle'.

d. Errors of Avoidance*:* When the rules of a target language are thought to be quite difficult for a learner, they fail to apply such rules. The learner tends to avoid using any structures close to these supposedly difficult rules.

e. Faulty teaching*:* This is as a result of transfer of training; the errors are teacher-induced. Errors of this nature are attributed to misleading teaching examples, inappropriate teaching materials or the order of presentation. Touchie (1986) notes that the errors pupils' commit could even influence the teacher's language over long periods of teaching. This can be very pronounced with pronunciations and

expressions. For instance, in Ghana, it is common to hear pupils pronounce the word '*puppy*' as '*poppy*' and use an expression like '*I want some'* or '*give me some*' without mentioning exactly what the pronoun 'some' refers to. This phenomenon may be attributed to faulty pronunciation or faulty teaching.

f. False concepts hypothesised*:* Faulty comprehension of distinctions of target language items by learners lead to false conceptualisation. According to Al-Tamimi (2006 p.44), this type of error is a result of "poor gradation of teaching items". This poor gradation causes learners to form some sort of hypotheses about the grammatical rules of the L2. Mahmoud (2014) gives some examples such as: '*he is talk to the teacher*' and '*it was happen last night'.*

g. Hypercorrection**:** According to Stenson (1978), induced errors occur when teachers use zealous efforts to correct students' errors, which rather cause students to commit errors. This type of errors occurs because of the insistence of teachers on correcting errors.

h. Inadequate learning: This type of error is caused by incomplete learning which is attributed to ignorance of rule restrictions or underdifferentiation.

Before the use of Error Analysis (EA hereinafter) by Corder in the 1960s, Contrastive Analysis (CA hereinafter) spearheaded the comparison of languages that were socio-culturally linked. CA, which was initiated by the American linguist C. C. Fries in 1945 and later ardently supported by Robert Lado in his book, "*Linguistics Across Cultures"* (1957), had been helpful and served as the principal theoretical explanations to the study of Foreign Language (FL hereinafter) and Second Language (L2 hereinafter) (Khansir 2012). Contrastive Analysis concerned itself with the comparison of two or more languages to identify differences and similarities underlying those languages (Sheen 1996; Collins 2007).

This study investigates the scope of learning problems that students meet when learning a second or a foreign language. According to Rustipa (2012), linguists try to find out the causes of the problems to be applied in language teaching to minimise the problems associated with language learning. Linguists propose contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage theory.

2.4 Contrastive Analysis

In this part of the study, the Contrastive Analysis theory (CA) and its relation to SLA is discussed in detail. Although Error Analysis is the focus of this study, diving deeper into the theories and hypotheses of CA will give researchers insight into Error Analysis and its practical application to the writing of ESL and EFL students.

Contrastive Analysis was an effective theory and was famous for its ability to compare the structures of two languages (L1 and TL) to identify the areas of similarities and differences between them. Similar structures might be easy for learners to master, but the different structures might be difficult and hence led to different types of errors. CA's main objective was to predict the areas of differences between L1 and L2. CA was, however, criticised as being insufficient for describing L2 errors by comparing structural differences between L1 and L2.

Proposed by Robert Lado in 1957 in the area of linguistics, CA was a tool in Comparative Historical Linguistics used to establish language genealogy, typological linguistics to create language taxonomies, translation theory to investigate problems of equivalence and to create bilingual dictionaries (Mahboobeh 2015). Owing to the extensive applications of CA, this study takes time to investigate its empirical and theoretical review.

The 20th Century saw several pioneering studies in the area of linguistics with a primary focus on the theoretical aspects, development and rapid expansion of languages, systematic and extensive formulation of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Mahboobeh 2015).

2.4.1 Theoretical foundations of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH hereinafter) is an area of Comparative linguistics which purposes itself on comparison of two or more languages to determine the differences and similarities between them, either for theoretical purposes or for purposes external to the analysis itself (Mahboobeh 2015). Figure 6 below illustrate CA procedure.

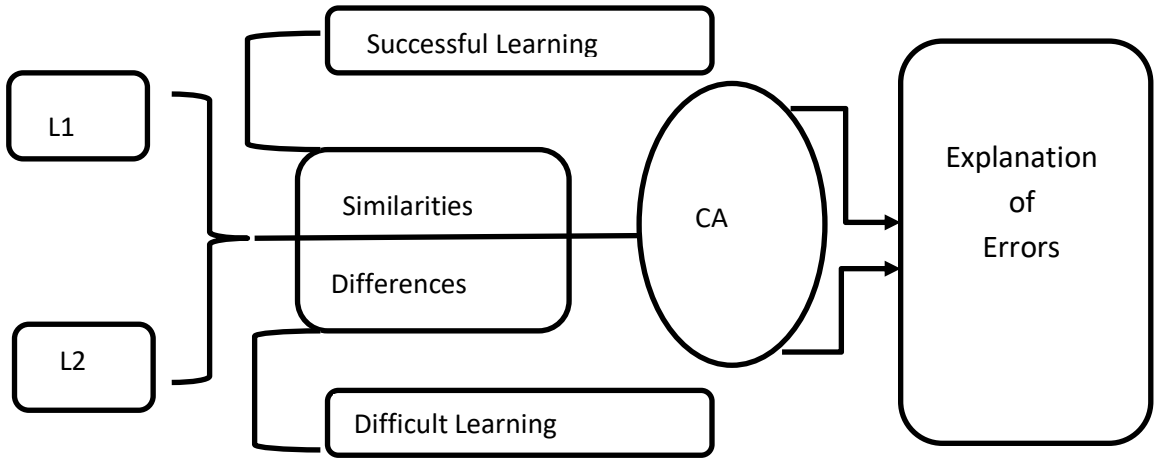

Figure 6. The procedure of Contrastive Analysis

SLA in the 1960s and 1970s prompted the use of CA extensively as a method of explaining only certain features of a TL which were difficult to acquire than others. Lado (1957) claimed that the elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. Lado went ahead to provide comprehensive theoretical treatment and suggested a systematic set of technical procedures for the contrastive study of languages. The paragraphs below explore and discuss the theoretical foundations and assumptions and further elaborate on the achievements and the limitations in the theory concerning Error Analysis. Despite the adverse criticism faced by CA, the theory proved to be one of the most significant studies in describing systems of languages. CA is arguably the offspring of mid-century behaviourism and American descriptivism (Al-Khresheh 2016).

Al-Khresheh (2016) described behaviourists and descriptivists as alike and both adhered to precepts of replicability and falsifiability. Although their scientism influenced SLA, classical contrastiveness is not entirely bound to the precepts of either paradigm. Al-Khresheh (2016) explained that behaviourists and descriptivists viewed successful SLA as the re-writing of L1 habits. Moreover, L1 processes could be modified together with behaviourist procedures such as schedules of positive and negative reinforcement, role and associative learning, over-learning habit ingraining and shaping, reward and punishment schedules and environmental manipulations (Brown 2006).

Developed by Fries (1945), CA was an integral component of the methods for teaching Foreign Language (FL) (Al-Khresheh 2013). It was noted that learners brought in the knowledge of their NL or L1 when learning a foreign language, and this proved that it was worth considering a learner's L1 when teaching L2. This provided a psychological foundation for CA which is the transfer theory, substituting L1 for the prior learning and the L2 for the subsequent learning.

According to Al-Khresheh (2013), CA is of the assumption that elements that are similar to the NL of the learner will be simpler to the learner, and those that are different will be difficult. It was necessary to recommend that pedagogical materials should be designed and geared towards systematically addressing the TL based on the predicted difficulty of the structures.

CA is viewed in terms of three very separate approaches:

i) The linguistic approach which aimed at maintaining that CA was nothing more than contrasting for the sake of contrasting and the new knowledge it might bring

ii) It aimed at maintaining that CA has the capability of encompassing all the errors which occur in SLA

iii) CA has been relegated from its position in language learning in the past, and further on its advantages, does not hold a legitimate position in the general scheme of language teaching.

The distinction of linguistic and cultural units in both L1 and L2 called for CA to be carried out. Three major sources were identified and these contributed to the instruction materials and a fitting course outline for CA implementation. Firstly, the observation by students of language contact of the phenomenon of interference defined by Weinrich (1953 as cited in Bowers 2002 p.186) as “those instances of deviation from norms of either language which occur in the speech of the bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language”. Secondly, the practical experience of teachers of FL and their ability to identify deviations attributed to the learner’s MT. Thirdly, the learning theory of interference with L1 based on the findings in psychology (Al-Khresheh 2016).

2.4.2 Assumptions of the theory

CA hypothesis has been predominant in the L2 learning theory. It was implemented on the assumption that L2 learners will transfer the formal features of their NL to their L2 utterances. Al-Khresheh (2016) defined this as the influence of the learner’s L1 on the acquisition of L2. Many researchers considered this as an important aspect of language learning, and learners, in order to facilitate their language learning, transfer semantics (some sounds and meanings), and transfer rules and structures which consist of pragmatics and word order. Two versions of the hypothesis exist, a strong and a weak one.

2.4.2.1 Strong version of the CA hypothesis

Researchers in the strong version of the paradigm believe that errors in L2 learning could be attributed to patterns in the NL. Therefore, it was possible to predict what errors would be made by making a detailed comparison of the learners'L1 and L2. The difference between L1 and L2 would constitute potential sources of errors (Al-Khresheh 2016). The predictions are not always borne out. According to Banalthy, Trager and Waddle (1996), the changes that are supposed to be taking place in the language behaviour of foreign language students can be equated to the differences between the structure of the students' native language and culture and that of the target language and culture.

Researchers need to understand and be familiar with the concept of difficulty and simplicity in language study. To probe this, this section looks at the hierarchy of difficulty concerning the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Contrastive Analysis should predict the level of difficulties in FL/ESL to avoid using a high degree of occurrences in the same texts. There are six (6) levels or hierarchy of difficulties associated with CAH. These are:

a) Level 0: Transfer:

i) there is no difference in the transfer of general word order, cardinal vowels and some consonants such as 'S' and 'Z'. Thus, similar sounds, lexical items or similar structures in L1 and L2 are seen. This denotes a positive transfer.

ii) A learner can transfer positive sounds, structure or lexical item from the NL to the TL.

iii) The concept of negation and interrogation in two languages, L1 and L2 are the same.

iv) Word order in L1 and L2 has the same patterns.

v) Such transfer makes no difficulty; hence the label of "level 0" is given to it (Abdi 2010).

b) Level 1: Coalescence:

Two or more items in the native language become coalesced into one item in the target language. In other words, one item covers two in L1, for example, *su* for his/her in Spanish.

c) Level 2: Underdifferentiation:

This means an item in the native language is absent in the target language.

d) Level 3: Reinterpretation:

This simply means an item that exists in the native language is given a new shape or distribution and similar to an item in the TL. In other words, there is a different application of an existing item. At this level, a learner overgeneralises based on the similarities and consequently commits errors.

e) Level 4: Overdifferentiation:

This refers to a new item in the TL which is absent in the native language.

f) Level 5: Split:

In this scenario, an item in the NL refers to more than one reference in the target language. That is, two items cover one item in the L1.

The strong version of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis argues from a behaviouristic psychological view that the principle of transfer is at work in learning. There are two types of transfers namely positive and negative.

Positive transfer occurs when L1 is similar to L2 and the learner has no difficulty in learning the new language because they transfer positively what they have learnt in the first language into the second language. This means that positive transfer may be seen if the first language assists in the acquisition of the second language.

There is an issue of negative transfer if the L1 is dissimilar to the L2. In this case, the L1 tends to interfere with the L2. This implies that learning differences between L1 and L2 may take time as well as energy. There is also the issue of impedance. Thus, the first learning tends to inhibit the second learning in situations where L1 is different from L2.

In a nutshell, the strong version of the hypothesis claimed that learning similarities is easy and learning differences is difficult owing to the interference of L1 into L2. Unfortunately, the strong version of the hypothesis was geared towards interlingual errors and errors in FL which are caused by interferences and therefore failed to consider that just one-third of errors are predicted (Abdi 2010).

2.4.2.2 The weak version of the CA hypothesis

The weak version of the hypothesis has rather explanatory power as opposed to predictive power. According to Mair (2005), researchers can investigate the errors once they are combined and offer an explanation based on the CA of that area of grammar as to why those errors occurred. In other words, linguistic difficulties are explained *a posteriori* instead of being predicted *a priori* to understand the sources of error by using and intuitively contrasting a general knowledge of L1 and L2. Thus, the weak version is of the view that all language errors are influenced by interference.

2.4.2.3 Moderate version of CA hypothesis

Insights into the CAH revealed a moderate version. Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) had a different view of the hypothesis. They theorised a moderate version of the hypothesis basing their argument on many reasons. They were of the view that the categorisation of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning. It is therefore important to note

that wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, there can be confusion.

Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) proposed that similarity is a source of confusion. There can also be a superficial negative transfer as well as there can be an in-depth positive transfer; generalisation and overgeneralisation can occur. According to Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970), the strong and weak forms are rejected in favour of the moderate version because it predicts the results of a spelling error analysis. Abdi (2010) shares a common Contrastive Analysis theory from a similar perspective as Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970). According to Abdi (2010), CA was first suggested by Whorf (1940) as Contrastive Linguistics and the publication of Lado's "Linguistics Across Cultures" in 1957 spearheaded contrastive analysis application in contrastive linguistics. Abdi (2010) thinks that contrastive analysis pays attention to different languages at lexical, phonological, syntactic and semantic levels. The core of contrastive studies finds similarities and differences between grammatical structures such as pronouns, articles, verbs, consonants and vowels. Similarly, it extends the similarities and differences to sentences and constructions in the areas of interrogatives and passivisation. Richards (1971) asserts that researchers reveal that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the phonological level and least predictive at the syntactic level and because of that, many common mistakes are syntactic errors in written work.

2.4.3 Procedures of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The versions of the hypothesis assumed a certain procedure for predicting errors committed by learners. Five (5) steps of systematic comparison and contrast of two languages were modelled in a theoretical setting. This systematic comparison followed these steps;

a) Selection b) Description c) Comparison d) Prediction e) Verification

These steps are elaborated upon.

a) Selection:

(i) It was quite impossible to compare every sound, word, and structure of two languages and therefore the analysis at this point was limited.

ii) The selection could equally be done through personal experience, bilingual experience, error analysis (deciding on what needed to be compared to what) and the two elements to be compared in two languages needed to be similar to some extent.

b) Description: In the description process, the selected materials needed to be linguistically described and this should be done within the same theory. To describe the sound systems of two languages, a structural phonology needed to be adopted.

Additionally, there was no specific theory for the description of syntax and morphology. Lastly, the focus of this procedure was on the differences and not similarities.

c) Comparison: Comparison of the L1 and L2 structures (similarities and differences) in terms of CAH existed in three levels: the form, the meaning and the distribution of items in the two languages which are to be collected. Comparisons were not possible with a full description of the above. In this process, the basic elements and structures needed to be compared with each other.

d) Prediction: At this stage, the analysts can predict the differences and similarities between L1 and L2 with respect to deviant structures and interference structures. The analyst at this stage is allowed to judge whether these similarities and differences are problematic or not problematic in the process of language acquisition and if the deviances are a result of the structures in the MT.

e) Verification: The final step of CAH procedure is the verification. Verification is done to investigate the analyst's prediction as to whether an L2 learner commits the errors that CA predicts.

Given the above processes and the performance of CA across the linguistic community, linguistic pedants as well as researchers have looked at CAH and have concluded that CA may exist in different kinds. Two approaches of contrastive analysis are adhered to according to different views toward communication. This is the Classical Contrastive Analysis and the Modern Contrastive Analysis. The next section of the study explains both views further.

2.4.4 Classical Contrastive Analysis

According to the different views toward communication, there are two approaches to CA classical or traditional contrastive analysis which focuses on code linguistics. This is because it is virtually impossible to contrast every possible fact of two languages. The traditional view of CA is a self-contained system and linguistically oriented. CA proceeds from the description of some selected features in the two languages which include a wide range of categories, rules or rule system, the realisation of semantic concepts, various language functions, pragmatic categories and rhetorical issues. Classical CA appears to be confined within the boundaries of a sentence. Secondly, the selected features are juxtaposed on translation equivalence basis as assessed by a bilingual informant (Mahboobeh 2015). The next stage is to compare and contrast the two systems to discover similarities and differences. Statements can be made regarding the occurrence of any deviant structures in the learner's interlanguage and as such a supposed hierarchy of difficulty is formed. When statements are made and hierarchy has been formed, the Prediction stage, verification can sometimes follow. At this stage, the prediction of the errors is tested on many learners. This is discussed in detail in later sections. Traditional CA appears to be static and focused on linguistic elements. This turned the focus of teaching materials to presenting and practising the linguistic materials which differ in two languages.

Traditional Contrastive Analysis faced many criticisms in the linguistic community. The first objection, according to Mahboobeh (2015), to the traditional view of CA was the

concept of equivalence. It was not feasible to argue that there are no grounds for the consideration of two texts in two languages as equivalent. Communication existed as culturally relative and texts are the same because they are communicative events that are equally relative. Mahboobeh (2015) points out that it could be hypothesised that two highly specialised technical or medical documents are closer to each other than, for example, a fictional text and its translation into another language. Therefore, the question of equivalence remains problematic in spoken discourse. Due to the insufficiency and problems of equivalence associated with classical or traditional CA, a modern approach was predicted to view CA in a more dynamic approach. The modern approach will focus on the various psychological, sociological and contextual factors alongside the linguistic ones.

2.4.5 Modern Contrastive Analysis

The Modern Contrastive Analysis diverted its attention on a dynamic rather than the static approach of traditional CA. The theory and methodology adopted from linguistics to Modern Contrastive Analysis have been supplemented with those derived from sociology, psychology, social psychology, neurology, cultural studies, ethnography, anthropology and other related disciplines. This is for analysis to be performed in a pragmatic patterning, cognitive mechanisms and information processing systems. Modern Contrastive Analysis views language as a means of communication and believes in human linguistics which deals with language as a concrete system, using communication competence to describe the process of communication. The focus of Modern CA is centred on the process of development of discourse as the basis for communication. In this scenario, the discourse analyst studies the relationship between language and how it is used (Mahboobeh 2015).

According to Mahboobeh (2015), Modern CA presented scores of advantages over Traditional CA. As mentioned earlier, Modern CA is dynamic and cannot predict all errors in producing the language. Modern CA cannot predict all linguistic interference

in a language. Mahboobeh (2015) carefully outlined the differences between the Traditional and the Modern CA and explained why Modern CA is chosen over the Traditional CA. Mahboobeh (2015 p.1109) argues that despite Modern CA being dynamic in its application,

> in traditional contrastive studies, the learner had been almost totally forgotten in much of what had been written about the success / failure of contrastive analysis from an applied linguistic viewpoint. Today, it is quite evident that a straightforward setting alongside of two linguistic systems even irrespective of the level of analysis is too simplistic and cannot easily produce information for language teaching process.

Modern CA is seen as more participant-oriented with priorities on the intentions of the language users and the process of communication.

It is no longer necessary for the Contrastive linguist to invent examples in the way it used to be done. It is rather possible to resort to corpora, where relevant instances can be found when automatic searches are done through the use of powerful computer tools. This gives rise to insights into contrastive discourse analysis, contrastive rhetoric and contrastive pragmatics. The computer tools also benefit areas such as syntax, semantics and lexis due to the availability of parallel corpora. New theoretical approaches to contrastive analysis can be possibly developed. Technological advancement paved way for contrastive analysis to adopt a more efficient method for language data acquisition, adopt a corpus-based, and generate vast amount of juxtapositions of language differences in various linguistic branches, especially in the areas of lexis and syntax. Courtesy to language use, Contrastive Analysis, therefore, goes beyond the limitations of structure but also analyses the use of language in socio-cultural studies as mentioned above. This means that all the models of Contrastive Analysis which do not support or which neglects the influence of extra-linguistic factors in speech is classed defective. When two participants are in a classroom, there are some factors, besides linguistic rules, which help the

transmission of meaning between the two participants according to Abdi (2010). The author brings our attention to:

i) what the speaker thinks the listener knows

ii) the listener's attitude/behaviour during conversation

iii) the mutual agreement or disagreement between participants

iv) shared knowledge

v) verbal and non-verbal cues for mutual understanding

Comparing two language subsystems involves many steps as described earlier. The gathering of data of the systems to be compared in the two languages where CA is seen to use translations of the two languages without looking at the bias of different meanings is the first step. This is due to its focus on general rules or systems rather than focus on translated meaning. CA at this point seeks to generalise its findings on the grammatical systems of compared languages.

The second step is the description of the realisation of each grammatical category in each of the two contrasted languages.

The third step is the addition of new data with their translation to the corpus and the modification of the rules to include the new data.

The final step is a formulation of the found results of the contrasted data is determined either in the form of equations or operations (Zaki 2015).

According to Harris (1954 as cited in James 1980), the formulation was either in the form of a set of instructions that can be applied across both language grammar rules or equations which are different from transfer rules in that they do not show which

language is converted to the other and therefore lack the directionality of the transfer rules (Zaki 2015). James (1980) explains that equational statements reveal the phonological representations of the category which helps to show the variety of forms for a specific category in contrast to transfer rules which look at just the structural or syntactic depiction.

James (1980) pointed out that CA linguists used fixed linguistic categories (in efforts to reach a reliable contrast between two or more languages) to describe the different languages in an attempt to obtain constant factors. Zaki (2015) looked at the microlinguistic analysis aspects associated with CA and pointed out that the language variables are organised according to three levels under the microlinguistic levels. These levels were phonology, grammar and lexis, and the categories include unit, structure, class and systems. Zaki (2015) explains that the traditional approach to CA described linguistic level separately without reference to other levels. For example, phonological features did not refer to grammatical features. Also, it was inevitable to merge the description of different levels. The microlinguistic level as analysed by CA had its core principle to observe the shift from one level to the other (phonology-to-grammar level shift).

2.4.5.1 The Grammatical Level

As mentioned in previous sections of this study, the comparative study between the Target language and the Native language is done to facilitate language acquisition through teaching and learning at the phonological, vocabulary and grammatical levels. This section discusses CA at the grammatical level and presents the core objectives and contributions in the area of linguistics.

The journey to the fixed organisational framework for language description provoked researchers to set four grammatical categories namely unit, structure, class and systems which were deemed universal, necessary and sufficient for any language

description (James 1980). The unit category includes the sentence as the biggest unit of analysis, followed by clause, phrase, word and lastly, a morpheme (Zaki, 2015).

Zaki (2015) explains that CA in its application does not analyse more than the sentence level. CA may take on a different number of clauses within the same sentence. Structure refers to the order of the components in the same sentence structurally or sounds in a word phonologically. Class depends on the place a specific unit may occupy in a sentence structure. Zaki (2015) gives the example of class as any phrase that can occupy the adjunct position. This phrase will be known as an 'Adverbial phrase'. The final system category is made up of a variety of options for the same element that can occupy the same place in the sentence, for example, plural and singular nouns in English (Zaki 2015).

Researchers in their pursuit of language analysis derived a model of analysis because each model was geared towards certain features. To contrast languages, the model of analysis was required to compare features analysed by two different models. This made it difficult for the linguist to determine whether it was a trait of the data or that of the model. Linguists often used two models namely the Taxonomic Model and the Transformational Generative Grammar.

Structuralists in the Taxonomic Model proposed an immediate constituent technique where complex grammatical structures were broken down into two components according to which parts should be in order or which parts should be omitted. According to Zaki (2015), the phrase 'rather nice girl' can be written in the form 'nice girl' as one construction but 'rather nice' cannot be accepted as one construction. This structure can be illustrated as AB+C or A+BC according to which parts should be in order or should be omitted. This does not account for meaning but rather considers

construction types as ‘syntagmatic’ and possible elements for each structural position as ‘paradigmatic’.

Chomsky’s (1965) introduction of universal grammar looked at language to be analysed by the Transformational Generative Grammar. In this model, the difference between the surface structures and deep structures of the sentence is taken highly into account. The deep structure is universally considered because it allows only for contrasting different surface structures across L1 and L2. Generative grammar is focused on the immediate structure where diversion across the two contrasted languages appears (Zaki 2015).

2.4.5.2 Contrastive Analysis at Discourse Level

Language exists in two kinds: spoken (conversation) and written (text). This section of the study reviews CA at both spoken and written levels and looks critically at discourse analysis concerning spoken discourse and written discourse. In conversation or spoken language, it is difficult and sometimes relatively impossible to get the exact function of participants or their different feedback.

This is different in written language where the writer has enough time to think about the written sentence, and therefore presents a well-formed sentence. Language analysts at the discourse level create a dialogue with some basic elements which are aimed at providing deeper insights into the discourse study and language comparison. These elements are:

i) Presupposition: The speaker and listener are considered to have some shared knowledge. A presupposition is what the speaker assumes to be true or to be known to the hearer (Abdi 2010).

ii) Context: In linguistic contexts, there are a few clues in a sentence that help the analyst to understand the speaker. The physical context looks at environmental signs which can help an analyst understand the speaker.

iii) Deictic expression: Some words or expressions cannot be interpreted unless the physical context or reference of the speaker is known.

iv) Ellipsis: Ellipsis denotes voluntary grammatical omissions in a sentence. It is a universal feature of language with most omissions occurring in many languages, however, the place of omission may be problematic.

v) Substitution: Another universal feature like ellipsis is substitution which remains problematic for translations.

vi) Conjunction: Conjunctions are classed as the signals between segments of the discourse. Discourse analysis investigates the role of conjunctions in different languages.

vii) Proposition: Proposition denotes the central thought in the sentence. That is, the central idea in the sentence.

viii) Illocutionary act: At this level, direct and indirect speech acts are taken into consideration. Speech act deals with syntax and shows the functions of language. For example, a speaker may request, give information, apologise, and threaten, etc. through illocutionary act (Abdi 2010).

2.4.5.3 Contrastive Analysis at phonological level

Faulty pronunciation of English sounds is a result of learners' unconscious adherence to the sound system of their own mother tongue. Often, learners appear to extend their native sound system to the target language. In acoustic phonetics, contrastive linguistics focuses on sounds with physical similarities between L1 and L2 and then investigates the differences. Similar sounds in two languages may offer different functional importance. Zaki (2015) gives an example of two allophones in one

language which can be considered as two different phonemes in the other. Four steps are involved in contrasting sound systems. The first step involves phonemic inventory of the two languages to be drawn. The second step involves the equation of the phonemes of two languages. The third step involves the listing of different phonemes and allophones. In the fourth step, the distributional restrictions of phonemes and allophones are determined for each language.

2.4.5.4 Models of Phonological Contrastive Analysis

Similar to the grammatical level, Taxonomic phonology and Generative phonology are the two main models of analysis concerning phonological CA.

The taxonomic model is geared towards stating the two phonological systems of the two languages and the variation of similar sounds (Zaki 2015). According to Whitman (1970), the phonemic approach seeks to indicate that errors of pronunciation by the L2 learner occur because of phonemic asymmetries and allophormic variations which may lead to a foreign accent. The shortfall of the taxonomic model is its failure to highlight the difference between receptive and productive difficulty.

Generative phonology dwells on the concept of transformation of deep structures into a surface structure which is psychologically non-realistic, and therefore the taxonomic approach is practical (Zaki, 2015).

2.4.5.5 Lexicological Level of Contrastive Analysis

At this level, words are grouped according to semantic, cognitive and attitudinal, or notional areas of concern. At the lexicological level, verbs that refer to speech acts such as talk, walk, say, and speak (Lehmann 1977), for example, can be grouped according to notional classes. After the grouping, verbs are then compared to their

equivalence in L1. Arguably, the notional class is not objective and does not have set criteria for adding a word to a specific word field (Zaki 2015).

Semantic components also contrast lexis. This approach assumes the universality of some components that exist in all languages that tend to create a lexical inventory of features. Two approaches are followed in CA. In the first approach, L2 lexemes are specified through an inventory and then each lexeme is analysed according to the semantic components. In the second approach, words are translated tentatively and then checked by components to confirm their similarities. This approach is called the Translation equivalence.

CA at the microlinguistic point of view was idealistic and caused the regularization and decontextualisation of data. The aim to deal with big data by linguistic researchers prompted the need for analysing bigger chunks of language. Linguists were interested in how the chunks were organised in texts on the one hand and how language functioned in discourse on the other hand (Coulthard 1977).

CA utilised three approaches at the macrolinguistic level. Firstly, texts are observed in two languages for type, frequency and context of cohesive devices. This feature is known as textual characterisation. Another approach in macrolinguistic contrastive analysis is the text typology where the types of text that have the same function in two languages are compared. The third approach looks at the translated texts which are criticised for their potential to be distorted by formulation of the source language (Zaki 2015). In summary, discourse and pragmatic analyses in CA present the L2 learner with immense capabilities on how to interact in the community and context of the L2.

2.4.6 Application of Contrastive Analysis in Linguistics

There are many fields in linguistics in which CA is applicable. The section outlines a number of the areas where CA has had an immense application and contributed to language teaching and learning.

a) Historical linguistics:

Also known as diachronic linguistics, Historical linguistics is the scientific study of language change over time. Its principal objectives are to describe and account for observed changes in a particular language, reconstruct the pre-history of languages to determine how related they are and group them into language families (which is another sector of linguistics known as Comparative linguistics). Historical linguistics develops theories about the language changes, that is, how and why languages change. There is also the element of speech communities (groups that share linguistic norms and expectations) where historical linguistics tends to describe the history of these speech communities. Historical linguistics studies the history of words. CA has been subsumed under the name comparative linguistics within the linguistic field (Lado 1957; Stern 1983).

b) Second language teaching:

Despite the limitation of CA in the area of error production, CA provides insights into some of the major mistakes that are often made by L2 learners regardless of their L1. This provides the opportunity for a tailor-made language design to be adopted through the use of awareness-raising teaching methods and a hierarchical teaching-learning curriculum (Ellis 1994).

c) Second language learning:

CA can explain observed errors as well as outlining the differences between two languages. CA presents the opportunity for language learning to realise aspects of a language and adopt viable ways to learn instead of rote learning, and correction of fossilised language errors (Ellis 1994).

d) Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, bilingualism, pragmatics and other cultural-related areas: CA can be applied in both linguistic and non-linguistic features. This is because CA is a cross-linguistic/cross-cultural study. The ability of CA to adopt both features promotes a better linguistic-cultural understanding which is essential to language acquisition (Connor 1996).

e) Translation:

CA presents a better understanding about the linguistic difference between two languages and therefore applied in the field of translation (Stern 1983; Ellis 1994).

f) Language therapy:

CA has been used in this area to distinguish language disorder patients from non-standard dialect speakers which is an essential aspect for speech pathology identification and treatment.

g) Criminal investigation:

CA has immensely contributed to finding the subtle differences among languages. Investigation of criminal activities is made possible through the use of clues, for

example, in analysing phishing texts which were designed to deceive users into giving away any confidential information.

Critics argued that CA could only predict the problems faced by L2 learners but could not produce the strategies the learners could employ to overcome those problems. Additionally, Abbas (I995) iterated that CA had the ability to over-predict errors that did not appear in the language of L2 learners. Although CA was to make Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) more effective and to find out the differences, its criticism could not be sustained by empirical evidence. CA was not observed in learners' language and some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their first language. This made CA a useful theory only in the retrospective explanation of errors. These criticisms along with many others rendered CA as being insufficient in analysing errors and this led to the emergence of EA.

2.5 Interlanguage

2.5.1 Introduction

The principal theory of L2 development was CA before the IL hypothesis rose. Robert Lado (1957) proposed that CA should be viewed as hypothetical unless and until they were based on the systematic analysis of learner speech data. This steered SLA research from hypotheses of language learning and development of language teaching materials to the systematic analysis of learner's speech and writing, giving birth to Error Analysis.

Although Error Analysis was initially done to validate the claims of CA, researchers, in their quest found many behaviours exhibited by learners that could not be easily explained by simple transfer from learners' L1 to L2. Researchers also found that the linguistic systems of language learners were different from both their L1 and L2. William Nemser (1971) for example called the system an approximate system and Pit

Corder (1971) in his research called it a *transitional competence and idiosyncratic dialect*.

Both approximate system and transitional competence refer to the same phenomenon, that is, the language learner's language. Hardjanto (1995) postulated that transitional competence views the learner as possessing a certain body of knowledge that constantly develops and underlies the utterances made. Idiosyncratic dialect referred to the fact that the learner operated at any given time in a self-contained language variety or dialect. Approximate systems stressed the structural aspects of the learner language which, according to Littlewood (1984 p.33), "approximates more or less closely to the target language system".

Coined by Selinker (1972), Interlanguage claimed to be a language in its right. Selinker asserted that in a given situation, the utterances produced by a learner were different from those of a native speaker if they had attempted to convey the same meaning. Hence the comparison was seen to reveal a separate linguistic system. Selinker observed that the system varied across different contexts and this variability was observed in the utterances of learners. Selinker raised three principal features of IL namely; systematic, dynamism and permeability. These three formal characteristics of IL were researched by other researchers in their subsequent discussions of interlanguage (Hardjanto 1995).

Interlanguage is based on a learner's experiences with L2 and can fossilise or stop developing at any of its developmental stages. The theoretical framework behind the IL is based on the psychological framework in the brain which is activated when a learner attempts to learn a second language. Interlanguage contributed immensely to our understanding of linguistic universals in SLA and has been applied to a learner's underlying knowledge of the TL Sound System (Phonology), grammar (Morphology

and Syntax), vocabulary (Lexicon), and language use norms amongst learners (Pragmatics).

As discussed in detail in the following paragraphs, interlanguage is rule-governed, thus, systematic. Learners' language is analysed in its own right as an exotic language with systematic rules. Corder (1971) proposed that interlanguage should not only be viewed as systematic but also viewed as dynamic and creative (ie. with rules unique to itself and not just borrowed from the native language). Despite the variability of interlanguage, there is a systematic nature of the learner's use of the SL where there is a selection of interlanguage rules stored in an internalised way by the learner and used in more or less predictable ways. Rod Ellis (1985) narrows down on variabilities in IL and examines style shifting in the use of three past tense morphemes (regular past, irregular past and past copular) which are discussed in detail in later paragraphs.

As a result of the insights of British linguists and those influenced by Corder 1967; Strevens 1970; Selinker 1969, 1972; Richards 1971, 1974a, a revolutionary concept opened up an exciting area of research referred to as Interlanguage (IL). This theory was an initiative to move language learning towards a wider approach. Interlanguage rejected the view of learner language as being merely an imperfect version of the TL. The approach adopted by IL is that it is dynamic and thus adapts to new information constantly and is influenced by learners. The progression of the EA to IL concept has paralleled the shift from the "telegraphic speech" model of child language to a recent study of stages of child language acquisition in *sui generis* terms according to Sridhar (1980).

To summarise the concept of IL, it is important to look at the assumptions, empirical evidence and pedagogical implications of IL and that of EA. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) envisaged interlanguage as a continuum between L1 and L2 along which

all learners traverse. This meant that IL captured the indeterminate status of the learners' system between L1 and L2. According to Sridhar (1980), IL explicitly recognises the rule-governed, systematic nature of the performance of a learner and its adequacy as a functional communicative system. IL has implications for theories of language contact, language change and language acquisition, even though it is found to be useful in describing special target language types, non-standard dialect, non-native varieties of language and the language of aphasics and of poetry (Nemser 1971; Richards 1974a; Corder 1971). Ellis (1994) backed Selinker's (1972) idea about the characteristics of IL. In the research by Ellis, he found that some language transfer and subsystems of a learners' interlanguage may be transferred from the L1. Additionally, some interlanguage elements may be derived from training, that is, the way learners are taught. An identifiable approach or strategy as suggested by Selinker (1972) of the learner to the material being learned may be characteristic of Interlanguage. There is also the element of overgeneralisation of the TL rules. In summary, the rules of IL are shaped according to Rustipa (2012) by L1 transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication, and over generalisation of the target language patterns. According to Selinker (1972), IL can fossilise in any of its developmental stages. Thus, IL is a stage in L2 acquisition and this meant that IL fossilisation may occur despite reasonable attempts at learning.

2.5.2 Interlanguage in Linguistic Perspective

Selinker (1972) introduced interlanguage based on some insights into linguistics and its relation to language acquisition. This concept of interlanguage was described as the speakers' attempt to use two languages, one being his/her own and the other one learnt. According to Selinker (1972), a language that does not resemble either the Mother tongue or the target language is the 'Interlanguage'. It is referred to as 'transitional competence' according to Corder (1978). This is because the term described the level of competence maintained by the learner as he/she is learning a second language.

IL is based on the theory that a dormant psychological framework in the human brain is activated where there is an attempt to learn a Second or Target Language. In review, CA and EA paved the way for IL theory. Interlanguage is dynamic and it is permeable and normally serves as a bridge between L1 and L2. Learners create the language when they attempt to communicate in the TL. Nonetheless, Interlanguage is different from both the learners' First Language and the Target Language. However, IL is systematic; it has its own rules though different learners have different interlanguage. IL rules are not fixed and this is because the competence of learners changes over time. This means that IL rules are altered, deleted or added. IL rules are different within their variations and those are set in predictable ways. This review reveals that IL theory is nearly insignificant in the field of Second Language Acquisition.

2.5.3 Review study of Interlanguage theory

Many empirical studies have shown that neither L1 nor L2 was always responsible for errors committed by learners (Krashen *et al.* 1978; Larsen-Freeman 2002; 2003). The intense debate over the influence of L1 in the learning of L2 resulted in the prevalence of EA over CA. EA and CA also paved way for IL theory in describing learners' errors in the process of acquiring L2. IL has received numerous criticisms by linguistic pedants who believe that the many points in the L1 theory are unclear. This section of the study reviews the theory and discusses its role in the acquisition of L2. In this section, we investigate the theoretical foundation of L1, the theoretical assumptions, IL limitations and its significance in acquiring L2.

2.5.4 Theoretical Foundation

Over the past 50 years, the influence of L1 in the acquisition of L2 has witnessed several debates and these debates led to the emergence of EA over CA. Learners' errors are not considered undesirable and therefore they are used in testing the hypothesis surrounding Error Analysis. A numberof hypothesis evolved around

learner's errors and these included Corder's concept of idiosyncratic dialect (1967), which is discussed later under Error Analysis Theory, Nemser's approximate language (1971), Cooper's hypothesis testing theory (1976) and Selinker's Interlanguage (1972). According to Selinker (1972), these entire hypotheses proposed a separate linguistic system based on the observation that L1 influenced the acquisition of L2 in the learners' world. Selinker referred to IL as L2 systematic knowledge independent of both L1 and L2. IL is described as a type of language which can be produced by FL/L2 learners in the process of acquiring or learning a new language. Thus IL refers to the separateness of an L2 learner's system with the inclusion of a structural status between the Native Language and the Target Language (Brown 1994). IL reflects learner's attempts at building up a linguistic system that progressively and gradually approaches the TL System (Fauziati 2011). IL is viewed as neither an L1 nor L2 system, but rather, as an independent linguistic system on its own. Selinker (1972) viewed IL as the transitional process between L1 and L2 which is observable and can equally be explored. According to Selinker (1972 as cited in Corder 1981 p.17), IL is considered as "a dialect whose rules share characteristics of two social dialects of languages, whether these languages themselves share rules or not".

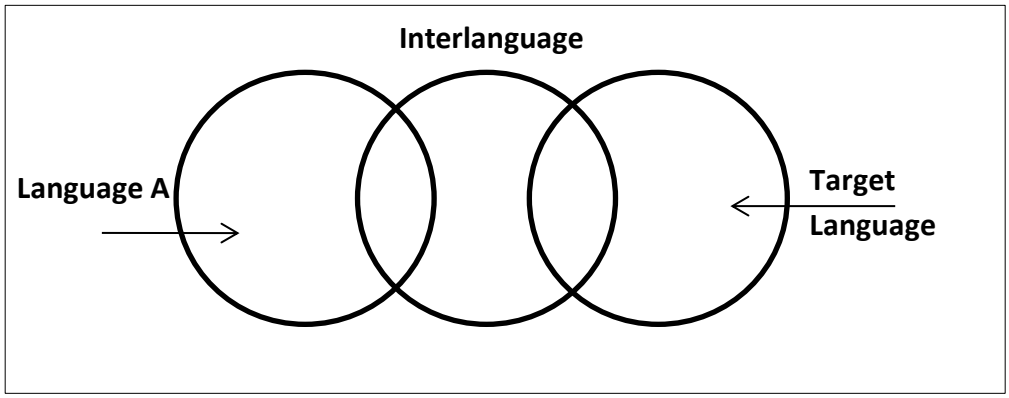

Figure 7. Notion of the IL (Adopted from Corder 1981 p.17)

Linguistically, Corder (1981) described how learners' language can be considered as a dialect. Emphases are based on the fact that when two languages share some rules of grammar, they can become a dialect. In this sense, IL can be illustrated diagrammatically as figure 8 below.

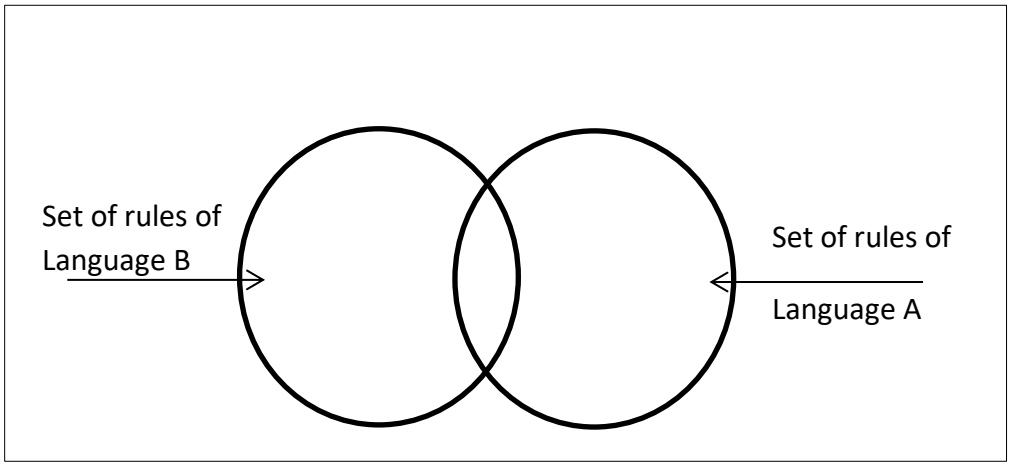

Figure 8. Corder's Notion of dialect relation (Corder 1981 p.14)

This means that IL is not viewed as a process in Second Language Acquisition influenced by L1 or L2.

2.5.5 Theoretical assumptions

IL theory maintained the shift in 'psychological perspectives' of L2 learning from a behaviourist approach to a 'mental approach'. According to Tarone (1976), some of IL's assumptions were borrowed from the mentalist theories. Learners tend to prepare hypotheses about the rules of their TL. These rules are mental grammars that construct the IL system. These mental grammars are exposed to external influences or the learner's internal processing. Learners' performance is variable and as the competence level increases, the learner tends to delete rules, add rules and reconstructs the complete system. Checking and rechecking hypotheses becomes a gradual process of L2 learning and the learner gradually changes his/her IL until the target language is fully shaped. This process is known as "Interlanguage Continuum". Shameem (1992) illustrates the process in the diagram in figure 9.

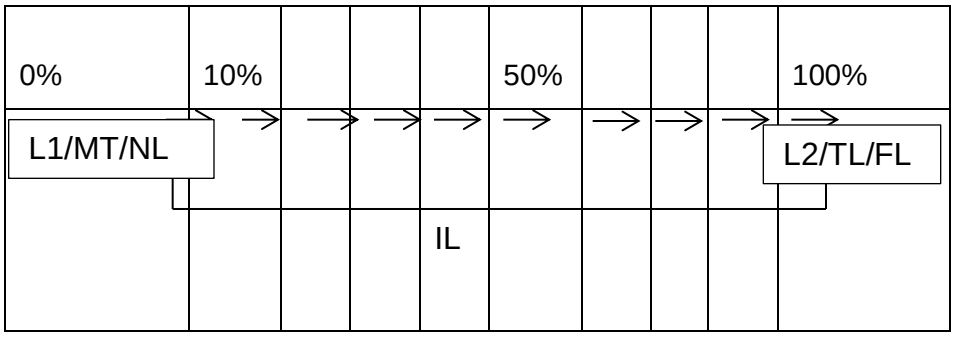

Figure 9. The IL Continuum (Tanvir Shameem 1992)

The assumption is that when a learner is trying to communicate in the TL, there is a tendency of using a new linguistic system that is different from the NL and the TL. Selinker (1974 p. 35) supports the assumption by stating that IL is, "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm". Mitchell and Myles (1998) and Larsen-Freeman (2003) back Selinker's assumptions and additionally support the assumption by summarising the points that Second Language Acquisition is "a process of increasing

conformity to a uniform target language". L2 learning is a gradual development from the Mother Tongue towards the Target Language. The language learning process includes hypothesis-testing or rule formation and learner's errors are natural. As discussed earlier in this section, Mitchell and Myles(1998) confirms Selinker's findings by iterating that certain rules which is neither the system of the Mother tongue nor that of the Target Language can be developed by a learner at every stage in the language acquisition process and this system is considered as a separate linguistic system.

IL's existence is a result of dissimilar utterances. According to Selinker (1972), there are three sets of utterances that can be psychologically related in the/an observable data related to L2 learning and these are:

i. utterances in the learners' MT produced by the learners

ii. IL utterances produced by the learners

iii. TL/FL utterances produced by Native Language (NL) speakers of the TL.

Selinker (1972) found out that whenever an L2 learner appears to create a sentence, a latent psychological structure which he describes as an "already formulating arrangement in the brain" is activated. Within the latent psychological structure, there are some important notions such as fossilisation and psycholinguistic processes. He reveals that the psycholinguistic process might establish the knowledge into the triggers of the IL behaviour of learners when the three observed utterances are investigated.

2.5.5.1 Fossilisation

According to Selinker (1972), fossilisation refers to the tendency of many learners to stop developing their IL grammar in the direction of the target language. Selinker (1972) argues that IL, as stated in earlier paragraphs, is a separate linguistic system

resulting from a learner's attempt to acquire a target language. Selinker observed five important areas in a learner's strategy of acquiring a target language. These areas demonstrated how learners process data of the target language and err. These five processes are involved in latent psychological structures. Among SLA researchers, fossilisation has received several interests and has stimulated important differences of opinion. Selinker (1972, p.215) explained that

> fossilable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction they receive in the TL.

2.5.5.2 Psycholinguistic processes according to Interlanguage

Selinker (1972) declares that the preliminary sign of fossilisation is stabilisation. However, the five important areas observed under the psycholinguistic processes were: transfer of language, transfer of training, overgeneralisation, strategies of L2 learning and strategies of L2 communication. These processes are elaborated upon.

a. Transfer of language

A learner tends to transfer rules and structure from their mother tongue to the Target Language. This is an active strategy for many learners and was earlier considered as errors resulting from non-learning, but recently it has been seen as a process of creative construction. Littlewood (1984) backs this process by iterating that the strategy of transferring of rules by learners is an active process for making sense of the Target Language data. Researchers believe that learners already possess these 'sets of habits' of their First Language and most of the errors committed are due to these habits. Learners use their previous knowledge as a tool for organising the Target Language data and this is taken as part of the creative process. Krashen (1982) proposed that learners can use L1 as 'a resource for ad-hoc translation to overcome

their limitation' (as cited in Ellis 1985 p.37). This means that elements and subsystems of the interlanguage may result from transfer from the Native Language. Lavoie (2002) introduces negative and positive transfers in an analysis of classroom discourse.

- Positive Transfer

Cross-linguistic similarities between the L1 and the TL in vocabulary, vowel systems, writing styles and syntactic structures may lead to a positive transfer of language. For instance, French learners may have a head start in reading the English language as opposed to a Chinese or an Arabian student and this is because of similar writing systems and vocabularies concerning the French learner. A Chinese student on the other hand would not only need to learn an entirely new alphabet but also deal with a variety of new and unfamiliar vocabulary.

- Negative Transfer

Negative transfer is deviant concerning the Target Language norms such as underproduction, overproduction and production errors.

  - Underproduction

    If a structure is used more infrequently than what is seen in the language of native speakers, there is a clear divergence from the Target Language norms. Learners tend to avoid structures in the TL that are different from those of the NL. For example, Schachter (1974 as cited in Odlin 1989) noticed that Chinese and Japanese ESL students used fewer relative clauses than learners whose native language had similar relative clause structures in the English Language. Flynn and Espinal (1985) also demonstrated that Left Branching Direction predominant languages such as Japanese make the acquisition of Right

Branching Direction patterns in English difficult and this leads to the underproduction or total avoidance of these structures.

- Overproduction

Overproduction is a direct result of the underproduction of another structure. For example, Odlin (1989) iterated that there is an overproduction of simple sentences from Japanese learners as an effort to avoid the use of relative clauses. This may also occur as a result of the 'transfer of training', discussed later in this chapter.

- Production Errors

According to Odlin (1989), production errors present themselves in two common types namely; substitutions and calques, and these types are likely to come/result from language transfer. Substitutions arise from the use of NL forms in the TL whereas calques are from errors that closely resemble the NL structures. When learners are faced with production problems, there is a 'potentially conscious' act (while it is empirically difficult to decide whether the act is conscious or not) to develop communication strategies.

b. Transfer of Training

Selinker (1972 p.37) suggested that if the fossilable rules, subsystems and items in the IL performance come as a result of particular items in the training procedures, then the process is known as the transfer of training. Richards (1974a) backs Selinker's view by identifying that transfer of training is prevalent and affect IL of learners in areas where English is taught as a foreign language than in areas where the English Language is a viable Second Language. Richards explained that the major source of the input for English is a teaching manual and the teacher, in a foreign language

setting. The concept of transfer of training may be a basic analytical approach because the observation errors are directly about the manner of presentation of the language features in the school course. Richards studied the difficulty of Serbo-Croatian learners to correctly distinguish between 'he and she' even though it is clearly distinguished in the NL. Richards observed that the problem was due to the transfer of training since the pronoun 'he' is used in the classroom and textbook drills. Gorsuch (1998) observed that Yakudoku (a discredited grammar-translation approach to learning English) is still widely used in high schools because English Language passages are translated into Japanese and students appear to focus their attention on the Japanese translation as opposed to the English Language text itself. Thus, some elements of the interlanguage may result from specific features of the training process.

c. Overgeneralisation

Overgeneralisation is the rules of TL and semantic features of the Target Language linguistic materials by learners is one of the areas of IL identified by Selinker (1972) and backed by Richards (1974a). While a learner internalises a rule of a Second Language, there is a tendency of generalising the rule beyond its limit by creating deviating structures based on their experience of other structures in the Target Language. Overgeneralisation may be associated with simplification in that it may be a method for learners to reduce the linguistic burden and the cut back onredundant forms' if it occurs with items that are contrasted in the grammar of the language but do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learners (Lavoie, 2002).

d. Strategies of L2 learning

When the fossilisation rules, subsystems and items come as a result of an identifiable approach by the learners to the input that is being presented, then the strategies of L2

learning' is said to have taken place. The strategies of L2 learning are said to be conscious and based on problem-solving, directed by purpose, and seek to increase the efficiency in a study (Selinker 1972). When a proper learning strategy is adopted, learners of L2 often realise their errors and make progress. Ellis (1985) asserts that some possible strategies involved in IL establishment might include hypothesis formation of two basic strategies (simplification and inferencing) and hypothesis testing.

Simplification is centred around learner's attempt to control a range of hypothesis they build at any single stage in their development by restricting hypothesis formation to those hypotheses which are relatively easy to form and will facilitate communication (Ellis 1985, p.11).

Inferencing on the other hand is said to have occurred when the learner forms hypotheses by attending to the input. This strategy where hypotheses are formed and tested leads to the constant modification of interlanguage rules. Ellis (1985) points out that learners attend to the TL input and form a suitable hypothesis whenever they are unable to acquire the rule for negative sentences by simplification. Learners also use meaning as a clue to language learning to make a hypothesis about the input.

e. Strategies of L2 communication

According to Al-Khresheh (2015 p.126) "When the fossilisation rules, items and subsystems result from identifying a certain approach by learners for the sake of communication with native speakers of the TL, then the strategy of L2 communication is being dealt with." This strategy simply refers to the skills that L2 learners use to overcome difficulties encountered when they are unable to express themselves because of limited language resources.

All the above mentioned strategies are the psycholinguistic processes that lead to fossilisation. Krzeszowski (1977) illustrates this psycholinguistics diagrammatically below:

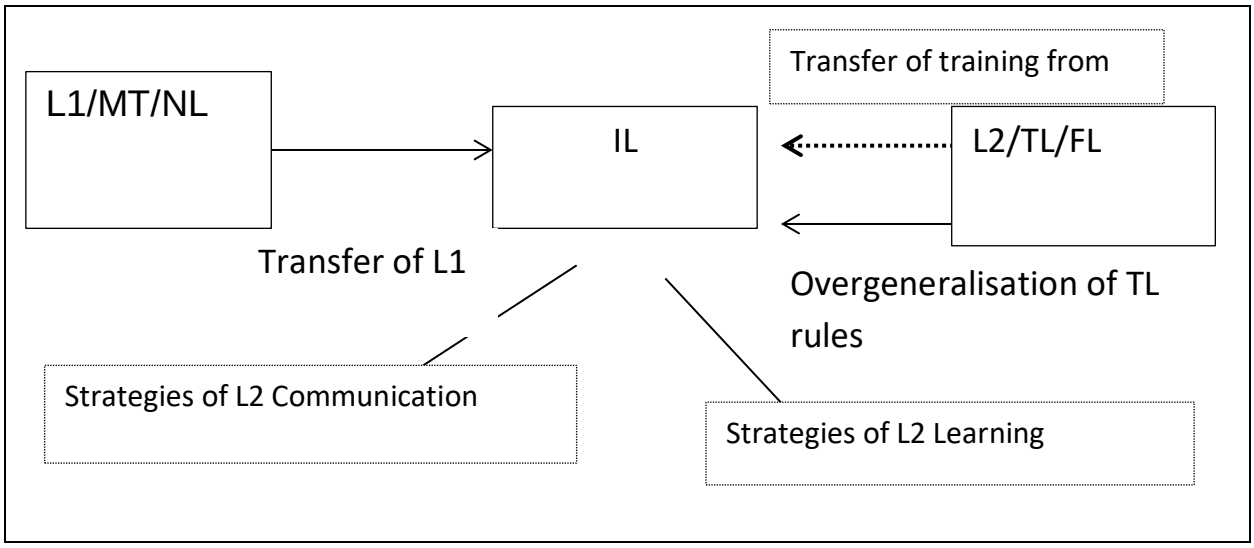

Figure 10. Fossilisation- Determining Process (Source: Krzeszowski 1977 p. 77)

2.5.6 Variability in Interlanguage

Interlanguage variability was viewed by Noam Chomsky as nothing more than performance errors and not worthy of systematic inquiry. However, from a sociolinguistic or psycholinguistic orientation, variability is viewed as an inherent feature of the learner's IL.

According to Ellis (2004), variability is one of the defining characteristics of human speech. Ellis asserts that no two voices are identical and no two utterances are the same. Therefore variability in speech may not be wholly random or chaotic but rather a result of several specified sources that may form rule-governed patterns. Variability in interlanguage can be classified into two different types namely; systematic and non-systematic. Systematic variability is viewed as changes in the linguistic, psychological,

and social context. The linguistic factors are often local. An example of this is seen when a learner often displays systematic constraints on their ability to use the correct tense such as “Last week, we play football” rather than “Last week, we played football”. Learners may also exhibit more mistakes when the word following a tensed word begins with a consonant eg. burned bacon.

Systematic variability occurs in two forms namely; contextual variability and individual variability. Contextual variability occurs when learners’ performance is different from a linguistic or a situational context. Non-systematic variability is categorised into free variability and performance variability.

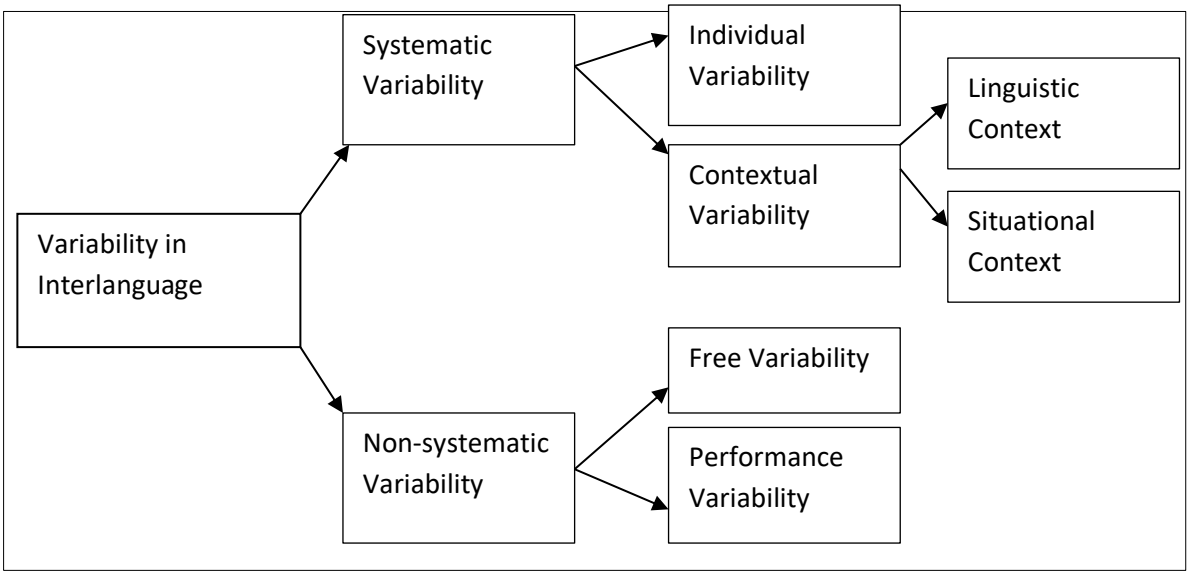

Figure 11. Types of variability in IL (Ellis 2004 p. 76)

Concerning the linguistic context, Othman (2003) explains that such a linguistic context refers to the linguistic environments and elements such as pronunciation, grammatical, syntactic and semantic categories. Situational, context, on the other hand, include factors such as field and mode of discourse, interlocutors with whom a speaker is interacting and the task engaged by the speaker (Othman 2003). This implies that variability of IL across situational contexts appear when the same

language learner makes two different structures of the same form of the IL under the influence of the factors mentioned above.

2.5.6.1 Communication Strategy

To investigate the variability of IL in a broader perspective, this study explains the strategy used by L2 learners from the point of view of syntax, vocabulary and phonology. Learners appear to use diverse means to compensate for the weakness in their linguistic repertoire. Littlewood (1984) explains that learners use different strategies because the rules of language are not taken into consideration since they do not have full confidence to carry out conversations and this can be due to a lack of appropriate vocabulary. Learners dwell on strategies such as:

(a) Paraphrasing: This is the learner's inability to find suitable words. An example is seen when a learner says "the thing that you carry drink porridge with", instead of 'spoon'.

(b)Approximation: A learner tries to use a word that has a meaning close to the relevant word. For example, 'some bird' instead of 'pigeon'.

(c) Hybridetion: A learner in this scenario creates new words by translating the element in a native language (Akans of Ghana) like 'police no' instead of the 'the policeman' or 'the policewoman'.

(d) Code Mixing: A learner tends to incorporate a word from the native language into the target language. This is normally found in bilingual societies where there is often code-mixing in the teaching-learning process.

(e) Use of non-linguistic resources: A learner sometimes conveys the meaning of the IL through gestures and expressions. Often, learners try to avoid the communication process especially when the vocabulary to be used is not at their disposal.

2.5.7 Interlanguage Development

To recap there is compelling evidence for various kinds of developmental sequences and stages in IL development, for example, Pica's (1983) and Schuman's (1979) well-known four-stage sequence for ESL negation; Doughty (1991), Eckman, Bell and Nelson's (1988), Gass and Selinker's (1983; 2001; 2008) six-stage sequence for English relative clauses and many other sequences in many other grammatical domains in a variety of L2. According to Ellis (1985), the sequences are impervious to instructions and it is impossible to alter stage order or to make learners skip stages altogether (Doughty & Long, 2003). This section of the study takes a brief view of the strong evidence referred to.

2.5.7.1 Pit Corder: Error Analysis

Corder (1967) asserted that errors were not random nor were they systematic results of L1 transfer; rather they were an indication of learners' attempts to learn or investigate an underlying rule-governed system as mentioned in earlier sections of this study. Corder differentiated errors and mistakes by defining mistakes as slip of the tongue whereas errors were indications of an as-yet-non-native like and were systematic and rule-based grammar. As interesting as Corder's definition was, Error Analysis failed to capture a full picture of a learner's linguistic behaviour. Several studies (Schachter 1974 as cited in Odlin 1989; Dulay & Burt 1974; Ellis 1985) have compared the composition of L2 learners focusing on different aspects and the use of relative clauses and found that things are not so straightforward. An investigation into what learners get right or wrong was very essential. It was therefore important to highlight the common acquisition orders and developmental sequences associated with learners' striving towards the acquisition of an L2.

2.5.7.2 The Early Morpheme Studies

After Corder's (1967) study, Dulay and Burt (1974) stressed that fewer than 5% of errors were due to NL interference and that errors as asserted by Corder are

systematic and are something akin to a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) at work not just in L1 acquisition but also in L2 acquisition.

Ellis (1985) explained the use of a series of pictures that learners were asked to describe and the corpus they collected reflected the natural speech of learners. Early morpheme studies used the system known as Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM). According to Dulay and Burt (1974), developmental stages were needed to reflect the morphemes of learners. The set of developmental stages, although discussed by Ellis (1985) in detail, was criticised vigorously and was argued that their accuracy did not provide evidence for the order of acquisition. BMS was used to diagnose learners' strengths and weaknesses in the base structures of a language. Thus, BMS measured language dominance and/or proficiency.

Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) together with Dulay and Burt (1973; 1974) suggested that there was a natural order in the acquisition of English morphemes regardless of L1 and became known as L1=L2 Hypothesis which pointed to systematic staged development in second language acquisition. However, those of Dulay and Burt (1974), Bailey, Madden and Krashen (1974) were challenged by over fifty L2 morpheme studies. These latter studies used more sophisticated data collection and analysis procedures, and their results have been prudent and restored confidence in findings of the earlier morpheme study. For example, an English Language learner may often view the words "Do you" as one word "doyou". Thus, they may associate it with being an indicator of a question and say "what doyou eating?" instead of "what are you eating?" at a stage where learners exhibit a lot of experience in restructuring their L2 systems. They eventually learn to break the chunk up to the component words and exhibit correct usage.

Learners begin to show a u-shaped learning pattern and begin to progress. Such a stage is known as the progressive morpheme, and the period of incorrect usage is seen as a learning regression. More often, learners are viewed as not aware of all the rules that apply in the knowledge of tense in English. As their knowledge expands, they eventually adapt to the correct usage of the morpheme and gain a greater understanding of the tense rules in English.

According to IL theory, the progression and regression of language learning present an important and positive manifestation of the learner's development and understanding of the grammar of the Target Language.

2.5.7.3 Developmental Sequences

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) stress the importance of developmental sequences with IL of learners coming from a wide array of backgrounds, ages and learning context. These sequences were said to be systematic and consisted of ordered series of IL structures, approximation to target construction, each reflecting an underlying stages of development. The stages must be ordered (with reference and respect to the other stages in the sequence) and must be obligatory as asserted by Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann (1981 as cited in Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991 p. 92; Johnston 1985).

In theory, developmental sequences are groups of structures with a grammatical domain such as negation, which are required in a fixed order by learners regardless of age, language background and setting. The sequence tells us how learners build up the target grammar. By the end of 1990s, evidence of stages of development of an interlanguage system stemmed from the following areas:

- Morphemes
- Negation

- Questions
- Word order
- Embedded clause
- Pronouns
- References to the past

These areas provide very persuasive support to the view that learners of an L2 follow the rigid developmental route. An example by Hernández-Chávez and Curtis (1972) envisaged that although the plural is realised in almost an exact way in Spanish and English, Spanish learners learning English went through a phase of omitting plural marking. It had initially been assumed that Second language learners' productions were a mixture of both L1 and L2, with the L1 either helping or hindering the process of acquisition depending on whether the structures are similar or different in the two languages. Unfortunately, this was not evidence of the assumption. This suggested that SLA involves the development of interlanguage in learners and that the interlanguages are linguistic systems of their own and with their own sets of rules.

It is very important to note that Corder's and Selinker's initial study and proposal of interlanguage was an attempt to explain the phenomenon of fossilisation. Tarone (1976) posed important questions and issues concerning the interlanguage of learners and the orders of acquisition in SLA. Tarone pointed out that "Second language learners who begin their study of the second language after puberty do not succeed in developing a linguistic system that approaches that developed by children acquiring that language natively". This observation led Selinker to hypothesise that adults use latent psychological structure, instead of LAD, to acquire second languages. Krashen's Monitor Model proved that there was no evidence of L1 transfer in the morpheme studies. The model also denied the central role of L1 transfer which the original interlanguage hypothesis gave and equally denied that there were critical

periods in SLA. This meant that important updates were needed. In the 1980s, important updates on interlanguage were done by many researchers.

Interlanguage development was faced with assumptions by coursebook-based English Language teaching which were regarded as false. Many coursebooks were of the assumption that structures can be learned on demand (Stuff, 2017).

The acquisition order according to Long (2015 p.21) is remarkably resilient to coursebook presentation sequences. Long demonstrates this in examples like: …Pica (1983) for English Morphology by Spanish-speaking adults; by Pavesi (1986) for relative clauses by children learning English as a Foreign Language (ESL) in Italy and Italian adults learning English naturalistically in Scotland; and by Ellis (1989) for English College students learning word order in German as a foreign language. According to Long (2015), the accuracy orders and developmental sequences found in instructed setting match obtained ones for the same features in studies of naturalistic acquisition, and the commonalities observed suggest powerful universal learning processes are at work. Long (2015 p.23) concluded that

> … instructions cannot make learners skip a stage or stages and move straight to the full native version of a construction, even if it is exclusively the full native version that is modelled and practised. Yet that is what should happen all the time if adult SLA were a process of explicit learning of declarative knowledge of full native models, their comprehension and production first proceduralised and then made fluent, i.e. automatised, through intensive practice. One might predict utterances with occasional missing grammatical features during such a process, but not the same sequences of what are often completely new, never-modelled interlingual constructions, and from all learners.

Gregg (1984) points out that if the structures of English are divided into varying numbers of ordered sets, the number of sets varying according to the individual, then it makes little sense to talk about natural order. It can be said that the dynamism of SLA is that differentiating between interlanguage developments is difficult. This is because the stages overlap and there are no variations within stages.

In summary, interlanguage is a theoretical construct that was created as a result of a cognitive approach to language with primary emphasis on the internal cognitive processes of a learner and their contribution to the processes of learning, resulting in different strategies. This suggests that learners' internal syllabus and their developmental sequences should be respected. Doughty and Long (2003) stress the point that the only way to respect the learners' internal syllabus is to employ an analytic, not synthetic, syllabus, thereby avoiding futile attempts to impose an external linguistic syllabus on learners, rather provide input that is tuned to learners' current processing capacity. This processing capacity should be negotiated by learners during collaborative work on pedagogical tasks. Doughty and Long (2003) advise that concentration should be centred on facilitating implicit learning than on explicit teaching to provide more carefully-tuned input and avoid the type of synthetic syllabus used in course books in favour of an analytic one.

As is obvious from the above discussion, interlanguage has been studied extensively and despite the many attempts scholars have made to investigate many aspects of interlanguage, further studies seem to be indispensable to the resolution of problems related to interlanguage systems and variability. Cross-sectional and longitudinal studies provided strong evidence for the natural sequence of interlanguage development. Further studies are required because interlanguage has its inadequacy and weakness.

There is strong evidence to show that there is a shift in attitudes towards errors from the one that viewed errors as signs of inhibition to the other that gave importance to the errors as evidence of the learner's active contribution to SLA. This has indeed aroused interest among psycholinguists, applied linguists and socio-linguists in studying language learners' language as a linguistic system and broadens our knowledge on how people learn the language, and how second language learners develop their interlanguage.

2.5.7.4 Methods of investigating developmental patterns

Many empirical and theoretical studies (Brown 1973; Pienemann 1984; Wells 1985) have been done with Selinker's interlanguage used as a benchmark to investigate the regularity of interlanguage development and study the sequence of the acquisition of an L2.

Interlanguage is studied by observing how the language of a learner develops over time. Although known to be dynamic, interlanguage appears regularly and predictably. Hence it is studied by choosing one of the learner's grammatical structure (e.g. plural –s) and then followed by collecting interlanguage samples to determine the sequence of acquisition of the structure and finally ranking the structure according to accuracy criteria.

Interlanguage also deals with a detailed investigation of a certain feature (e.g. interrogatives) to show the sequence of stages a learner goes through in their attempt to get to the target language. When the syntactic structures, such as negatives and interrogatives are studied, the regularities (which have been found across many languages) of the acquisition stages are most evident.

In the past, interlanguage was studied by analysing errors of learners, at certain points in time. However, Error Analysis failed to provide a complete investigative tool and interlanguage pictures because it only focused on counting and detecting errors. This promoted a need to show the development of interlanguage over time. As mentioned earlier, the systematic nature of interlanguage can be studied by looking at the developmental patterns. The study can be done by applying target-like, obligatory occasion and frequency.

Pienemann (1998) propose Emergence analysis which was aimed at looking at the structures that emerge predictably and stemming from the fact that developmental stages cannot be skipped. The stages of acquisition cannot be skipped in the learning process in any formal education.

In the 1970s, error analysis by Corder was one of the methods of studying interlanguage. Error analysis became popular because of its ability to count and clarify errors in the learning process. Even though error analysis was heavily criticised, it was static and gave insights into the way learners acquired a language. In 1998, Pienemann proposed factorisation as a way of dissolving different factors that are bundled together in the second language which could lead to errors.

Earlier on in this study, we discussed the developmental sequence of interlanguage. In summary, we studied the order of acquisition where grammatical structures such (plural-s) as an auxiliary in the study of developmental patterns followed by sample collection of a learner's interlanguage to determine how often a specific structure is used by different learners, and finally a ranking of the structures according to accuracy criteria. It is seen often that a u-shaped behaviour is exhibited by learners. Ellis (1997 quoted in Saric 2016 p. 244) gives an example by stating that "in the beginning, learners are unable to mark Past Simple of the verb 'eat'; then they start using the

correct form of the verb ‘to eat’ (i.e. ate). Learners begin to overgeneralise the rules for Past Tense, i.e. the form eated is used and finally they go back to the correct form of the Past Simple Tense of the aforementioned verb”.

Saric (2016) asserts that a developmental stage consists of a period during which learners systematically use a particular form or structure although it does not exclude the usage of other forms of structure. The structures can equally be ordered in a way that one form or structure always precedes another. Additionally, learners progress step by step along the sequence of acquisition by acquiring some structures of the target language at an earlier stage and some at a later stage.

There is compelling evidence for developmental patterns when it is possible to show that a sequence of acquisition is universal and thus cuts across different second languages and to all learners. This evidence is said to be weak if the sequence of acquisition is applied to specific languages and/or specific groups of learners.

According to Wells (1985), developmental patterns can be studied by collecting samples of a learner’s language over time to determine which linguistic feature emerges and when in the learner’s language. Wells calls this acquisition as the first occurrence. Although this method is common for First Language Acquisition, Pienemann (1984) proposed that it can be used to investigate L2 acquisition.

Brown (1973) proposed the obligatory occasion analysis as one of the methods for the description of developmental patterns in L2 acquisition. This method presented a sample collection of a learner language in a natural environment and identifies obligatory occasions for the use of specific target language forms. Brown explains that learners create occasions in which it is necessary to use a specific form of the target

language although learners do not always use it correctly. Secondly, a percentage of accurate use of a specific form is then calculated to determine if the needed form is used in all required contexts. Finally, the level of accuracy of a specific form is determined, which is normally set at 80-90% (Saric 2016). Brown (1973) asserts that if a certain structure is acquired, it will be a constant part of the learner's interlanguage, even at higher developmental stages. Several researchers, (Dulay & Burt 1974; Anderson 1978; Ellis 1994), following Brown's method, set their accuracies at different levels. Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996) set their accuracy level by considering if the structure is correctly used in 60%, Ellis (1994) required 80% and Dulay and Burt (1974b) required 90%. According to Saric (2016), the problem that is encountered when using Brown's method is that it takes no account of when the same form is used in a non-obligatory content.

Ellis (1994) emphasised that one of the methods of overcoming problems such as learners' ability to form their rule system in the process of acquiring a second language is to list various linguistic devices used by learners to express a specific grammatical structure. After the process, a frequency calculation of the usage of a specific device at different points in the learners' development must be adopted to disclose vertical variations in interlanguage development.

Cazden *et al.* (1975) advise that by adopting the frequency analysis method, it is possible to show the prominence of different elements at different developmental stages. When data is collected over a period of a few months or years, the studies are longitudinal. However, cross-sectional studies exist where data is collected at a single point in time and it is often applied in cross-sectional studies. This cross-sectional study is known as implicational scaling by Decamp (1971) which focuses on the changes in the learner's interlanguage to find out which form different learners have acquired and to arrange specific forms into a hierarchy.

The collection and frequency analysis method as mentioned above appears to show the prominence of different elements at different developmental stages in a learner's interlanguage. Pienemann (1998) proposed to use of emergence analysis which seems to focus on describing the beginning in the process of the acquisition of a specific structure in oral production. In this method, data is first collected using an oral interview with a focus on checking the lexical/grammatical variations (e.g. the use of the same morpheme with different words and the same word with different morphemes). The method utilises distributional analysis or a qualitative representation of different structures in a sample with a focus on the frequency of tokens which additionally determines if a specific form is mapped onto the specific structure. Secondly, a separation of productive forms from the formula is done. Productivity is done by the number of tokens and the systematic use of lexical/morphological varies of these tokens. The third step harnesses the use of implicational scaling.

2.5.7.5 Processability Theory

Pienenann and Keßler (2012) investigated the methods in perspective and theoreticised them as Processability Theory (PT) with a core concept that learners can produce only those forms which they can process at any given point in time. The authors proposed that learners cannot be taught structures from higher developmental stages that cannot be processed by their interlanguage processor. According to Pienemann (2005b) there are six (6) developmental stages in the English morphology and syntax in interlanguage development. This is summarised below in Table 2.

Table 2: *Developmental stages for English morphology and syntax (Pienemann 2005b)*

Stage	**Processing Procedure**	**L2 Process**	**Morphology**	**Syntax**

6	Subordinate clause procedure	Main and subordinate clause		Cancel inversion
5	Sentence procedure	Inter-phrasal agreement	Subject-verb agreement (3rd persons Singular–s)	Do 2nd Aux 2nd
4	Verb phrase procedure	Inter-phrasal agreement	Tense agreement	Y/N inversion Copular inversion
3	Noun Phrase Procedure	Phrasal Information	Noun Phrase agreement Negation+verb	Adverb fronting, Do fronting
2	Category Procedure	Lexical Morphology Possessive Pronouns	Plural	Canonical word order
1	Word/lemma	Noun Procedure	Invariant forms	Single constituents

The six stages claimed by Pienemann (1998) form a hierarchy with the element from a lower stage being a prerequisite for other elements of higher stages. This means it is possible to skip stages. According to Pienemann (1998), even though one can predict the acquisition path in advance because it includes developmental stages, there is a variable dimension that accounts for the individual differences between two different developmental trajectories. The trajectories are a function of developmental stages and the differences observable in different interlanguage varieties developed at each stage.

According to Pienemann (1998), PT is a single cognitive approach to L2 acquisition which seeks to explain developmental stages to the core as well as the variations involved. PT started as a multidimensional model with a framework for wide research

covering issues that include L2 processing, interlanguage variations, typological effects on SLA, L1 transfer, Pidgins, linguistic profiling, fossilisation and teachability.

This section of the research summarises PT and its relation to investigating developmental patterns in interlanguage. Four (4) major parts are set out in this section. The first part focuses on the observed facts particularly on paths of L2 development and learner variations. The second part gives a general overview of PT; the third part investigates the application of PT to other contexts. That is the current theoretical issues with the PT framework and finally the application of PT in a practical or classroom setting. Although this research is based on Error Analysis, this section also represents a deeper understanding of how learner errors are formed and highlights the developmental stages of learners during SLA to give the reader an insight into the understanding and categorising learner errors in context.

As mentioned earlier, PT is a theory of second language development and it is very crucial to understand the architecture of the language processor and how it handles a second language to predict the course of development of L2 linguistic forms as well as the comprehension across languages.

2.5.7.6 The scope of Processability Theory

The language processor accounts for language processing in real-time and within the human psychological constraints and these constraints are crucial for the processing of language. It is therefore important to incorporate the language processor in the study of SLA. As mentioned earlier, the core of theory PT is that learners can produce only those forms which they can process at a given point in time. This is formed by a universal processability hierarchy based on Levelt's (1989) approach to language production. The view of language production in Levelt's perspective is that processing components operate largely automatically and are generally not controlled

consciously. Also, the processing is incremental and the output of the processor remains linear while it may not be mapped onto the underlying meaning in a linear way (Keßler 2008). Lastly, grammatical processing has access to a temporary memory store that can store grammatical information (Pienemann 1998).

According to Bresnan's (2001) view, PT can predict developmental trajectory for any second language because it is a universal framework. Moreover, it is formerly modelled using Lexical-Functional Grammar. The word 'Developmental trajectory' means a developmental dimension consisting of 'staged development' and variational dimension. In this way, two-dimensional space for the formation of a certain hypothesis is defined within the PT, with both dimensions constrained by the processing hierarchy which can be applied to any other language (Pienemann 1998).

Developmental trajectories differ concerning interlanguage varieties and there are also many possible developmental trajectories based on the same stages of development. Figure 12 depicts a graphical representation of two developmental trajectories.T1 and T2 based on the same set of developmental stages.

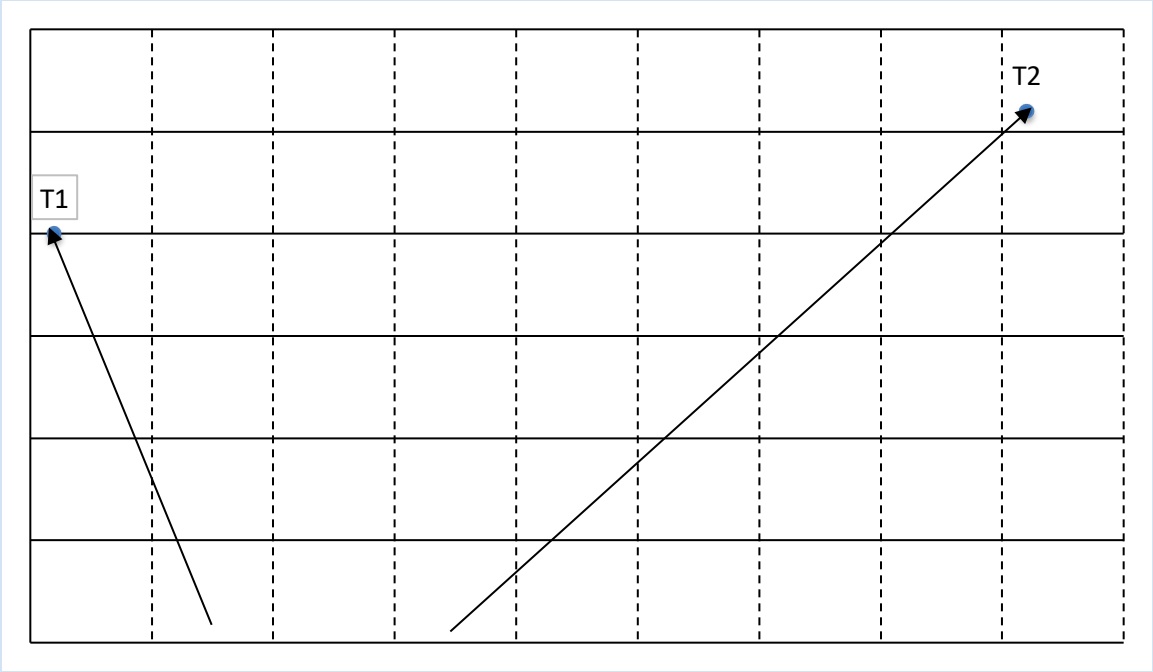

Figure 12. Two developmental trajectories (Processability Theory by Pienemann and Keßler 2012)

The two developmental trajectories are based on developmental stages which are marked in solid horizontal lines and the differences are observable in different interlanguage varieties developed at each stage which are marked with dotted vertical lines. For every process of learning, there is a limited number of variables solutions and during second language development, the learner accumulates grammatical rules and their variations which assist them to develop their developmental path and at the same time adhere to the general developmental order (Saric 2016). Pienemann and Keßler (2012) each stage represents a set of grammatical rules that share certain processing routines. Also, each interlanguage variety represents a specific variety/variation of grammatical rules.

Originally, Pienemann (1998) focused solely on what is known as the 'developmental problem'. This developmental problem stemmed from the question of 'why do learners follow universal stages of acquisition?' However, Pienemann, DiBiase and Kawaguchi

(2005) provided an extended version of the PT which sought to address the so-called 'logical problem' which is 'what is the origin of linguistic knowledge?' in literal terms, 'how do learners know that there are such things as nouns and verbs?' according to Saric (2016), the developmental and logical problem presents key issues of any theory associated with language acquisition and PT addresses the key issues in a modular fashion with one module dealing with the developmental problem and another but connected module dealing with the logical problem. Saric (2016) confirms that both modules are based on Lexical-functional Grammar (LFG). LFG accounts for linguistic knowledge which is compatible with the architecture of the language processor. Both components are needed for PT to address the developmental and the logical problem according to Kaplan and Bresnan (1982). Kaplan and Bresnan (1982) assert that LFG is committed to the interface between linguistic knowledge and language processing and the various components of a theory of language acquisition can be studied separately if they fit together in a coherent model. The core concept of PT is that language development is constrained by processability and this affects first and second language development as well as the interlanguage variation and L1 transfer. An extended version of PT adds up to this concept that the initial form of Grammar in SLA is determined by the relationship between the ideas expressed in a sentence and the way they are expressed by grammatical forms.

2.5.7.7 The key components in Processability Theory

The main components associated with PT according to Pienemann (1998) are:. the processability hierarchy,. the Hypothesis spac and developmental dynamics These are now discussed.

a. The Processability Hierarchy

As mentioned earlier, PT is based on Levelt's (1989) approach to language generation and also formally operationalised using Lexical-Functional Grammar (Bresnan 2001).

PT is constructed hierarchically by the architecture of human language generation and thus learners follow this hierarchical order in a constrained way and the hierarchy is applied to specific conditions of the Target Language. LFG formalisations help in this hierarchical order of processability or processability hierarchy (PH). Although PT was applied in the ESL sense, this section of the study expands the reader's ability to understand an array of prediction for developmental schedules in syntax and morphology which account for certain types of errors in written essays. Moreover, PT has theoretical modules that deal with the L1 transfer, inter-learner variation and the role of linguistic typology. This has been applied in many linguistic profiling (Saric 2016).

Mukai (2014) looks at processability hierarchy to the core by using LFG based analysis and a study by Kawaguchi (2007) to explain how learners acquire a second language. Although this study investigates learner errors in the English language, a core concept to understand the origin of these errors give the researcher a deeper and broader scope to the insights of the language acquisition process and of course, the causes of these errors, as well as the method for analysing these errors with the application of some of the theories mentioned above. Although many researchers were keen to understand the L2 acquisition process and how knowledge of syntax develops over time (Selinker 1972; Pienemann 2005; Ellis and Larsen-Freeman 2006), it can be agreed that learner errors are inevitable in language acquisition.

This section of the paper presents the historical overview of the studies associated with interlanguage and the impact of interlanguage during the error analysis framework. PT is a psycholinguistically oriented language acquisition theory that accounts for a universal path of L2 development. This universal path of development outlines certain levels of language processing procedures which are known as the processability hierarchy. Formalized by Levelt's Speech Generation Model (Levelt, 1989) and LFG (Bresnan 2001), PT has been applied in many cross-linguistic studies

of languages including English Language, Chinese, Turkish, Spanish and many others (DiBase & Kawaguchi 2002; Kawaguchi 1998, 2002; Zhang 2005; Pienemann 2001). Within a lexicalist framework, PH is based on the idea of the transfer of grammatical information within and between the phrases of a sentence. PT aims to hypothesise on the basis that there is a general architecture of the language processor. Therefore there is a universal hierarchy of processing resources that can be related to the requirements of the specific procedural skills needed for the Target Language. This study briefly describes the PH and its relation in the PT.

Pienemann (1986) proposed that the hierarchical sequence for acquisition follows the same order as in the activation of language production processes. Thus the acquisition of the processing procedures at the lower levels in the hierarchy is a prerequisite for the higher levels. This means that learners of L2 must sequentially complete each stage (Mukai 2014).

Mukai (2014) asserts that ‘grammatical memory store’ and ‘exchange of grammatical information is important when describing the principles of acquisition hierarchy in the PH. This is because L2 acquisition is generally seen as a gradual process and the acquisition hierarchy follows the same process (Pienemann 1998b).

Mukai (2014) explains the stages below:

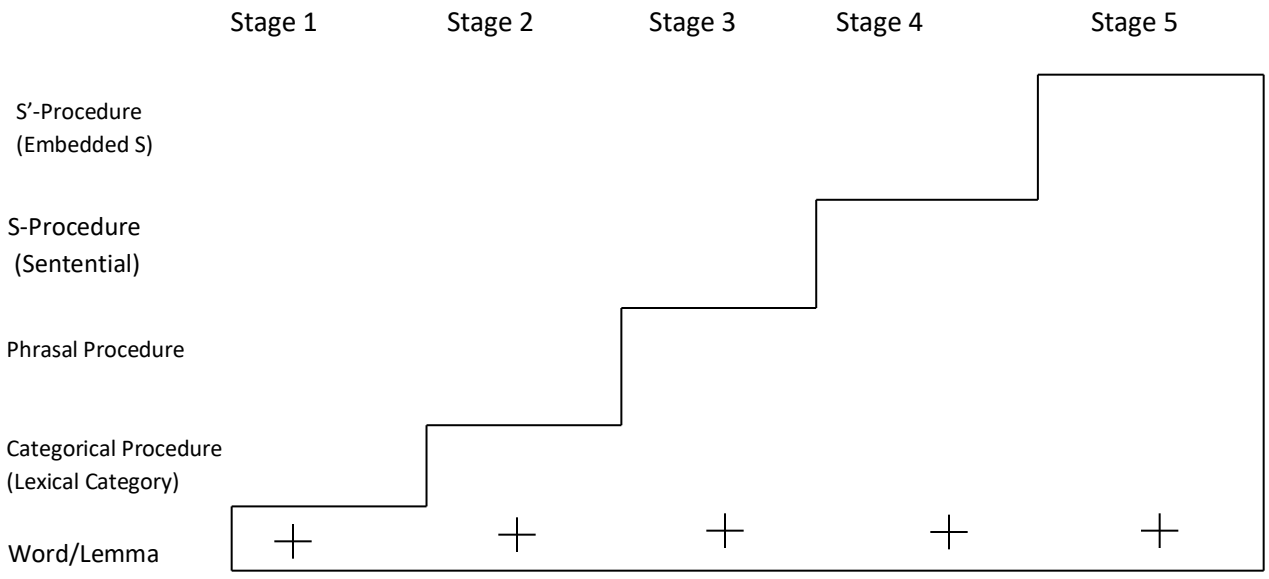

Figure 13. L2 acquisition hierarchy (Pienemann 1998b)

Stage 1 (Word/Lemma): At this stage, it is proposed that L2 learners have not yet developed language acquisition skills and thus cannot access any syntactic information. They only and at this stage produce L2 single words and formulaic language which does not require grammatical information exchange.

Stage 2 (Categorical Procedure): At this stage, learners can produce lexical morphology and sentences in a canonical word using a direct form of mapping procedures of conceptual structures onto linguistic forms. Learners can use a semantic role of words to canonically order them.

Stage 3 (Phrasal Procedures): At this stage, learners can produce phrasal morphology and can exchange grammatical information between a head and its modifier. Learners

are also able to add noun phrases or wh-question words to the initial position in a canonically ordered sentence.

Stage 4 (S-Procedure): L2 learners can use inter-phrasal morphemes (e.g. 'He plays' in English) to construct sentences and can unify noun phrases that are developed at a lower node at the sentence-level node. Learners can assign a grammatical function to the noun phrases at this stage.

Stage 5 (S'-Procedure): Learners at this stage can distinguish between a matrix and a subordinate clause to construct a sentence.

According to Pienemann (1998b), the hierarchy of processing procedures is based on general psychological constraints which evolve around the learner's working memory capacity to transfer grammatical information in a sentence during language production, needs formalized grammar to assign grammatical structures to each stage in any language. This is the reason for employing the LFG.

To lay a little emphasis on the LFG, it is a grammatical framework in formal linguistic and variant of generative grammar. LFG in Mukai (2014) description is a lexically driven devotional grammar that does not derive one structure from another and views language as being constructed in three dimensions. Each of these dimensions has its own rule, distinct structure concept and forms (Bresnan 2001).

Bresnan (2001) names three distinct structures as Argument structure (a-structure), Functional structure (f-structure), and Constituent structure (c-structure). To briefly describe these three structures, the Argument structure looks at the predicates and

their arguments; the functional structure specifies grammatical functions of constituents for semantic interpretation (e.g. subjects, objects, etc.); the constituent structure is made up of hierarchical components and also specifies the internal structure of sentences. These are the parallel components of LFG.

This study does not discuss LFG in detail. Further research of LFG (Dalrymple 2001; Falk 2001; Kawaguchi 2010) discusses LFG in detail and guides the reader into the completeness conditions as well as the coherence conditions associated with LFG. To recapitulate, the basic hypothesis of PT is that, learners develop their grammatical inventory following the Processabilty hierarchy by Pienemann (1998) which are

i) No procedure ii) Category procedure iii) Noun phrase procedure

iv) Sentence procedure and v) Subordinate clause procedure

Learners do this for two reasons, the first being that hierarchy is implicationally ordered and secondly that the hierarchy mirrors the time course in language generation.

2.5.7.8 The Hypothesis Space

As earlier discussed, processability hierarchy focuses on information transfer within phrase structure. The extended version of PT (Pienemann, DiBase & Kawaguchi 2005) extends PH to include further aspects of language generation, thus the relationship between 'conceptual structure' and grammatical structure. The purpose of this study in relation to interlanguage is to present a brief overview of the interlanguage and focus on the relationship between error analysis and interlanguage. This section of the study describes the hypothesis space of the PT. According to Pienemann (1998b), the processability hierarchy is the sequence in the fundamental design of the language processor develops in L2 acquisition. The learner is

constrained to follow the sequence. Moreover, the processing procedures developed at every stage of the hierarchy allow for a degree of space for the shape of the L2 grammar.

Hypothesis Space is designed by the interplay between the processability hierarchy and the space it generates at every level (Pienemann 1998). Processing procedure constraint is the range of possible production grammar for every level and these constraints leave enough space for learners to find different solutions to structural learning problems (Keßler 2008). Often, learners need to circumnavigate a structural problem caused by constraints inherent in the hierarchy. Developmental trajectories are also constrained by the processability hierarchy (Keßler 2008).

2.5.7.9 Developmental Dynamics

The key components of language development are the developmental trajectories within the hypothesis space that have their own dynamics according to Keßler (2008). Pienemann (1998b) asserted that these dynamics are particularly well visible in a comparison of first and second language development. The way to appreciate developmental dynamics is to understand the descriptive facts about L1 word order in terms of processing procedures and the developmental trajectories found in the acquisition of a language as an L1 and as an L2 in relation to L2.

2.6 Error Analysis

2.6.1 The Models of error analysis

Corder (1967; 1974) identified a model for error analysis which was made up of three crucial stages.

1. Data collection: This required the recognition of idiosyncrasy
2. Description: This involved the accounting of idiosyncratic dialect

3. Explanation: This is the ultimate object of Error Analysis

This model was elaborated by Ellis (1995 p.51f) and Hubbarb *et al.* (1996 pp.135-141). According to the authors, the initial step required the selection of a corpus of language followed by the identification of errors. The errors are then classified followed by a grammatical analysis of each error and then an explanation of the different types of errors.

Gass and Selinker (2008 p.103) were, however, of the view that the error analysis model should follow six steps: data collection, identification of errors, classification of errors, quantification of errors, analysis of the sources of errors, and remediation of errors.

Although this study built its foundation of error analysis regarding Corder's model, it is important to state that the elaboration of the model by Corder became typical in any EA research. This elaborated model involved:

1. Collecting samples of learner language
2. Identifying the errors
3. Describing the errors
4. Explaining the errors
5. Evaluating/correcting the errors

Corder (1973) distinguished the kinds of data elicitation for EA research: clinical and experimental. Clinical elicitation requires a learner to produce data of any sort. This elicitation can be in the form of general interviews or written compositions. Experimental elicitation involves the use of special instruments to collect data that contains linguistic features such as a series of pictures that had been designed to elicit

specific features. Ellis (1994 p.48) stated that “it was not until the 1970’s that EA became a recognised part of applied linguistics, a development that used much of the work of Corder”. Corder showed to whom information about errors would be helpful (teachers, researchers and students) and how helpful the errors are to these groups of people. Corder’s model was built on an extensive research and deeper understanding of learner language. Corder (1974) predicted that EA research should follow the diagram below:

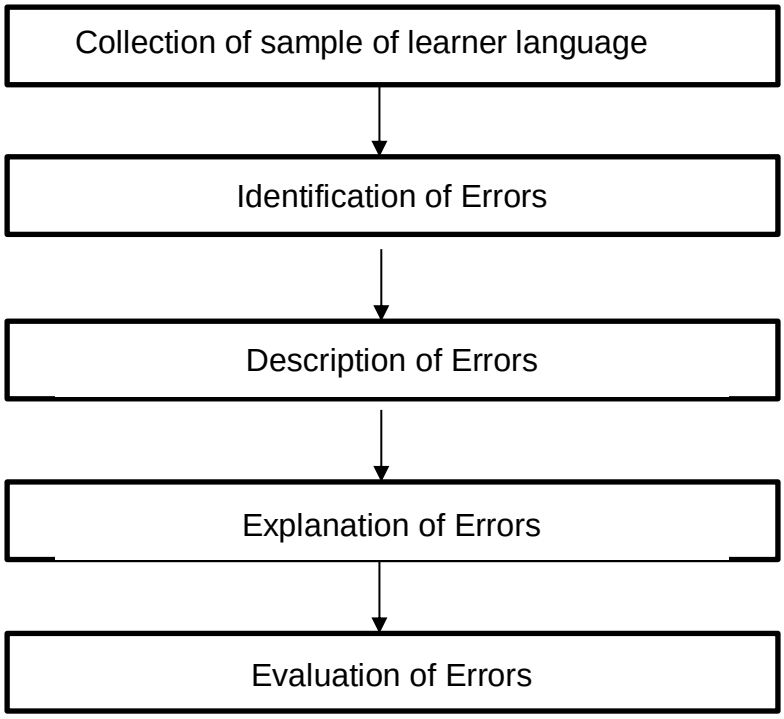

Figure 14. Steps in Error Analysis

Prior to the arrival of these steps and as discussed earlier, the EA model followed an extensive research in the linguistic community. In fact, many of the researchers who carried out Error Analysis in the 1970s continued to be concerned with language teaching and many of those researchers who attempted to discover more about L2 acquisition were of the impression that the study of errors was itself motivated by the desire to improve pedagogy.

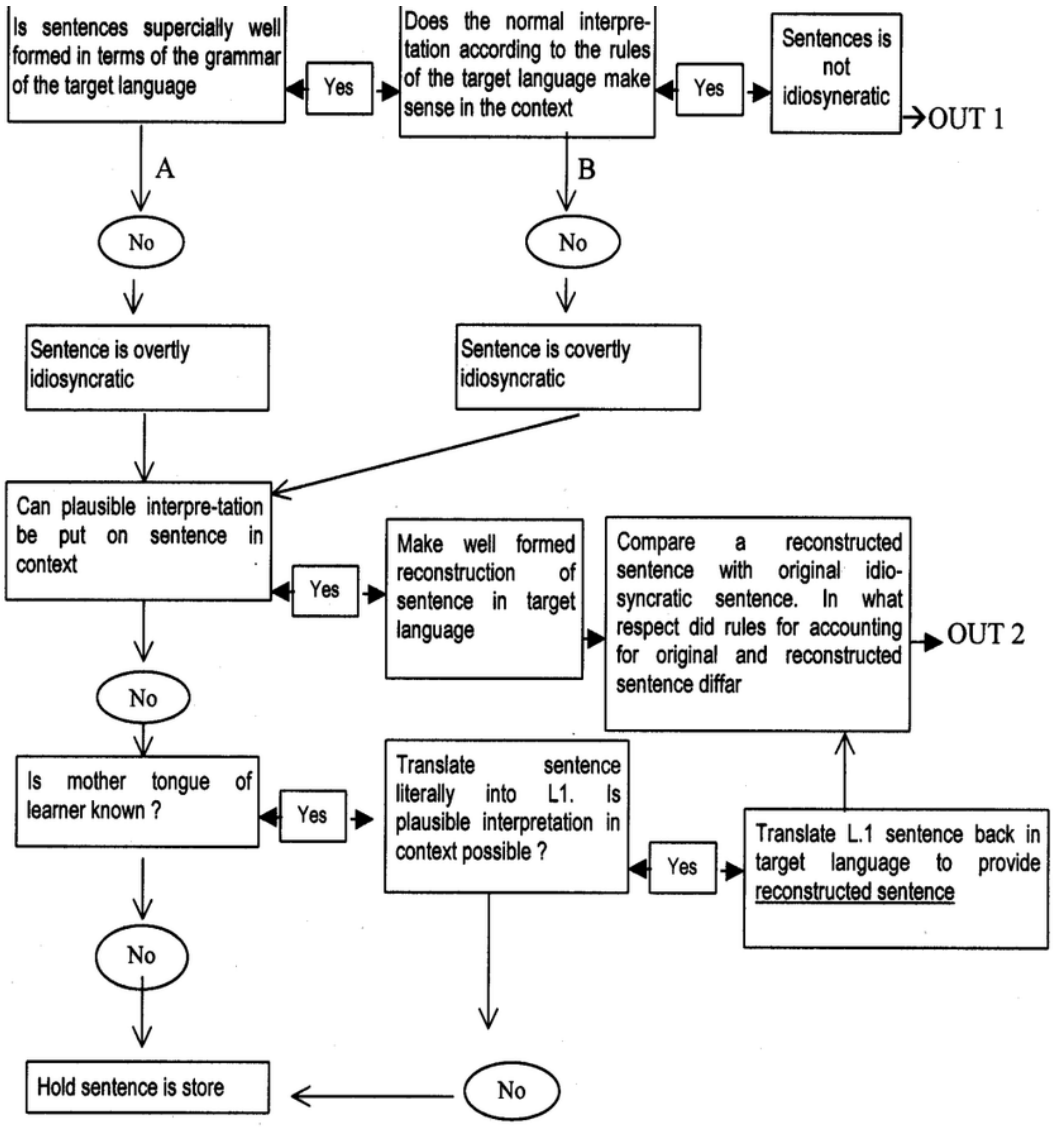

Figure 15. Corder's Model (1971) (Adapted from Brown 2000 p.221 and Hasyim 2002 p.43)

After the extensive work by researchers like Corder, Ellis, Brown, Gass and Selinker, the authors agreed that there were two basic data collection procedures namely spontaneous and elicited (Ellis 1994 p.49f).

- Spontaneous or unplanned data for written and spoken language include unmonitored conversation and interviews, free compositions and examination papers.
- Elicited procedures include oral and written translation from the native language to the target language, multiple-choice tests which are free from any kind of restrictions.

2.6.2 The Role of Error Analysis

The emergence of EA (Corder 1974) revealed that many learner errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rule of the target language. EA as a procedure is used to identify, categorise and explain the errors committed by Foreign and Second Language (FL/L2) learners. EA has been defined by other scholars in varied ways. According to James (1998 p.1), EA is "the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language." In Al-Khresheh's (2013) perspective, EA deals with the way people learn and use language. The above definitions support Corder's (1981) EA model of collection, identification, description and explanation.

EA is a shift from potential errors, as predicted by CA, to actual errors committed by FL and L2 learners. This implies that EA, unlike CA, provides both a pedagogical and scientific orientation in addressing L2 errors. EA does not focus on input, practice or deductive learning; rather it places emphasis on linguistic and cognitive processes. The systematic analysis of errors made by FL and L2 learners makes it possible to determine areas which need reinforcement in the teaching and learning process (Corder 1974).

EA further prescribes that a great number of errors made by FL/L2 learners are similar regardless of their MT and that such errors are caused by intralingual interference or transfer. James (1998) posits that such interference from the structure of the TL itself is the main cause of intralingual errors. These errors can be created without referring to L1 features. Based on this assumption, EA serves two main purposes; the first is to identify types and patterns of errors, and the second is to establish error taxonomies.

The criticisms of EA also emerged when it was found out that the theory misdiagnosed students' learning problems due to their 'avoidance' of certain difficult structures of the TL. EA has become an important tool for analysing learners' errors despite some of its criticisms. Critics of EA as well argue that too much attention is given to learner's errors. These critics are of the view that if teachers are concerned or preoccupied with noticing errors, many correct utterances may go unnoticed, and the studies of researchers will be based only on what learners' are doing wrong, and not what makes them successful. Thus, the unitary source of an error cannot be identified. There is also the overstressing of production data as criticism. It is worth noting that production errors are only a part of the overall performance of the learner. For example, Ney (1986) noted that the number of sentences in a language and the number of the kinds of errors a learner is likely to make are endless. For this reason, Ney advocates that EA be abandoned. The following sections describe EA in a more detailed approach.

As a branch of applied linguistics, Error Analysis is concerned with the compilation, study and analysis of L2 learner errors with a focus on investigation aspects of SLA. According to James (1998), Error Analysis is known to be the concept of interlanguage and it compares learner's data with the target language norm, identifies and explains errors. EA was a way of studying SLA in the early 1960s.

Corder (1967) in his seminal paper “The significance of learner errors”, drifted researchers’ attention from the teaching perspective to the learning perspective and therefore shifted away from Contrastive analysis, behaviourism and structuralism towards cognitive psychology which seems to have worked together with the turn towards Communicative approach in language teaching.

Corder (1967) in his research used the term ‘transitional competence’ which has since been accepted and widely used in:

I. interlanguage (Selinker 1972),
II. the learner’s individual, dynamic approximation of the target language.

In Error Analysis, language learning is known to be influenced by learners L1, their interlanguage and the target language. These three language systems appear to influence learner errors. However, the gap between the interlanguage and the target language is an area of interest to researchers and considered as the most important factor of the three. Corder (1967) posits that learners commit errors because of their learning strategies adopted to discover the target language. Opponents argue that Error Analysis in the late 1970s turned out to be deficient as a research tool because inductive error analyses were carried out to arrive at generalisations about errors. Researchers in the late 1970s only applied EA as a mere contributor to SLA theory and research. Although Error analysis changed behaviourists perspective on language acquisition and learner errors were no longer regarded as “signs of inhibition” according to Corder (1967) but regarded as useful evidence of language acquisition. Learner errors gave researchers insights into strategies of learning a TL and natural aspects of SLA. Error analysis contributed immensely to comprehensive knowledge about processes of SLA and the results of EA were intended to be used to revise theories of language learning and to improve language teaching.

Secondly, Error Analysis widened the perspective on possible causes of errors because researchers found out that the NL or L1 was not the only (and not the most

important) factor that led to errors. It prompted researchers to dive deeper into finding that errors were common and typical of different target languages and researchers were curiously in search of reasons why those errors were made. These errors which were classed performance errors resulted from mistakes or lapses and are not determined by a learner's interlanguage but rather by situational factors such as tiredness. True errors were connected to the state of interlanguage or learner's competence.

Interlingual errors resulted from the interference of the MT or NL and that was differentiated from intralingual errors which occurred when target language rule was applied to areas where it was not applicable. Corder's (1967) extensive research also pointed out that covert errors were errors that resulted from the utterance which was seemingly correct but does not mean what the speaker or writer intended it to mean.

In the mid to late 1970s, error analysis contributed immensely to the interlanguage hypothesis but it was criticised for several practical problems. Firstly, EA was seen to gather knowledge of language learning processes by examining the output of the learner but proved to be difficult to determine whether there was an error at all and what constituted the error. EA could not identify the distinction between error and mistakes.

Secondly, there was more than one way for error classification and thirdly, errors causes were not easily identifiable and there were multiple causes of errors e.g. communication strategies, external factors, personal factors, etc. Since EA dwelt on the learner's output as the only source of evidence used, the proposed or found causes of errors were unreliable. Additionally, error taxonomies confused description with explanation and that offered little help to the learner (Johnson & Johnson 1998).

2.6.3 A review of EA Theory

EA presented itself as an alternative approach to CA theory as discussed earlier. This section of the research reviews the theoretical foundation, theoretical assumptions, limitations and significance of the EA theory.

2.6.3.1 Theoretical Foundation

EA as propounded by Corder in the late 1970s as a result of the behaviouristic nature of L2 learning, claimed that learning was a result of acquiring a set of new language patterns (Al-khresheh 2016). Therefore, L2 errors were considered as only the result of learners' NL habits in the target language which deprived them of being explained and underestimated.

The emergence of EA paved way for errors to be viewed as learners' performance in terms of cognitive processes used in recognising or coding inputs received from the target language (Erdogan 2005). It was realised that interference of L1 was not the only reason for errors in SLA and therefore the need to employ another approach other than CA to clearly describe learner errors. EA played a fundamental role in L2 error investigation, categorisation and error analysis. According to Corder (1981), L2 errors reflect some underlying linguistic rules and focused on actually committed errors by FL/L2 learners rather than potential errors. EA provided scientific orientation and focused generally on linguistic and cognitive processes rather than the input, practice or inductive learning posed by CA. EA provided a systematic way of analysing FL/L2 learner errors.

James (1998) defined EA as the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequence of unsuccessful language. Mahmoodzadeh (2012) considered EA as a procedure used to identify, categorise and explain errors committed by L2 learners.

2.6.3.2 Theoretical Assumptions

EA's systematic description and classification ability rendered it a superior choice over CA. EA challenged the CA assumption that learner errors cannot only be caused by L1 interference but can also be caused by intralingual interference from the target language itself. Thus, EA embraces interference from L1 as one of the sources of L2 errors proposed by CA and also believes in the intralingual interference from the TL as well. Corder assumed that the number of errors made by L2 learners are similar regardless of the interference of their MT. These types of similar errors are caused by intralingual interference. James (1998) agreed that such errors caused by interference from the structures of the TL are the main cause of intralingual errors and they can be created without referring to L1 features.

Corder (1972) pointed out two main objectives of EA which were the theoretical and the applied objectives. The theoretical objective investigated the validity of the theories such as the theory of transfer. Thus, the theoretical objective helped in understanding how and what an L2/FL learner learns whilst studying a target language. The Applied objective looked at the 'pedagogical purposes' (Mahmoodzadeh 2012 p.735). These objectives enabled L2 learners to learn their TL more efficiently and effectively by harnessing the knowledge of their L1 for pedagogical purposes.

One basic assumption that emanated from the concept of intralingual errors was that several L2 learners' errors are universal and common to both L1 and L2 learning. Additionally, studies reveal that all L2 learners will commit similar errors irrespective of their L1 background.

Secondly, L2 learner errors should not be viewed as unpardonable sins. Errors in the process of second language learning are not only natural and inevitable but are significant in three different ways and Corder (1991 pp. 10 -11) states that:

> First to the teacher, in that, they tell him if he undertakes a systematic analysis, how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learnt or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, (and in a sense, this is their most important aspect), they are indispensable to the learner himself; because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner can use to learn. It is a way the learner has of testing his hypotheses about the nature of language he is learning.

EA has a more tolerant view towards L2 learners' errors in comparison to CA. In EA, language learning is seen as a process of hypothesis formation and testing rather than habit formation. As mentioned in previous sections of this research, learners' errors are known to be an inevitable, natural, and essential part of SLA from EA's perspective. According to Ellis (1999 p.53), one of EA's most significant roles is its "success in evaluating the status of errors from undesirability to that of a guide to the inner workings of the language learning process."

The definition of errors and mistakes by Corder prompted linguists like Ellis, Brown and Lengo to probe for a distinction between these elements. Brown (1987) suggested that it is important to make a distinction between errors and mistakes to achieve a proper analysis of L2 learners' errors. Corder (1981 p.10) made a distinction between errors "which are the product of such chance circumstances" for which he reserves the term 'mistake', and those errors which reveal imperfection in the learner's "underlying knowledge of language" or his "transitional competence".

Corder saw errors of competence as the application of rules which did not correspond to L2 norms, while mistakes or errors of performance are slips of tongue. However, Ellis (1999 p.68) recognised the “practical difficulties” about Corder’s distinction of ‘errors’ and ‘mistakes’ as probably unworkable in practice, which Corder himself acknowledged. Corder (1981 p.10) acknowledged that “determining what is a learner’s mistake and what is a learner’s error is one of some difficulty and involves a much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than is usually accorded them.”

This made it clear that Corder’s distinction between errors of competence and performance suffered from serious practical limitations. Thus the distinction was based on the discrepancy between a learner’s knowledge of language rules and his actual use of language. The practical limitations of Corder’s definition sparked notions among some linguists like Chomsky to famously distinguish ‘competence’ and ‘performance’. According to Chomsky ‘competence’ is an idealised capacity that is located as a psychological or mental property or function and ‘Performance’ as the production of actual utterances. This means that Competence involves “knowing” the language and Performance involves “doing” something with the language. However, this distinction was too abstract to capture the concrete problems of second language learning because it was difficult to assess competence without assessing performance.

Much theoretical issues remained unresolved concerning the distinction of errors and mistakes. Such issues prompted linguists such as Chomsky’s (1965), Ellis’ (1994) and Lengo’s (1995) views to be captured. In that regard, Corder’s distinction and issues revolving around errors and mistakes are discussed further.

2.6.3.3 Limitations and significance of Error Analysis theory

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, many theoretical issues remained unresolved for Corder’s distinction of errors and mistakes. Though the view of Ellis and that of Lengo considered all L2 learners’ deviations as proper errors, the

unresolved issues and operational procedure of Corder to distinguish between errors and mistakes were not seen to be reliable. Els Van *et al.*. (1984 p.60) also argued that "it is possible that an L2 learner can recognise and repair his own error on the basis of explicit L2 knowledge, but at the same time retain them in actual L2 use."

Additionally, Corder (1973) referred to errors as a deviation from TL norms. The question of the norm was defined by Klassen (1991) who chose the native speaker's judgement as the norm for L2 learner's errors. According to Klassen (1991 p.10), an error is "a form or structure that a native speaker deems unacceptable because of its inappropriate use". Similarly, Richards *et al.* (1989 p.95) viewed learner errors as the "use of a linguistic item in a way which, according to fluent users of the language, indicates faulty or incomplete learning." These definitions posed different questions on the issue of native speakers' norms and criterion of "appropriate use". With a clear cut knowledge that languages exist in different varieties and dialects with rules that differ from the standard and the rules are different amongst native speakers, there is not always a precise definitions and clear-cut boundary between error and non-error.

However, Chomsky answers the question by defining that the native speaker is not an illiterate person and deviant forms produced by these native speakers are considered. From the criticisms made against the approaches of EA, It was clear that it had a lot of methodological problems. These limitations are summarised as:

I. It was virtually impossible to reliably determine what kind of errors learners made. It was difficult to identify whether a learner made mistakes from the overgeneralisation of L1 transfer.
II. EA could deal with learner production in terms of speaking and writing and not with learner reception (listening and reading).
III. EA could not account for learner's use of communicative strategies such as avoidance, in which learners simply do not use forms that were found to be uncomfortable.

In this regard, EA became less favourable by SLA researchers but closely related to the study of error treatment in language teaching. EA methods and the study of errors, in general, are currently relevant in the area of language teaching methodology.

2.7 CA, EA and IL as a Common Platform in Language Teaching

In Sridhar's (1980) perspective, CA, EA and IL may be envisaged as three different phases with a common goal. EA and IL differ from each other in several theoretical assumptions, methodologies, data considerations, the insights provided into the nature of the TL and the implications of the studies that are being carried out. CA, EA and IL were seen to have important contributions to make in different areas of study. The theories, methods, data considered and insights into the nature of the target language would direct a researcher to the related analysis to use. Fisiak (1981) advocates that CA should be carried out despite criticisms and shortcomings associated with it. This is because not all CA hypotheses are wrong. To overcome the shortfalls of CA, Fisiak suggested that teachers should accompany CA with EA. This was backed by Shackne (2002) who revealed that CA may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level. Additionally, CA theory has been to an extent supplanted by EA which did not only examine the impact of transfer errors but also those errors related to the TL and that included over generalisation.

2.8 EA theory as a backbone to the Research

It is the purpose of this chapter to present EA as the "state of the art" theory adopted in this area of research. The study examines current trends in theory, methodology, empirical validations and contributions to ESL writing. With the recent impressionistic collection of "common" errors and their taxonomic classification into categories, EA is said to have the longest tradition (Sridhar 1980). EA was used as a primary pedagogical tool based on three arguments cited by Sridhar (1980) as:

a. EA did not exhibit the limitations of CA. EA brings many types of errors made by learners to light. Errors such as intralanguage errors caused by the particular teaching and learning strategy employed (Richard 1971).
b. EA provides data in actual attested problem and not hypothetical problems like that of CA. EA formed an efficient and economical basis for designing pedagogical strategies (Lee 1968).
c. Unlike CA, EA is not confronted with complex theoretical problems such as the problem of equivalence (Wardhaugh 1970).

EA has a role to play when a testing ground for the predictions of CA, and a supplement of its results are concerned. However, several investigations such as Duskova 1969; Banathy and Madarasz 1969; Richards 1971; Schachter and Celce-Murcia 1977 revealed that certain errors do not surface in EA just as there are errors that are not handled by CA (Sridhar 1980).

EA is largely applied as an intervening construct that does not only identify errors in the TL but also helps to describe, analyse and explain them as elucidated in Chapter One. These functions of EA help in error rectification pedagogies. Bose (2005) affirmed that learner errors are occasioned by Mother Tongue (MT) interferences on the TL. Distinguishing between positive and negative transfers, he explained that a negative transfer comes about when the MT and TL are different from each other; and that positive transfer between MT and TL arise when both languages are similar. For instance, there is a lack of capitalisation in the Arabic alphabet and very different punctuation conventions. There is also no distinction made between upper and lower case (Sofer & Raimes 2002). Further, an Arabic preposition may be translated into several English language prepositions while an English usage may have several Arabic translations (Scott & Tucker 1974). These differences in Arabic and English language may cause major difficulties for the Arabic learners of the English language because they may tend to transfer their L1 structures into the TL.

Mungungu (2010) investigated common English language errors made by Oshiwambo, Afrikaans and Silozi (ethnic groups) first language speakers. The study identified errors in four main areas, namely tenses, prepositions, articles and spelling. Mungungu targeted final year students from selected secondary schools in isolated areas of Namibia and who were not exposed to the multilingual background. The study used examination scripts from their final year examination to select, identify, classify, categorise and quantify the frequency of occurrence of the various types of errors per ethnic group. The method of analysis used falls within the framework of this study, where errors are identified, categorised and quantified. However, this study focused on final year students at the secondary level with the assumption that many of these students had had maximum exposure to the English language. This assumption is similar to that of the current study in that the students have had several years of exposure to the English language before gaining entry into the university.

Similarly, Atmaca (2016) identified the following error categories in Turkish EFL learners' writing: prepositions, verbs, articles, sentence structure, punctuation, gerunds, pluralism, possessives, word choice and tenses. The author targeted Elementary level (Level 100) students and also adopted SPSS 16 to quantify data obtained. Atmaca identifies with Ellis' (1997) method of Error Analysis. That is, data collection, identification, classification, analysis and explanation. Additionally, Atmaca used content analysis to analyse learner errors and interview data. Findings included error categorisation in 10 types with the highest frequency being the omission of prepositions and the least being gerund and possessive errors. More importantly, Atmaca (2016) found that interlingual errors accounted for most of the errors committed because his target group was low-level language learners and there was a tendency for them to transfer certain rules and structures from their native language into the TL or overgeneralise TL rules.

Both Mungungu (2010) and Atmaca (2016) agree on applying Error Analysis for analysing written text and quantified the errors to critically explain the types of errors

identified. However, Mungungu targeted ESL students rather than EFL in the case of Atmaca (2016) to Error Analysis. It was observed that the types of errors committed by EFL students appear to be more than those of ESL students. This revealed that the number of years of exposure to the English language may have a positive impact on the written outcome.

Amuseghan and Tunde-Awe (2016) examined written English language examination papers of 50 final year undergraduate students from the Department of Arts Education at the Adekunle Ajasin University, in Nigeria to identify the types of errors that still manifested in the written work of graduating students studying English. Quantitative analysis was done and the study showed that grammatical errors were common in the essays. Students had a relatively weak vocabulary and their expressions were somehow semantically deviant. Generally, it was found that participants had problems in learning and using correct grammatical rules in English. Amuseghan and Tunde-Awe recommended that the common trouble-spots in language learning could be counteracted by remedial teaching with the view that the problems identified will serve as a guide to the preparation of effective teaching materials. This study hammers the fact that when effective teaching materials are employed in teaching the English language, these kinds of errors could be minimised. The authors believe that early intervention in English learning may improve if effective teaching materials are utilised. This belief contradicts Mireku-Gyimah's (2014) study which sampled 716 questionnaires administered to final year students from the University of Mines and Technology, Ghana. She identified 216 faulty sentences and categorised them into 9 error types. Qualitative analysis concerning EA and quantitative analysis were employed. Her findings revealed that wrong register was the most occurring errors, followed by awkward expressions and ambiguity respectively. She named wrong adjective, adverb and pronoun use, wrong insertion and omission of articles as the least occurring errors. The author realised that despite interventions to correct the English language of students, final year undergraduate students still have some errors in their English language. Additionally, Mireku-Gyimah attributed the problems of final year students to several sources- carelessness, mother tongue interference, wrong

pronunciation, word-spelling, malapropism due to vocabulary problems, lack of awareness of their audience, preference for non-standard language use and inadequate motivation to speak and write good English.

Dewanti (2014) adopted Error Analysis in the investigation of errors in the writing of second-semester students on a Diploma Programme at the English Department of Airlangga University, Indonesia. Dewanti (2014) used 26 narratives from 26 students to identify the types of grammatical errors and the most dominant errors committed by the target group. This study adopted statistics to quantify errors based on verb-verb groups and noun-noun groups. The study discovered that students had difficulties in using verb-verb groups especially in the omission of suffix –s/-es/ -ed/ -ing. This may be due to a lack of knowledge of English language grammatical rules. The study also revealed that the errors regarding sentence-level consisted of squinting modifier, jumbled-up or illogical sentences, incomplete or fragmented sentences, run-on sentences, inappropriate coordinating conjunction and inappropriate subordinating conjunction usage. Dewanti (2014) concluded that students who learn English as a Foreign Language tend to make grammatical errors in their writing and this confirmed the observations made by earlier studies.

In many of the literature cited (Dewanti 2014; Amuseghan & Tunde-Awe 2016; Atmaca 2016), the inappropriate application of grammatical rules has been a common feature. This is in agreement with Mireku-Gyimah's (2014) findings that the errors may be attributed to many causes.

2.9 Error Analysis Studies in Ghana

The linguistic complexities in Ghana are fascinating. Ghana, a West African country, has over 60 local languages. However, all commercial signs and documents are printed in English. Also, most public and private education in Ghana is in the English language. This goes to show that the English language has indeed gained much popularity because of its linguistic imperialistic nature. The study of Error Analysis in

Ghana has been very extensive. These studies identify several errors ranging from grammar to structure in students' academic writing. For instance, Armah (2008) analysed some of the passable, albeit unacceptable, uses of the English language in academia and suggested conscious use of deviances. The study sought to draw attention to the probability that as learners or teachers climb the academic ladder, certain linguistic constructions could be unconsciously set in the minds and are often aberrations. The author analysed the scripts of some students in Ghana and commented on the common usage which many fail to see as deviant to bring out the accepted meaning of the words or phrases to stem the gradual decay of the English language in Ghana.

The study critically assessed the English language particularly in the Ghanaian context and concluded by stating that, there is the need to know what the fluent speakers' do with their language before we engage in linguistic adventure. This affirmed Akmajian *et al.*'s (2003) result which acknowledged the fact that fluent speakers know their language in the proper part of a description of that language and non-native speakers must acknowledge this truism. Armah's (2008) study pointed out many issues about 'Ghanaian English' and he was largely not concerned with the general semantics. The study did not adopt the use of measurements, statistical analysis and operational definitions that EA would do but gave insights to English usage in Ghana and expanded the reader's idea to the common phrases which appear to be unwelcomed in the Ghanaian community as far as linguistics is concerned.

Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994) suggested that despite the instruction at the primary and secondary levels, students at the university level are not able to express themselves in both written and oral communication. The authors compiled data from the 1990/91 and 1991/92 first-year students. The data were examination scripts of first-year students of the School of Administration and the Faculty of Law, University of Ghana. They utilised Error Analysis and notably stated that even among some of the best students in the university, there is deviant usage in their written English language. Students selected for these programmes are considered the very best as

they enter university with the best grades. They looked at various attitudes of scholars who are concerned about the Ghanaian situation. They analysed the errors compiled and examined the possible causes of the errors. As one of the recommendations of the researchers, it was stated that qualified teachers of the English Language be engaged to teach at the junior and senior high schools. This seems to suggest that there is a problem at that level. This goes to show that there is a need for effective teaching at that level. It was further suggested that the two hours a week for the two semesters allotted for the study of Language and Study Skills at the university, which has assumed different names in different schools, be appraised and the syllabus extended. The latter implied that they believed students needed academic support in the English language. Also, the existing intervention was not yielding the much-needed results; the course syllabus should be investigated to meet the very language needs of students, and the allocated time extended.

Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994), like Mireku-Gyimah (2014), identified the lack of adequate input and the economic system in Ghana to be directly linked to the poor use of the English language. Their findings indicated that there is a cause for concern over the poor and falling standard in the writing skills of students. As such, curriculum planning, implementation, monitoring and co-ordination of language learning must be intensified to make a greater impact. Such intervention is given to Level 100 students at the Wisconsin University College to assess the impact at Level 200 to investigate the impact of the products used and requirements needed to effectively and positively help the poor academic status concerning English language writing.

Admittedly, this positive intervention has not been shelved but taken seriously by other institutions like the Language Centre of the University of Ghana. Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994) proposed a more action-oriented approach which should include an attempt to describe and define the notion of standard and deviant forms. This is also because Ghanaian English has been developed away from native speakers. The authors are of the view that the problems are not insurmountable and could be arrested if early interventions are given at the lower level of education. This

intervention was embraced at the Wisconsin University College to investigate if this concerted action has indeed yielded concrete results.

Amoakohene (2017) focused on EA using first-year students from the University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ho, Ghana. He explored errors in a corpus of 50 essays of first-year students to find out the effectiveness of the Communicative Skills Programme (CSP) taught to students for two semesters. His findings were related to grammatical errors, mechanical errors and poor structuring of sentences. He observed that out of the 50 scripts analysed, 1,050 errors were found with a percentage of 55.6 being grammatical errors, 42.1% relating to mechanical errors and 2.3% being poor structuring of sentences. The author attributed his finding to many causes. His work agreed with Dako *et al.*'s (1997) research which added that the falling standards of English language are predominantly linked to Pidgin English used by students and this reflected in their writing at the university level. However, Mireku-Gyimah (2014) associated the problem with poor teaching and learning of the English language at the Junior and Senior High School level. Amoakohene (2017) iterated that most students at the tertiary level are not able to demonstrate a high level of flair and sophistication in most of their essays. The author observed that although students are exposed to academic intervention by going through the CSP, they still experience challenges in writing error-free text. Amoakohene (2017) provided insights to CSP lecturers about the problems to enable them to make informed decisions about the instruction materials and the teaching methods used which is in line with the recommendations of Amuseghan and Tunde-Awe (2016).

Additionally, Amoakohene (2017) stressed the argument for much time and space to be given to Academic and Communication Skills and the subject should not be taught or treated as an "auxiliary" course. This is in agreement with Mungungu (2010) who iterated that maximum exposure to the English Language could impact the frequency of errors in students' work. The study explored the competence level of first-year students after they have gone through the CSP for two semesters. This study follows the recommendation of authors like Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (2014) and also

directly in line with this current research with the target population similar to the present data utilised in this research. Amoakohene (2017) explored the different aspects of errors and Error Analysis methods by extending the scope of procedural analysis of errors by Ellis (1994). Intriguingly, the findings of Amoakohene (2017) revealed that students of the University of Health and Allied Sciences (UHAS) were not able to effectively apply the rules of usage of the English language and that might be because prominence was not given to the Academic and Communicative Skill Programme at UHAS. This affirmed Mireku-Gyimah's (2014) recommendations that the Communicative Skill Programme should be expanded beyond the first year to equip students with adequate competence in English for their academic and professional development.

A close look at Error Analysis in Ghana appears to focus on university students and also adopts the academic intervention approach by teaching Communication Skills to enhance the usage of the target language. Adjei (2015) takes a different approach by paying close attention to the blind spot of many researchers who targeted tertiary level students but agreed with Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata (1994) concerning the issue of engaging qualified teachers in English language teaching. Adjei (2015) focused her attention on analysing subordinating errors of students particularly in selected Colleges of Education in Ghana. The author's approach opened a new area of research because most teachers of the English language at the tertiary level appear to be products of the Colleges of Education in Ghana. Adjei (2015) explored the written scripts and tests responded to by 150 participants from three selected colleges. She employed a descriptive survey approach to investigate the errors in the use of subordination by targeting 2,631 Level 200 students of 7 Colleges of Education in the Ashanti-Region of Ghana. This was because the study focused on a random sampling technique in selecting the students with a total of 300 students having different criteria in different English language backgrounds. The study also adapted Corder's (1974) model of Error Analysis of identification of the corpus, classification and description. Lastly, the researcher evaluated the errors. The findings indicated that students did not understand the subject of subordination. Pedagogically, teachers are the trainers

of trainees and as such must be equipped with effective training resources for them to be proactive in helping find solutions to the trainee's problems.

Although most of the aforementioned literature focused on errors in the writing of learners either from the ESL or EFL context, this study looks at a mixture of errors in both EFL and ESL learners because of the target population, the university under study has an extensive number of international students from neighbouring countries who are generally EFL students. The assignments explored were geared towards general EA of students' work originating from both EFL and ESL countries. The reviewed literature within the context of Ghanaian Universities – Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata 1994; Armah 2005; Mireku-Gyimah 2014; Amoakohene 2017, appear to show that there is no significant difference between the errors detected in both ESL and EFL context. This current study highlights the complexity of the writing process in the English language in both ESL and EFL context. It is important to note that Error Analysis today has transformed into a systematic procedure used by both researchers and teachers to analyse samples of learner language. This means that Error Analysis plays a fundamental role in linguistics.

Wornyo (2018) analysed discourse strategies in the editorials of two different newspapers, the Daily Graphic Newspaper in Ghana and the New York Times of America, with the objective of discovering the differences and similarities that existed between the two editorial newspapers. He analysed five features of text by focusing on:

- the rhetorical strategies used in composing the editorials,
- the micro-genre variation between both papers,
- the thematic development, the rhetorical appeals preferred by the editorials from the different socio-cultural settings,
- and the use of attribution to find out how the paper disclosed the source of their information to enable readers to gain clarity of these sources.

Wornyo (2018) used Contrastive Rhetoric methodology by agreeing with Connor's (2004) suggestion of establishing equivalence or *Tertium Comparationis.* This meant that only comparable items or texts are studied. These texts were selected from the same genre but from two different sociocultural backgrounds. The study focused on ESL setting in Africa and Anglo-American English setting by selecting 40 editorials, 20 from an online version of the New York Times and 20 from the Daily Graphic newspaper, and from the same period (the first four months of 2016).

Wornyo's (2018) research was based on Contrastive Analysis which sought to compare L1 with the TL to find out the differences and similarities. He analysed the rhetorical structure of both newspaper editorial based on Halliday and Hassan 1976; Hoey 1983, and Van Dijk, 1992; 1993; 1995. Secondly, he identified micro-genres used by both editorials by categorising the exposition and media commentaries as well as the social functions of the papers. This identification was based on Martin & Peters (1985), Hoey (1983) and White (2002), which has been used by existing studies like Wang (2007) and Homayounzadeh and Mehrpour (2013).

Thirdly, he looked at the thematic development of both editorials. This is in line with Halliday's (1994) approach for formulating Theme-Structure. Fourthly, the researcher used Aristotle's rhetorical appeal as a persuasive tool used to analyse different kinds of texts to evaluate the rhetorical appeals adopted by both newspaper editorials. Finally, the author analysed the use of attribution in both papers by counting the frequency of the source of information provided. Wornyo (2018) disclosed that the two editorial papers from two different social and cultural backgrounds display differences in the social functions they seek to perform. The construction of their editorials appeared to be opposite. Whereas the Daily Graphic appeared to perform the social function which is appealing to the parties involved, the New York Times raised questions about certain actions taken by parties involved in the issue at hand and these differences explain why social and cultural environment affect how newspapers construct editorials.

In Summary, both newspapers appear to use the rhetorical strategy of initiating a topic to be discussed. However, the Daily Graphic showed a lack of a critical voice when compared to the New York Times which adopted arguments and counter-argument approach and criticisms. The review showed that traditional norms of communications with the African culture frown upon the exercise of critical voice against authority hence the reason why the Daily Graphic adopted hortatory position by appealing to state institutions to take actions on certain matters.

The findings in the study reveal that the discourse strategy in the African community, particularly Ghana, has pedagogical implications for the training of students. Apart from the five discourse features recognised by the author, he recommended extensive research be done on features like coherence, cohesion and paragraph structure which is in relation to some of the writing problems identified by Adika (1999; 2003) in university students' writing. Adika's findings included weak handling of information relationships, lack of cohesion, breakdown in communication in portions of the text; weak thematic progression and undeveloped theme.

Agor (2003) investigated superficial and underlying causes of concord errors made by some final year students in the Faculty of Arts of the University of Ghana. He administered two tests to one hundred of Level 400 students reading Linguistics, English, Theatre Arts, French, Economics, Political Science, Psychology, Philosophy, Archaeology, and Information Studies. In the first test, students were to choose the appropriate form of two sets of verbs given in twenty sentence and they were to briefly explain their choice. In the second test, students were given a five-sentence paragraph with five gaps to use the most appropriate form of the verb 'be' to complete. Infelicitously, the students performed poorly in both tests. The students ingenuously gave unacceptable reasons for their inaccurate choice of answers. In sum, the

researcher pointed to the fact that the students' pre-university education did not give them adequate explicit instruction in the grammar of English. The author suggested the teaching of English at the various levels of education in Ghana be properly investigated to ascertain the actual problems of the teaching and learning process for an appropriate intervention to be given to improve the standards of English Language of the students.

Additionally, Agor (2010) speculated in another study that there are inadequacies in the degree of English language usage among many Ghanaian university graduates. He was convinced that the task involved when addressing the English language issue should go beyond situation recognition and acknowledgement. He reviewed extensive literature with regard to the level of proficiency in English language among students of the University of Ghana. The author bemoaned the level of usage of English language by students and suggested adequate explicit instruction in grammar be made mandatory. The author believed that based on his observation and assessment, the issues raised against CA were only valid merely on the superficial level of investigation. He cited many errors in this relation. For example, a Ghanaian learner of English 'I'm coming' instead of 'just a moment' or 'see my face tomorrow' instead of 'expect me tomorrow'. This is related to the issue of language loyalty as will be speculated by the error analyst. These kinds of expressions, he explained, were used because of language loyalty, which refers to a situation where the L2 learner remain so loyal to his L1 to an extent that he is irresistibly forced to transport the element of his L1 into the TL. The author presented analyses of responses obtained from final year students' test from four different public universities in Ghana. A short test was administered to confirm potential English language writing problem areas of tertiary students in Ghana. In his analytical procedure, the author rated the students' explicit knowledge and editing skills relating to grammatical, syntactic and semantic rules applicable to each test item. The author achieved this by dividing the test into two parts to test two things. Firstly, the analysis stated whether the sentence is correct or incorrect and secondly, rewriting the sentences and correcting all errors detected.

In a similar study, Agor (2018) iterated that to be able to make an informed comparison of undergraduate students' level of competence in English. It would be imperative to monitor continuously and keep records of their use of aspects of language to gather substantial data for such exercise. The author extracted sentences that contained intra-sentence deviation of 500 undergraduate essays. The study sought to find intra-sentence deviations of many types that undergraduate students may not notice in their writing. The author stated examples like dislocated constructions in the essays categorised, lack of the use of direct and indirect speech, lack of knowledge of concord rules and students' inability to put this knowledge into practice.

Although Agor's (2003; 2010; 2018) studies focused on public institutions like many other researchers, unlike this current research, and also speculated the low level of English language usage amongst university students, the author agrees with the fact that pedagogical intervention associated with English language teaching can assist learners in achieving high proficiency levels in the target language at all levels of education in ESL communities in Ghana. This seems to confirm Odamtten, Denkabe and Tsikata's (1994) idea that if instruction at the primary and secondary levels has been effective, students would have a good enough grasp of the English language and be able to effectively communicate.

Another investigation of Error Analysis into the level of knowledge of the grammar of the English language among potential graduates of the Departments of English in two public Ghanaian universities by Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997) revealed that students were not adequately aware of grammatical and idiomatically correct structures. The authors administered questionnaires with three sections. The first was to identify parts of speech and structural units; the second, to define the parts of speech and structural units and the third, to identify the usage of the language. The

questionnaires were administered to 182 students from both universities. They noted that the expression, structure, spelling and punctuation in the students' writing were inadequate and anomalous which was documented in Hyde (1991) and Eglewogbe (1992) who analysed the manifestation of the decline in the English Language at the fertility level of the education system. Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997) revealed that teaching basic language concepts is inadequately handled in secondary schools. Also, they hammered on the fact good teaching does not make a difference based on the individual responses. The actual problem may lie with the students and all other factors involved rather than factors such as language teaching, learning process or school events. This research may disagree with Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997) because it is based on the assumption that the training of teachers and the extent to which these same teachers are familiar with basic principles of grammar may be an important contributory factor to the decline of English in Ghanaian schools (Gyasi 1990; Hudson 1993).

The aspect of discourse was seen in the contribution of Adika (1999) who focused on the discourse level problem of expository text of first-year students of the University of Ghana. He identified five main areas of discourse infelicities related to the weak handling of information relationships at the sentence level and across paragraphs which results in a lack of cohesion and thus miscommunication. The 'discourse infelicities' identified were in the area of introduction (simply defining key terms without integrating the definitions with the focus of the question given), weak thematic progression and undeveloped rheme, anaphoric references (ambiguous co-reference and excessive use of the pronoun 'this'), wrong conjunctive relations and advance labelling. The study did not only demonstrate the nature of the discourse level writing problems of first-year students of the University of Ghana but took the analysis of student writing from sentence-level concerns forward into the domain of the discourse. First-year in the life of the undergraduate student represents a critical interface between the pre-university level and the undergraduate level therefore it is necessary to investigate the nature of their writing problems at this level so that appropriate

intervention measures can be devised to help students write better as they progress academically.

Undeniably, all the research conducted at the university level in Ghana has revealed that students do not have adequate linguistic abilities to pursue university education. It is against the background of these researches and observations that the introduction of academic support in the form of language teaching to prepare students for academic discourse emerged. This intervention has assumed different names such as Communication or Communicative Skills, Academic Writing, English, English for Academic Purposes, English for Communication Purposes, English for General Academic Purposes and English for Specific Academic Purposes in different universities in Ghana and beyond for first-year students (Afful 2007; Mulaudzi 2013; Adjei 2015). In summary, academic support encompasses a broad array of educational strategies including tutoring sessions and supplementary courses. It may also be provided to individual students, specific students' populations such non-English speakers, or all students in a school (Peterson, O'Connor & Strawhun 2014). This introduction of academic support in Ghana was necessitated by the fact that English plays a very important role in the country's university education in that it is the medium of instruction and also all assignments and projects are in written forms.

To recapture, errors are unavoidable in the acquisition of a second language. However, Al-khresheh (2016) expounds that errors in a language could be meaningful ways of enhancing accuracy and proficiency. Deviant usage of English language has been identified as one of the many aspects of errors in SLA (Al-khresheh 2016). This implies that errors can be explained and analysed using EA. The Error Analysis theory is further explored in this section.

Error Analysis was propounded by Corder in the 1960s as a backlash to Contrastive Analysis (CA), which was an earlier Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory. CA

had a prognostic value i.e. it sought only to predict the errors, difficulties and problems faced by learners while learning a second language. The Error Analysis tool, however, compares the errors made by the learners in the target language and within the target language itself. Corder (1967) points out that, errors are in two folds: the theoretical type and the applied type. The theoretical type, he stated, deals with understanding what and how learners learn a second language. The applied type, he explained, focuses on enabling learners to learn more effectively through the use of the knowledge of their language for pedagogical purposes.

Myles (2002 p.10) argues that "depending on proficiency level, the more content-rich and creative the text, the greater the possibility there is for errors at the morphosyntactic level". These kinds of errors are peculiar to L2 learners whose language skills have not been mastered adequately to express themselves comprehensibly. To understand the process of L2 learning, the errors a learner makes in the process of constructing a new system of language is analysed carefully. This area of investigation in Second Language Acquisition research, especially in English as a Second Language (ESL) research, led to the theory of Error Analysis (EA). Additionally, Suryani and Hidayatullah (2017) drew a conclusion that so long as learners make commit errors and these errors can be identified, analysed and classified to reveal the system operating within the learner is what led to the study of learners' errors referred to as Error Analysis.

EA has been defined by some scholars, including Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) and Corder (1981), as the method to analyse errors made by English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) learners when they learn the English Language. On the significance of errors, these researchers aver that errors do not just reveal the strategies used by learners to learn a language, but they also assist teachers as well as researchers to know the difficulties learners encounter to improve learners' language. James (1998) also defines Error Analysis as the analysis of learners' errors by comparing what the learners have learned with what they lack. He further explained that EA deals with explaining the errors to accurately

reduce them. On his part, Crystal (1999) described EA as the study of language learners' language forms that deviate from those of the target language.

Just like Dulay *et al.* (1982), Corder (1987) espouses that errors play a significant role in the learning process in three different ways. First, errors tell the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed, and, consequently, what remains for the learner to learn. Second, errors provide the researcher with evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner employs in his/her discovery of the language. Third, errors are indispensable to the learner because making of errors could be regarded as a device the learner uses in order to learn. Systematically analysing errors made by language learners, therefore, makes it possible to determine areas that need reinforcement during teaching and learning.

2.10 Chapter Summary

Chapter 2 adopted a critical review approach to review literature surrounding Error Analysis, particularly in Ghana. The reviews of the studies focused on Error Analysis in the tertiary education level by looking at the various interdisciplinary variations of written text and the mode of discourse and the linguistic features (methods) that have been investigated.

As a branch of applied linguistics, Error Analysis is concerned with the compilation, study and analysis of L2 learner errors with a focus on investigation aspects of SLA. According to James (1998), Error Analysis is known to be the concept of interlanguage and it compares learner's data with the target language norm, identifies and explains errors. EA was a way of sharing SLA in the early 1960s.

Corder (1967) in his seminal paper "The significance of learner errors", drifted researchers' attention from the teaching perspective to the learning perspective and therefore shifted away from Contrastive analysis, behaviourism and structuralism

towards cognitive psychology which seems to have worked together with the turn towards Communicative approach in language teaching. Corder (1967) in his research used the term ‘transitional competence’ which has since been accepted and widely used in:

i. interlanguage (Selinker 1972),

ii. the learner’s individual, a dynamic approximation of the target language.

In Error Analysis, language learning is known to be influenced by learners L1, their interlanguage and the target language. These three language systems appear to influence learner errors. However, the gap between the interlanguage and the target language is an area of interest to researchers and considered as the most important factor of the three. Corder (1967) posits that learners commit errors because of their learning strategies adopted to discover the target language. Opponents argue that Error Analysis in the late 1970s turned out to be deficient as a research tool because inductive error analyses were carried out in order to arrive at generalisations about errors. Researchers in the late 1970s only applied EA as a mere contributor to SLA theory and research. Although Error Analysis changed behaviourists perspective on language acquisition and learner errors were no longer regarded as “signs of inhibition” according to Corder (1967) but regarded as useful evidence of language acquisition. Learner errors gave researchers insights into strategies of learning a TL and natural aspects of SLA. Error analysis contributed immensely to comprehensive knowledge about processes of SLA and the results of EA were intended to be used to revise theories of language learning and to improve language teaching.

Secondly, Error Analysis widened the perspective on possible causes of errors because researchers found out that the NL or L1 was not the only (and not the most important) factor that led to errors. It prompted researchers to dive deeper into finding that errors were common and typical of different target languages and researchers

were curiously in search of reasons why those errors were made. These errors which were classed performance errors resulted from mistakes or lapses and are not determined by a learner's interlanguage but rather by situational factors such as tiredness. True errors were connected to the state of interlanguage or learner's competence. Interlingual errors resulted from the interference of the MT or NL and that was differentiated from intralingual errors which occurred when target language rule was applied to areas where it was not applicable.

Corder's (1967) extensive research also pointed out that covert errors were errors that resulted from the utterance which was seemingly correct but does not mean what the speaker or writer intended it to mean. In the mid to late 1970s, error analysis contributed immensely to interlanguage hypothesis but criticised for many practical problems. Firstly, EA was seen to gather knowledge of language learning processes by examining the output of the learner but proved to be difficult to determine whether there was an error at all and what constituted the error. EA could not identify the distinction between error and mistakes. Secondly, there was more than one way for error classification and thirdly, errors causes were not easily identifiable and there were multiple causes of errors e.g. communication strategies, external factors, personal factors, etc. Since EA dwelt on the learner's output as the only source of evidence used, the proposed or found causes of errors were unreliable. Additionally, error taxonomies confused description with explanation and that offered little help to the learner (Johnson & Johnson 1998).

Critics argued that EA offered a simplistic approach towards SLA and only looked at incorrect output and ignored the correct output as well as other aspects of the learning process. This meant that EA ignored the important sources of information that could have been used to describe the SLA process. Thus correct output was not an indication that the learner has learned something because learner's language production varied in many other ways. According to James (1998) universal errors

which resulted from errors made by a learner irrespective of the first language might in fact be interference errors.

The next chapter describes the methods adopted for this study. The chapter widens readers' understanding of methods for both qualitative and quantitative analysis in research.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

3.1 Introduction

This study utilised both quantitative and qualitative research method. There were aspects of the study that required a quantitative dimension and a qualitative focus. Therefore, the study employed both methods, also known as mixed methodology but lay more emphasis on the qualitative approach to Error Analysis. The qualitative approach to the study focused on the textual description of the errors identified in the data collected while the quantitative approach specified numerical assignment to the error types identified (such as frequency of errors). The advantage of the qualitative approach was to steer the study towards linguistic processes of EA and to provide a richer and an in-depth understanding of student errors particularly in the university under study although the sample size remains small, non-random and may not generalise to the larger population of tertiary students in Ghana. Furthermore, participants may also not be similar to every second-year student in other tertiary institutions learning English Language. Errors identified may have a numerical analysis or function which can equally be descriptive and can be used to generalise concepts more widely and predict future results. Here, errors can be classified, counted and have statistical models attached to them. Counted errors may be subjected to statistical treatments to obtain relevant results concerning error frequency.

In the following sections, the study explains the different type of research design and also discusses the two methods used to broaden the reader's perspective on both approaches. This chapter focuses on the design of the study, type of data, participants, data elicitation and instruments used, the acquisition criteria and the data analysis procedure. In the next paragraphs, the design, methods and all the approaches used are examined.

3.2 Design of Research

A case study design was used for this particular research. This research design fits into this study because of its usefulness in testing the theories and models that apply to the phenomena or issues raised in the corpus of EA. Under this design, a mixed methodology was used to investigate the research problem. The main benefit of this design is to strengthen an existing design like Mireku-Gyimah (2014) in the area of Error analysis and to facilitate deeper, more meaningful learning regarding the effectiveness and implementation of EA models.

Mixed methods attempt to bridge the qualitative-quantitative divide by simply integrating the aspects of approaches. This is done to create combined results. The method chosen follows a pragmatic doctrine the puts the research questions above epistemological or methodological considerations. The mixed-method applied in this study validates the findings using quantitative and qualitative data sources. Thus the data was assessed using parallel constructs. In other words, data was judged by its relevance rather than its form. Qualitative and quantitative methods do have their specific strengths and weaknesses. However, combining both methods create a benefit that is more than the sum of its parts. Mixed methods enable researchers to gain an insight into an extraordinary case and compare results of this specific case to a more general picture thus, making mixed-methods arrive at a fuller, more complex picture, instead of merely validating results.

Qualitative data were transformed into sets of quantitative scores for quantitative analysis to be performed and jointly displaying both forms of data. In this study, error frequencies were explored further with error categories to better understand how student errors and help design interventions for teaching the English language. The integration of quantitative and qualitative data in the form of mixed methods study offered great potential to strengthen the rigour and enrich the analysis and findings of this study. Moreover, the mixed methods were useful in providing the contradictions

between quantitative and qualitative results because both methods provided flexibility which was adaptable to the case study design approach chosen. Thus, both methods integrated quantitative data (number and frequency of errors) with qualitative (types and description of errors) to provide a complete package of Error Analysis than either method would alone.

3.2.1 Qualitative Approach

The study in a qualitative perspective seeks to gain insights into the meanings and functions of events. In this part of the study, learner errors were collected and analysed in a more descriptive sense for an in-depth understanding of the Error Analysis theory and whether the theory and teaching materials used need specific interventions as well as L2 learners' teaching methods. Furthermore, the study is more naturalistic because students were allowed to write a short essay on a given topic and this was non-manipulative and non-controlling. This method of data collection offered a lack of predetermined constraints on findings. The method was purposeful in the sense that students or participants used for this study were 'informative rich' and illuminative. This gave a precise and useful manifestation of the errors. Thus the qualitative approach was characterised by empathic neutrality with the view to seek vicarious understanding without judgement. In this respect, the data collection was done in a rather sensitive way to reveal openness in the data. The goal of this qualitative research method is to determine L2 learner errors, categorise the errors and employ statistics to quantify certain aspects of the errors committed and find or design proper interventions for teaching the English language at the university under study. The qualitative approach of this research does present a realistic picture of student errors that cannot be experienced in quantitative or numerical data and statistical analysis. The results of the essays provide a holistic view of the errors under investigation and this is helpful in pioneering new ways of understanding. Qualitative research methods are often limited in terms of the sample size which may undermine the opportunities to draw useful generalisation or broad recommendation based on Error Analysis and interventions; the method is embedded in the cultures and experiences of students.

The study ensured that bias is minimised in the way data were gathered, interpreted and reported.

This study employed qualitative research mainly for Error Analysis and the purpose of research question 3 (To what extent do sentence-level errors affect discourse-level issues in the writing of Level 200 students of the selected university?) promoted the need for discourse analysis as well. The quantitative twist which offered statistical character to the errors identified in terms of frequency of occurrence was directed towards answering the first and second research questions. Emphases are drawn on particular errors that occur mostly to steer teaching materials to be designed towards a more focused manner.

Qualitative research may lack the ability to explain the differences in the quality and quantity of information obtained from different students thus the need for a quantitative interpretation for the count of errors. Care was taken not to drift into quantitative research but to follow the methods applied in Error Analysis in the qualitative sense for the collection and description of errors. The quantitative perspective which was added to this study was purposely to obtain error frequencies and to promote and assist in the design of teaching materials for both ESL and EFL students studying the English language at a Ghanaian university. Although the study sought to add on a quantitative research approach as another probing technique, the approach addresses the weak point of qualitative data which cannot be randomised into manageable parts for analysis. Generally, the qualitative method analyses data for meaning and themes. The next section explains the motive behind the quantitative approach also used in this study.

3.2.2 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative research methodology of this study as mentioned earlier assigns numerical values to the errors identified and classified and randomises them into manageable parts in order to drive learning materials and syllabus design into a focused and productive path. Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009 p.171) explain that "increased popularity and acceptance of qualitative methods in the social sciences in the past years is to some extent the result of the reaction against quantitative research" According to Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009), qualitative research methodology is the phoenix that seems to have arisen from the ashes of quantitative research assumption which is based on a worldwide view known as positivism. A positivist approach adopts some assumptions of truth and reality.

Quantitative social science research abandoned and questioned the positivist assumptions because of advancement in research as well as a post-positive and post-modern world. Post-positive research combines the qualitative aspects or methods and adds on more contemporary quantitative methods. Whereas a positivist may assume that the researcher is an objective observer and reporter of the data, a post-positivist (post-modernist) views the researcher as subjective and thus all perception is biased by gender, race, ethnicity, culture, nationality, religion, family, personality, and attitude (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009).

There should be a varied interpretation of data. Whereas a researcher may correct errors in the grammar of students' essays, a linguist can give a psycholinguistic interpretation of the same essays. This means that one person's perspective (researcher or linguist) is neither right nor wrong; it is just different. In this context, it is better to extrapolate this concept to this research. According to Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009), the act of observation can cause a change in the actions of who or what is studied.

In this section of the study, the qualitative research methodology views errors in the form of aggregate data (frequencies, mean, etc.).The goal of this study is to problem-solve a situation and not only provide esoteric academic work. One of the main objectives which may have been mentioned many times in this study is to ensure that the errors identified, classified and explained go to the betterment of the syllabus used to teach the English language to the students in the university under study.

It can be argued that the study was conducted with an in-built triangulation design in mind to establish the validity and reliability of the data. This gave the study different but complementary data on the same topic to best understand the research problem (Morse, 1991). This design brings together the differing strengths and nonoverlapping weakness of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods (Patton, 1990). In this view, qualitative and quantitative approaches report descriptive statistics for particular themes or patterns discovered in the student essays. This mix of methodologies provided the richest and most complete understanding of errors and makes perfect sense in a field with many formalised methods. The nature of the second research question called for the integration of a quantitative method. Both methods (qualitative and quantitative) served as a guiding compass to direct the inquiries towards what the researcher wanted to know. The non-random but purposeful sampling of the participants was designed to represent both ESL and EFL students in Second Year to present a range of perspectives or information on Error Analysis.

Secondly, the development of a qualitative instrument was important to help the categorisation of error detected. A Consensual Qualitative Research (CQR) was introduced at this stage of the research which employed a team approach to data analysis. This team worked individually to place words, phrases or sentences into categories. The categories were reviewed to categorise the contents. A final consensus was reached to develop a final list of fully defined error categories which

were used to analyse data collected. Redundancies in categories were eliminated following a consensus among all the codes.

The methods chosen for this study are reliable and appropriate to the objectives. Overall, the pragmatic look of the methods combines well with the strategies that many social science researchers use. It is very illuminating to think less of the methods, tools and data but pragmatically about the research question. This is because research questions should drive the methodology adopted, not the other way around. The following sections introduce the reader to the type of data used for this research, the participants and the research tools used to capture the data.

3.2.3 Research Participants

The participants chosen for this study were Second Year (Year 2/Level 200) students from the Business, Communication, and Humanities and Social Sciences Departments of Wisconsin International University College (WIUC), Ghana. It is important to note that the participants are of both ESL and EFL backgrounds. All participants had also had earlier interventions in English I (Grammar) and English II (Academic Writing) in semesters One and Two of the First Year (Year 1/Level 100) respectively.

3.2.4 Study Site

The site for the study was Wisconsin International University College, Ghana (WIUC). It was established in January 2000 as one of the earliest established private universities in Ghana. It is located at Agbogba, a suburb of Accra, in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. It has become the most preferred choice of a private university in Accra because of its location and the evening and weekend programmes it runs. Accra, being the capital of Ghana, has most of the job openings in the country situated here hence it contains a large percentage of the nation's workforce. These

programmes are flexible for workers who want the advancement of their education to easily enrol to do so. Wisconsin International University is accredited by the National Accreditation Board as a university college and it is affiliated with four major public universities in Ghana. These universities are: the University of Ghana, University of Science and Technology, University of Cape Coast and the University of Development Studies.

The university under study runs Certificate, Diploma, Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Master of Arts, Master of Science, and Master of Business Administration programmes. These programmes include Nursing and its affiliate courses, Law, Business Administration and its affiliate courses, Communication Studies, Information Technology, Rural Development, and many more. As of the 2017/2018 academic year, the University had a total student population of approximately 2,874. In the Second Year (Level 200), there were 667 students in the first semester group and 538 students in the second semester group totalling 1,205 students. There are two groups of students within each year group because there are two admissions into the first year, September and January admissions. The September admissions which constitute the first-semester group is referred to as the Lower group. When this group gets to its second semester, it is subsequently called the Upper group and the students admitted in January then become the Lower group. This second group is taken through a summer programme to complete the second semester of Year 1 by the end of August of each year. This means in September, both the Lower and Upper classes proceed to the Second Year (Level 200).

3.2.5 Data Elicitation and Instrument

Researchers according to Al-Khresheh (2016) are different from each other in their choice of data collection methods. Qualitative research methods are often conducted with small data sets. Data chosen for this research may not be representative of a wider tertiary student population in Ghana but were well-defined and were influenced by a group of important factors such as language medium, language genre, language content, learner level, learner's mother tongue, and language learning experience.

Ellis (1994, p.49) asserted that these factors were significant when "collecting a well-defined sample of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produced and under what conditions". It was important to adhere to the theories of Ellis at this stage to establish reliability with collected data and to examine contemporary real life situations. Essays that capture direct questions in sentences (Textual data) were collected and that provided the basis of the collated errors used as data sets for the study. The data collection process was guided by the degree of fidelity and the degree of structure.

The response in the form of written texts was collected, marked and with a discourse analysis approach, the data were put into themes or core categories (Strauss & Corbin 1990). By so doing, the researcher was able to look for words and phrases that met the criteria of the frequency of errors across essays, dominance in emphasis and repetition of errors within essays. The study harnessed a discourse analytic perspective with a focus on analysing texts in the student essays. Participants were asked an opinion question (Discuss the role of the English language in tertiary education). The opinion question asked was carefully framed to allow participants to express themselves in diverse ways to ensure enough sentential information and to capture error types.

3.2.6 Data Analysis Procedure

The theoretical perspectives from Corder on Error Analysis offered a platform for analysing learner errors from the collected data. The written material (primary sourced data) offered the best record of errors and mistakes. It must be noted that the errors committed by the language learner could be grouped under two headings, receptive and expressive. Receptive errors were not noticeable whereas expressive errors were always obvious. Expression is either spoken or written. Spoken or spontaneous expression did not make for an easy study of error thus written or controlled expression was preferable for this study of Error Analysis. Data collected were

analysed using Corder (1981), Ellis (1994) and Al-Khresheh's (2016) model of Error Analysis made up of:

- *Error Identification*

At this stage, mistakes were distinguished from errors. To identify whether or not a deviant usage was an error, the principle of consistency usage was applied (Al-Khresheh 2013). This principle explained that whereas occasional wrong usage of a language was deemed a mistake, the consistent wrong usage of a language was termed an error. A deviant usage is a mistake when it can be self-corrected successfully (Al-Khresheh 2016). Conversely, an error required critical intervention for its correction. This approach was applied to identifying those sets of deviant usage that were mistakes and errors. Corder (1973 p.49f) posited that the analysis of collected data involves two stages: The first technical process of describing the linguistic nature of errors involved the detection and identification of these errors.

The second step in the identification process involved an interpretation of what the learner intended to communicate. This gave the researcher an idea to reconstruct the learner sentence in the target language. The interpretation process exists in two major forms, namely; authoritative and plausible. Ahmed (2013) explains that authoritative interpretation involves the prompting of the learner to express themselves in the mother tongue and then reconstruct his/her statement in the target language. This is an authoritative reconstruction.

However, this study took the form of plausible interpretation because participants were absent and therefore it was best to infer what they intended to construct. This process can also be known as plausible reconstruction. If the learner's utterance is ambiguous, that is more than one possible plausible interpretation is available, then Corder suggests that such examples can be put aside. However, other researchers,

Keshavarz (2012 p.85) amongst them, suggest relating such an example to the learner's mother tongue, if possible.

- *Error Classification*

Linguistic based classification of errors according to Keshavarz, (2012 pp.90-106) exists in four different major categories:

a. Orthographic errors
    - Sound/letter mismatch
    - Same spelling but different pronunciation
    - Similar pronunciation but different spelling
    - Ignorance of the spelling rules

b. Phonological errors
    - Lack of certainL2 phonemes in the learners' L1
    - Differences in syllable structure in L1 and L2
    - Spelling pronunciation of words
    - The pattern of silent letters

c. Lexico-semantic errors

    These types of errors are related to the semantic properties of lexical items. For example, 'Ghana is my mother country'.

d. Morphological-syntactic errors
    - Wrong use of plural morpheme
    - Wrong use of tenses
    - Wrong word order

- Wrong use of prepositions
- Errors in the use of articles

Process-based classification of errors depicts the processes through which language learners make errors. There are four main processes, according to Brown (2000 pp. 288-290). This involves:

a. Omission: This refers to the non-inclusion of required linguistic elements.
b. Addition: This involves the redundant use of certain elements in a sentence.
c. Substitution: This is the replacement of incorrect elements in a sentence with the correct ones.
d. Permutation: This refers to incorrect word order.

- *Error Description*

Once the errors were identified, they were described in their form and context. The description used primarily Corder's (1973) four main categorisation namely; omission, selection, addition, or misordering of some elements. Omission description focused on the required item that the learner leaves out in the language construction (Ellis, 1997). Omission description was conducted to ascertain whether or not the deviance was a mistake or an error. Selection examined the choice of an incorrect language item. In terms of addiction, the focus was on whether or not the learner added elements that were not required or were unnecessary in the language environment. To ascertain misordering, the focus was on how language items were misplaced in the language environment.

- *Error Explanation*

The error explanation stage was the principal aim of EA. To successfully carry out error explanations, two approaches were used. First, the focus was the error triggers and that implied determining the sources of the errors to understand why they were occasioned (Sanal 2007). Second, the errors were classified as either errors of performance or errors of competence (Ellis 1994). Whilst errors of competence were occasioned when the rules of the TL were wrongly applied, those of performance arose following repeated mistakes in usage. The error explanation was conducted within the broader framework of the two main linguistic factors that underlie English Language teaching (Abi Samra 2003).

According to Richards (1971a), Corder's classification distinguished three types of errors concerning their sources. However, there is a general agreement over the main diagnosis-bases categories of error. These categories were mentioned in Chapter 2 of this study. There are:

a. Interlingual errors which are based on learning strategies:
    - the transfer of phonological elements of L1
    - transfer of morphological elements of L1
    - transfer of grammatical elements of L1
    - transfer of lexico-semantic elements of L1.

b. Intralingual and developmental errors which involve:
    - overgeneralisation,
    - ignorance of rule restriction,
    - false analogy: Learner wrongly assumes that new item B behaves like A, e.g. if girl = girls then child = childs.
    - Hyperextension,
    - hypercorrection and
    - faulty categorisation.

c. As mentioned by Selinker (1972), there were also errors which were caused by faulty teaching techniques. Selinker called this the transfer of training.

d. Communication strategies involved: As iterated in chapter 2, Corder (1981 p.103) posited that learners tend to employ a systematic technique when faced with difficulty. These technique can were classified by Ahmed (2013) as "message adjustment" and "resource expansion" strategies. The former signifies the negative attitude on the part of the learner towards the communication task and the latter signifies the learners' willingness to actively participate in the communication task. Corder describes the former as 'risk-avoiding' strategies and the latter as 'risk-taking' strategies.

- *Error Evaluation*

A review of many studies involving Error Analysis utilized certain evaluation methods that could not be omitted in this study. However, many of the studies focused on final year students. The subject for this study was student essays and a short paragraph presented by students. Emphasis on essay evaluation was inextricable in the analysis of texts in Level 200 students. This was because the focus was related to the writing performance of students in the three schools selected from the study site. According to Sattayatham and Honsa (2007) and Sarfraz (2011), Error Analysis affected the examiners' evaluation of the overall quality of essays. An effective error evaluation method must follow the steps discussed in this section.

According to Corder (1981 p.29) Error Analysis using essays can be termed as the Clinical Elicitation method (CE). He stated that, "The CE requires the learner to produce any volumetric data orally or in writing, while experimental methods use special tools to elicit data containing specific linguistic items".

From a quantitative perspective, the errors made by Level 200 students were classified by a strategy taxonomy process introduced by examiners. This enabled the quantification of the qualitative data presented. Rigorous statistics such as the Frequency of occurrence for each error type, percentages of categorised errors, and degree of dominance of the proportion of errors were applied to the quantitative data to present answers to the research questions. The qualitative results corroborated some of the results of the analysis presented quantitatively for sentence-level errors. A logical organisation, clarity of expression and effective use of language, statistical interpretation constructively answered some of the research questions and enabled specific interventions such as effective teaching strategies and other methods on how to enhance students' vocabulary.

3.2.7 Data Analysis Tools

- Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)

Errors detected were identified and categorised into groups. SPSS aided the researcher to present measures of errors that made a quantitative construct. The measures were investigated to establish their truthfulness as well as their consistency. This presented reliable research feedback that positively impacted the English Language teaching syllabus at the university under study. SPSS offered a platform for the categorised errors which underwent rigorous statistics. The package was designed for social science statistics operations (Green & Salkind 2005). Under SPSS, communication expectations were interpreted visually using graphs and other forms of mathematical representation. Also, SPSS presented features such as percentiles, frequencies and other quantitative descriptions.

3.3 Research Considerations

A number of considerations were taken into account to promote the aims of this study and to support the values for collaborative work.

3.3.1 Ethical considerations

Research must, at all times, be guided by ethics so as not to expose the study participants to danger and abuse, and or violate their rights (Neuman 2007). To avoid these, the following ethics related practices were observed.

- Ethical clearance was sought from the Research and Innovation Directorate of the University of Venda, South Africa, before the study commenced.
- Permission was sought from Wisconsin International University College, Ghana, in order to meet the rights to free consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity and informed consent.
- Each participant was required to indicate their voluntary participation in the study by signing a detailed consent form which, among other things, indicated that their participation was voluntary.
- Participants were not exposed to any danger, their identities were protected and their responses were used strictly for academic purposes (Kumar 2012).
- Appropriate methods of data collection, analyses and reporting were applied to avoid any form of intellectual dishonesty.
- Literature that was used in the study was also duly acknowledged.

3.3.2 Validity and Reliability

Validity relates to the effectiveness that was demonstrated in achieving the intended objectives, whereas reliability referred to the examination of the consistency of the study results (Gerrish & Lacey 2013). To achieve validity and the reliability for the study, there was a pilot study on selected students where all identified areas of lapses and ambiguities were corrected to improve the study instruments. The hindrances that arose were also examined (Gerrish & Lacey 2013).

3.3.3 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The recruitment of the study participants was guided by inclusion and exclusion criteria (Neuman 2007). Participants were the second-year undergraduate students in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, School of Communication Studies and School of Business Studies of Wisconsin International University College, Ghana. Furthermore, participants were studying the English language as a required course. Besides, participants were willing and available to participate in the study voluntarily. Issues of gender, age, nationality and race were not the inclusion criteria. However, first, third and final year students were excluded from the study. These year groups were excluded because the intervention was given at Level 100 and the focus of the study remained on second-year students to investigate the impact of the intervention given at Level 100 on their academic literacy.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter demonstrated the elements of the methods used to tackle the research as logically as possible. It focussed on the data elicitation, participants, tools used to analyse the data obtained from the participants and organised chronologically to answer two main questions:

I. How data for the research were collected and
II. How data was analysed

Although many social science types of research adopt the use of qualitative research methodology, the nature of this study called for a mixed-method approach to create new paths for analysis about the research problem. The procedures used to collect data were reasonable which allowed participants to give a range of answers which were appropriate and tuned to the objectives of the research. Theories used to characterise the research were taken from researchers like Corder (1981), Ellis (1994), and Al-Khresheh (2016). These theories were separated from this study's

methods so that they do not play a disproportionate role in shaping the outcomes the research methods produced.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

The findings of the research undertaken are presented in this section of the paper. To present the results academically and concisely, it is important to draw readers' attention to the research question or problems that underpin the purpose of this study. This study was guided by the following research questions:

a. What are the types of errors found in the writing of Level 200 students of the university under study?
b. How often do these errors occur in the writing of Level 200 students of the university under study?
c. To what extent do sentence level errors affect discourse level issues in the writing of students of the university under study?
d. How effective is the intervention given to Level 100 students of the university under study?

To recapture, the study used two research methods known as a mixed methodology. In this section, it is important to highlight each research method categorically in order to enhance the readers' understanding of how the research questions were tackled in an order that followed the mixed method chosen. Under the qualitative method, errors were coded into sixteen different forms namely:

(a) Addition; which was sub-categorised into addition of

(i) Article (ii) Preposition (iii) Punctuation (iv) Conjunction.

(b) Omission, which is the next category or errors. Omission consisted of

(i) Article (ii) Pronoun (iii) Punctuation (iv) Conjunction.

Other major error categories included:

(c) Wrong capitalisation:

(d) Wrong choice of words

(e) Wrong choice of Concord

(f) Wrong Expression

(g) Wrong transition/conjunction

(h) Faulty parallelism

(i) Fragment

(j) Plurality

(k) Wrong preposition

(l) Wrong punctuation

(m) Wrong spelling

(n) Wrong tense

(o) Wrong article

(p) Wrong pronoun

These categorisations were done based on the academic curriculum and major topics that are taught in Year 1 (Level 100) in the university under study. The detailed nature of the categorisation proved that every evident error in the writing of the participants was to be spotted. This of course increased the reliability of the study and therefore some results would be used for the design material meant to be used to teach English language.

All participants were in Level 200 but some participants of this sample came from EFL backgrounds and as such, to prove Selinker's interlanguage theory, it was important to note the influence of MT on EFL and ESL writing. Although the effect of MT on these results may not be directly relevant, it can serve as a guide to the performance of a learner of a second language. This was to enable direct modification of student learning materials to suite EFL and ESL students if the results were skewed.

4.2 Key findings of the quantitative method

The quantitative methodology took advantage of the computational capabilities of SPSS and algorithms embedded in the software to assist the researcher to categorise errors as well as find the error frequency and the specific error types that were committed by the students. The following parts of this chapter reveal errors, error counts and systematic description of the results in the form of charts and tables. In brief, this section presents factual and succinct student errors committed.

To answer the first research question, namely "What are the types of errors found in the writing of Level 200 students of university under study?", it is important to present the results of the error types based on the marking and categorisation of the errors that have been captured from the student essays. Errors that emerged from this question included the addition of articles, prepositions, punctuations and conjunctions. Omission on the other hand exhibited articles, pronouns, punctuations and conjunctions. A total of sixteen errors emerged during the marking of students' writing. Capitalisation, concord, choice of words, transitions/conjunctions, expressions, faulty parallelisms, fragments, plurality, wrong prepositions, wrong punctuations, wrong spellings, wrong tenses, wrong articles, and wrong pronouns were among the error types identified in the writings. Error Analysis process include the identification of such errors to give the researcher an informed decision for planning the design of learning and teaching materials for Level 100 students.

The second research question involved the frequency of the errors identified. To answer this question, a frequency table was constructed with the aid of the SPSS software to depict the frequency of individually identified errors. The results are presented in Table 3 below. Errors as placed in their categories were counted. The frequency of occurrence of errors was computed by employing the formula:

$$F = {}^{n1}/_{\sum N}$$

where

F is the frequency;

n1 is the count of the error category;

and $\sum N$ is the total number of errors in the data

Error Category	**Frequency (F)**
Expression	358
Omission	305
Spelling	295
Capitalisation	202
Plurality	177
Addition	172
Choice of Words	170
Concord	112
Tense	86
Punctuation	66
Preposition	63
Pronoun	62
Faulty Parallelism	53
Fragment	26
Wrong Transition	15
Article	7
TOTAL No. of Errors	**2169**

Table 3 Frequency distribution of Errors

By calculating the frequency, the most frequent errors were deduced by the highest number of errors. Errors were also placed in ranks (which are related to the frequency) and the 1st rank represented the most frequent error.

Similar to Mireku-Gyimah (2014) and Amoakohene (2017) the frequency of the error types can be distributed in percentages. The percentage distribution of errors was computed using the formula:

$$P=\frac{n1}{\sum N} x\ 100$$

where P= the percentage ; n1 is the count of the error category and; $\sum N$ is the total number of errors in the data.

This is found in Table 4 below and it is discussed further in the next chapter. Unedited students' writing numbering 146 (broken down as 122 for ESL and 24 for EFL) were extracted to identify error categories. Reviews by scholars such as Amoakohene (2017), Amuzu and Asinyor (2016) and Mireku-Gyimah (2014) in the area of Error Analysis in the context of Ghanaian universities showed no significant difference between the errors detected in both the ESL and EFL context. From Table 3, the frequency count of errors from EFL and ESL students showed that Expression was the most frequent type of errors detected. Admittedly, some errors were generalised under either Omission or Addition. Error types such as the addition of a preposition or the omission of conjunction were grouped and placed under Addition or Omission. Error types such as wrong conjunction or wrong article were depicted as stand-alone errors. However, in instances where a participant practically adds an article to a sentence where they should have been omitted, the error is categorised under 'addition of article' and equally generalised under 'Addition'.

The percentage distribution of the samples from each error group or category is shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Percentage distribution of Errors and their ranks

Error Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Rank
Expression	358	16.51	1
Omission	305	14.06	2
Spelling	295	13.6	3
Capitalisation	202	9.31	4
Plurality	177	8.16	5
Addition	172	7.93	6
Choice of Words	170	7.84	7
Concord	112	5.16	8
Tense	86	3.96	9
Punctuation	66	3.04	10
Preposition	63	2.90	11
Pronoun	62	2.86	12
Faulty Parallelism	53	2.44	13
Fragment	26	1.20	14
Wrong Transition	15	0.69	15
Article	7	0.32	16
TOTAL	**2169**	**100.00**	

Generally, faulty sentences contain errors belonging to different categories which are discussed in later paragraphs. These error categories are further explained with specific examples and suggested corrections in order to assist English language teaching. These initial paragraphs are restricted to presentations findings and analysis of data collected from a quantitative perspective and does not draw conclusion nor compare results to other research work.

4.3 Analysing the quantitative data

Based on the findings of the study, a total of 2,169 errors were found in students' compositions of between 150 and 200 words each. The mean error value of 136 was found with regard to the total number of errors detected representing about 6% across the total number of errors detected. A minimum of about 7 error counts (in terms of

frequency) were detected in the dataset and a maximum value of about 358 errors (in terms of frequency) were present in the dataset. As seen in table 4 above, the frequency of the errors ranged between 0.32% and 16.5% with most of the detected errors involving expression (16.51%), omission (14.06%) and misspelled words (13.60%). Another set of errors in the study pertained to the misuse of capitalisation (9.31%), choice of words (7.84%), plurality (8.16%) and addition (of pronouns, articles and conjunctions) during sentence construction (7.93%). Other forms such as wrong concord (5.16%), wrong tenses (3.96%), wrong punctuations (3.04%), wrong prepositions (2.90%) and wrong pronouns (2.86%) were among the many errors found to be problematic in the student compositions. Errors such as fragments (1.20%), wrong transition (0.69%) and wrong articles (0.32%) scored lower percentages owing to the fact that these were taken in exception and as stand-alone because most of these errors were classified as an addition of article and or conjunction, and omission of article and or conjunction. This made addition and omission percentages relatively high.

According to the results of this study, the L1 interference categories of the syntactic and semantic properties of the descriptive writing varied with frequency counts of more than 100 for spelling (295, 13.60%), choice of words (170, 7.84%), plurality (177, 8.16%), concord (112, 5.16%), capitalisation (202, 9.31%), expression (358, 16.51%) and additions (172, 7.93%).

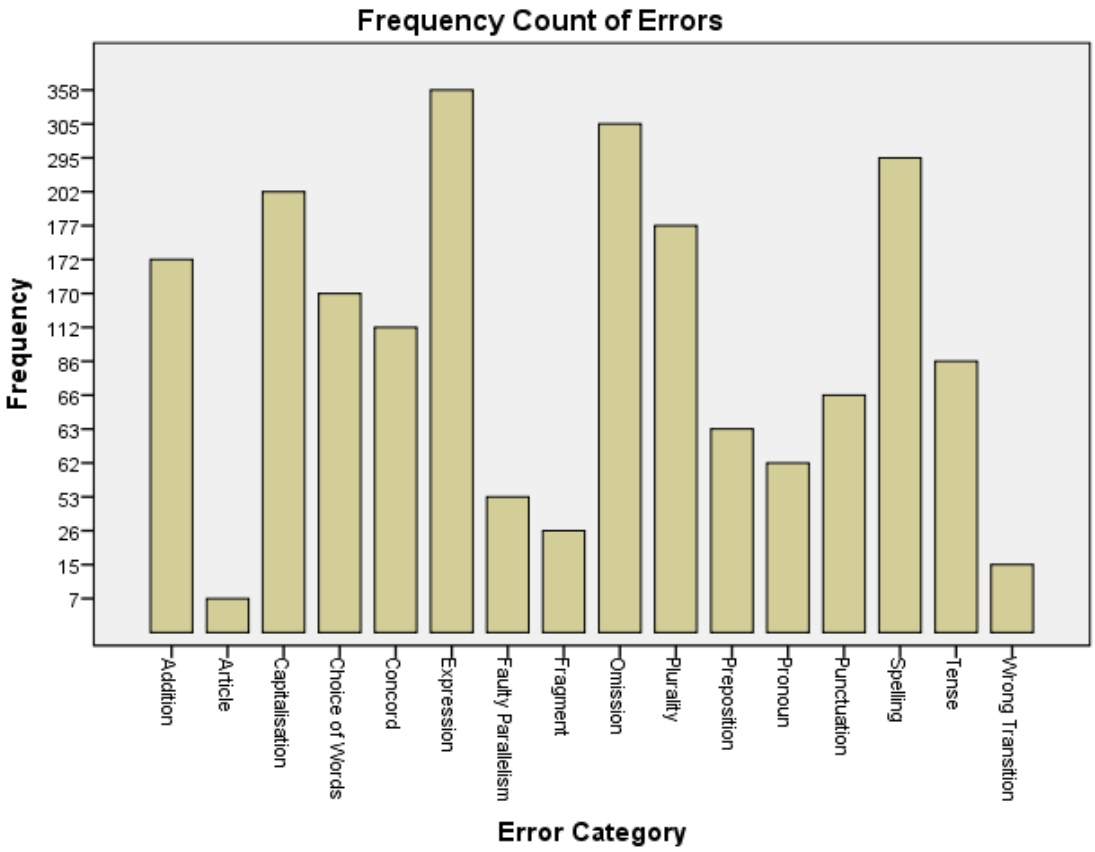

Figure 16 Bar Chart of Error distribution of L200 students.

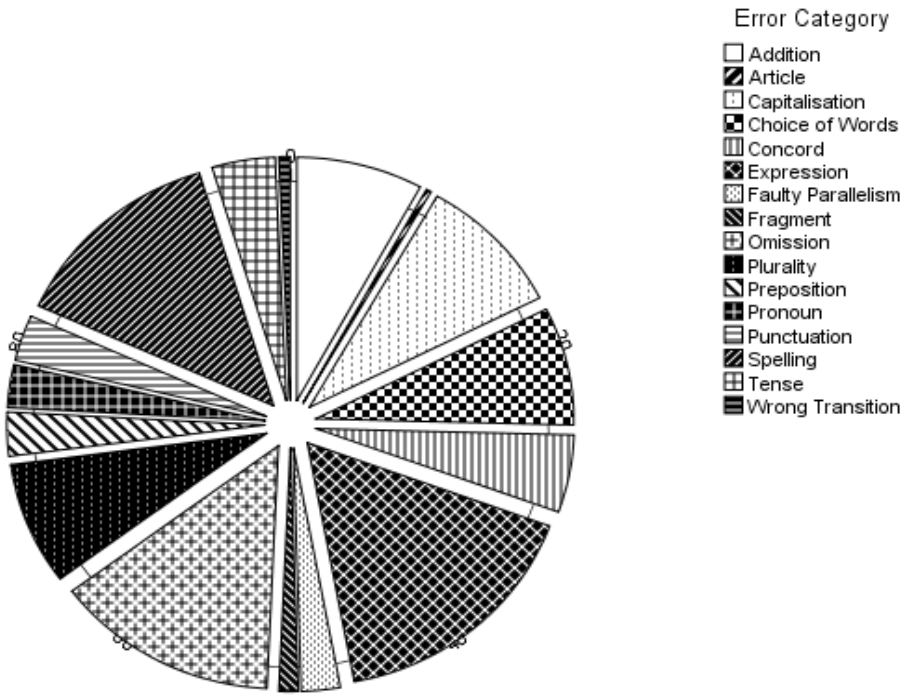

Figure 17. Sliced Pie Chart distribution of Error categories according to their occurrence.

4.4 Key findings of the qualitative methodology

The third research question looks at the extent to which sentence-level errors affect discourse-level issues in the writing of Level 200 students of the study area. It was important to understand macro-linguistic aspects such as coherence and cohesion. The discourse beyond the sentence level at this stage was investigated in the set of written productions presented to the researcher in the form of essays. These results were analysed about their elements of textual cohesion, coherence and curricular expectations. The discursive issues are outstanding when it comes to the academic curriculum due to the importance of academic writing.

The results revealed that the research subjects presented no relevant problems when writing in English as L2. However, when written expressions were analysed, some writing errors and mistakes were susceptible to change. There were levels beyond the sentences which presented inadequacies. The findings additionally revealed that the levels included defining features regarding the way the participants wrote in English as L2 and although the learners did not disrupt grammatical mistakes, their L2 discourse contained coherence issues that needed closer attention. To identify the explicit features which improved the overall script quality and to categorise weaker areas in L2 written discourse, the textual aspects, which are not only morpho-syntactic but part of the construct of coherent text written by the skilled L2 writers, were analysed. The textual evaluation criteria used in determining discourse-level issues are discussed below:

a. *The micro- linguistic (Cohesive deixis) criteria*

The micro-linguistic criteria sought to examine the way deictic reference was expressed in those students' written discourse. Deixis, according to Yule (1996) can be defined as indications of spatial, personal or temporal references in discourses. Concerning cohesion, participants employed linking words such as 'first of all' (enumeration), 'in short' (summary), 'however' (contrast). Participants did not present a wide range of spatial and temporal markers in their written production about deictic criteria in detail.

b. The macro- linguistic (beyond sentence coherence) criteria

The results revealed that there were thematic connections between one sentence and the next. However, the case of EFL students revealed a lack of few deictic resources, and although the thematic threads were followed throughout the whole texts, some students (particularly EFL students) exhibited some degree of word repetition used to keep thematic occurrence.

c. Curriculum related Criteria

To emphasize answering the fourth research question, discourse issues are formally included in the academic curricula of Level 100 students learning English Language either as a second or foreign language. Although many authors have recently selected specific evaluation criteria for analysing the quality of language teacher training programmes, according to Peacock (2009), such criteria is missing in the academic curricula in Ghana. It was difficult to explicitly assess the curriculum for the university and equally decide on evaluation criteria for students' written work even though they are explicitly taught. The findings also revealed that high formal and academic registers are offered to both ESL and EFL students in the classrooms but these interventions did not boost the discursive competence of the students' written production and therefore promoting a discursive gap in the curriculum.

4.5 Analysing the qualitative data

Parallel to the quantitative data analysis, the qualitative aspect of the study emerged from answering research questions 3 and 4. To recap the qualitative procedure, basic observation of students' written production was done to observe patterns, and transcribe the data. The transcription was done with the research objectives in mind. A coding and indexing style was adopted to identify the error types. This important step helped in structuring and labelling the data such as student groups (ESL or EFL), error types (omission, addition; wrong spelling, preposition, pronoun, etc.) and error forms such as lexical or sentence level.

To investigate discourse issues, the qualitative analysis looked at the cohesion and coherence issues concerning the students' composition. This type of analysis was useful in tackling research questions 3 and 4 of the study. It was imperative to choose

this type of analysis to ensure that each research question is covered in detail and to ensure that the findings of this research are insightful, effective and actionable.

According to Mckay (2016), it was the second half of the 20th Century that conscious and systematic analysis of written discourse took place. Early studies focused mainly on either syntactic or morphological features and left out aspects on text construction. Nevertheless, English language proficiency is not only determined by the grammatical choice of the word but the correct achievement of the text purpose is equally important. According to Filipović (2014), texts are multi-dimensional productions and therefore there is the need for a holistic study approach for such a complex nature of texts. Filipović (2018 p.180-198) posited that "Cohesion, coherence, and the achievement of text intended meaning, that is, the way sentences and ideas are naturally interwoven, conform to the body and the essence of a text". The criteria for evaluating discourse are in terms of written forms which are contextual (macro-linguistic) and textual and discursive (macro and micro-linguistic).

Students' writing was analysed regarding their elements of textual cohesion, coherence and curricular expectation. To begin, it is important to use a qualitative coding matrix to pick up all the individual errors for the explanation.

4.5.1The qualitative coding matrix

In a set of written productions analysed for this study, it was important to consider that the essay topic was highly engaging and in this case, students could confidently express themselves with text paying equal and good attention to both form and content. This bridged the gap that seems to be ignored when writing in the English language. Students demonstrated explicit language awareness such as discursive markers. To investigate whether the written composition was not decontextualised, careful framing of the topic was to assist the researcher to carefully code all the errors

identified rather than the fixed and rigid structures used by some researchers which render their work unreliable. The coding matrix below gives examples of each error type identified as well as provides their corrected forms, and pedagogical suggestion for the errors.

Qualitative coding matrix for errors was used as initial diagnostic tests of the students L2 essays. This enabled the researcher to find evidence of errors and areas which deserve deeper attention as far as the academic curricular were concerned. To analyse the sentence-level errors identified and classified, the 16 common errors committed are placed side by side and evaluated. To further assist the manual checking by the researcher to detect the errors committed by students, online resources such as online grammar and spelling checkers were used to back up detected errors in the written Composition. The 16 encoded errors were subjected to scrutiny to promote reliability and validity in the data acquired. The tables below show the general examples of errors found in the students' composition, their descriptions, explanations and evaluation based on Corder's principle of Error Analysis.

Table 5 provides a view of errors related to the use of wrong tenses as indicated in the student composition. The perfective form of verbs is used with the variant forms of the verb 'have'. The perfective form of the verb 'be' is 'been'; in example (i), the progressive form of 'be' was rather used. In example (ii), a wrong auxiliary was used. As explained earlier, perfective forms are used with the variant forms of the verb 'have'. The verb to 'be' is used with the progressive forms of verbs. For example (iii), 'helps' has been used as an auxiliary thus the verb that follows it has to be in the bare or present simple form.

Table 5 Errors related to usage of Wrong Tenses and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
1. Wrong Tenses	i. Serious steps ***have being taken*** to improve the quality of instruction in English…	i. Serious steps ***have been taken*** to improve the quality of instruction in English…
	ii. Hence the role of English language in tertiary education ***is been considered*** to be unavoidable.	ii. Hence the role of English language in tertiary education ***has been considered*** ~~to be~~ unavoidable.
	iii. English language helps ***boosting*** our confidence level.	iii. English language helps **to *boost*** our confidence level or English Language helps ***boost*** our confidence level.

Table 6 Errors related to the wrong choice of verb (Concord) and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
2. Wrong choice of verb (Concord)	i. Students ***has*** huge opportunities by learning English.	i. Students ***have*** huge opportunities by learning English.
	ii. Secondly, we can say that knowing English ***can increases*** your chances of getting jobs in multinational companies.	ii. Secondly, we can say that knowing English ***can increase*** your chances of getting jobs in multinational companies.
	iii. These factors ***plays*** a major role in the education sector.	iii. These factors ***play*** a major role in the education sector.

The basic concord rule in English is that singular subjects must agree with singular verbs and plural subjects must agree with plural verbs. Thus, students and factors in examples (i) and (iii) should agree with a plural verb 'have' and 'play' respectfully. In example (ii), there is an auxiliary 'can' which must agree with the bare form of the verb 'increase'.

Table 7 Errors related to the wrong choice of words

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
3. Wrong choice of a word	i. The language being ***thought*** in the tertiary institutions ….	i. The language being ***taught*** in the tertiary institutions ….
	ii. Tertiary education is a level of education where all careers we dream of can be ***pursed.***	ii. Tertiary education is a level of education where all careers we dream of can be ***pursued.***
	iii. English language also helps students in doing or ***performing*** presentations with other students.	iii. English language also helps students in doing or ***giving*** presentations with other students.

This is different from spelling errors where the words do not exist in English language because of the spelling. 'Choice of words' refers to words that are correct English language words with the correct spellings but have been used in wrong contexts. Examples (i) and (ii) have the words 'thought' and 'pursed' used in wrong contexts. 'Thought' is the past simple form of 'think' and the context does not suggest the action

of 'thinking'. Likewise the word 'pursed'; it means to put into a purse or press together. This meaning is not appropriate in the context it is used. This type of errors explains the issue of homophones which most students tend to have difficulty differentiating. Homophones are pairs of words which sound the same. They may or may not have the same spelling. Some examples of homophones are: *'steal and steel'; 'caught and court'; 'scene and seen'; 'tail and tale'* and *'stationery and stationary'*. This also leads to students choosing wrong words sometimes in sentences which make the sentences faulty.

Table 8 Errors in relation to the use of wrong transitions or conjunctions

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
4. Wrong transition/conjunction	i. It helps students in the tertiary level to apply for jobs. **However**, English language helps students to engage in some businesses….	i. It helps students in the tertiary level to apply for jobs. **Moreover**, English language helps students to engage in some businesses….
	ii. With the help of this language we become aware of new technologies as maximum details are available today in English language only. **However**, the English language plays an important role in our lives.	ii. With the help of this language we become aware of new technologies as maximum details are available today in English language only. **Moreover**, the English language plays an important role in our lives.

The transition 'However' is used to introduce contrasting ideas; looking at the preceding statements in examples (i) and (ii), a transition of addition is the appropriate transition to use.

Table 9 Errors related to the wrong use of an article

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
5. Wrong use of an article	i….French countries, it is the one who has ***a*** English degree and who can speak it fluently who will obtain ***the*** job. ii. English language is largely considered ***the*** universal language. iii. Nowadays, ***the*** English language has become one of the spoken languages in the world.	i….French countries, it is the one who has ***an*** English degree and who can speak it fluently who will obtain ***a*** job. ii. English language is largely considered ***a*** universal language. iii. Nowadays, English language has become one of the spoken languages in the world.

The definite article is used for definiteness or specificity and the indefinite article is used for generality or non-specificity. 'A' usually precedes a noun or an adjective that begins with a consonant and 'an' precedes words (nouns and adjectives) that begin with vowels and sounds considered as semi-vowels. Thus, in example (i), 'an' should precede 'English' because 'English' begins with a consonant. In example (ii), 'the' was used to precede 'universal language'. This shows definiteness and it also indicates that it is common knowledge that 'English' is a universal language or that English has been proven to be a universal language. Since this has not been proven, it is appropriate to rather use 'a' to precede 'universal language', though universal language' begins with 'u', which is a vowel sound. It is important to note that when 'u'

is pronounced [ju] in a word, it is considered a consonant hence must be preceded by 'a'. 'U' is a vowel when it is pronounced as /ʌ/ as found in the word 'umbrella'. In example (iii), the sentence required no article to precede 'English language'.

Table 10a Errors related to the use of wrong punctuations

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
6. Wrong punctuations	i. English language is said to be a universal language for all **[,]** This is a language spoken across the world.	i. a. English language is said to be a universal language for all**.** This is a language spoken across the world. b. English language is said to be a universal language for all**; t**his is a language spoken across the world. c. English language is said to be a universal language for all**, as t**his is a language spoken across the world.
	ii. Therefore, learning English gives you the skills necessary to advance a career in an industry where English is a required language **[,]** It is important in many different industries such as ….	ii. Therefore, learning English gives you the skills necessary to advance a career in an industry where English is a required language**.** It is important in many different industries such as ….
	iii. The language is very interesting **[,]** knowing your vocabularies will go a long way to improve your speech ….	iii. The language is very interesting**.** Knowing your vocabularies will go a long way to improve your speech ….

Table 11b Errors related to the use of wrong punctuations

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
6. Wrong punctuations	iv. The language is very interesting [,] knowing your vocabulary will go a long way to improve your speech.	iv. a. The language is very interesting; knowing your vocabulary will go a long way to improve your speech. b. The language is very interesting. Knowing your vocabulary will go a long way to improve your speech. c The language is very interesting, and knowing your vocabulary will go a long way to improve your speech.
	v. In this land of innumerable regional languages in different states. English serves as a link language in the country.	v. In this land of innumerable regional languages in different states, English serves as a link language in the country.

Examples (i) and (iv) are cases of comma splice. Since the sentences are not written as compound, the first clauses should end with a full stop and a new clause began to avoid a faulty sentence (comma splice). Another way to avoid such faulty sentences is to use a semi-colon to separate the two clauses. One of the uses of the semi-colon is to separate main clauses when they are not separated by coordinate conjunctions. A third way to avoid a comma splice is to introduce a conjunction after the comma. Examples (ii), (iii) and (v) are 'Run-ons'. In the three examples, there are two separate clauses each. That is, they contain two independent clauses (declaratives) each yet they are not connected properly. Such errors can be corrected by using a semi-colon

(**;**) as a connector or using a comma (**,**) and an appropriate joining (coordinate) word. Another way to correct this type of error is to end the first clause with a full stop and to begin the next clause with a capital letter. The first clause of example (v) seems a fragment but when the second clause is considered a part or a continuation of the first clause, then there is a run-on, which is a fault in sentence writing. This can also be corrected using the three different ways discussed in the table above.

Table 12 Errors associated with the wrong choice of a preposition

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
7. Wrong choice of a preposition	i. There are various fields ***for*** study and some of them have similar words….	i. There are various fields ***of*** study and some of them have similar words….
	ii. It is easy to communicate if one has a complete knowledge ***for*** English language.	ii. It is easy to communicate if one has a complete knowledge ***of*** English language.
	iii. Most people have problems ***on*** writing, reading, listening and speaking.	iii. Most people have problems ***in*** writing, reading, listening and speaking.
	iv. Learning English language **in** tertiary level has been more helpful.	iv. a. Learning English language **at the** tertiary level has been more helpful. b. Learning English language **in** tertiary institutions has been more helpful.

Prepositions have meanings; therefore, they need to be used appropriately to elicit their precise meanings. Some expressions and words require the use of specific prepositions with them. For example, in sentences (i), (ii) and (iii), the expressions are fixed; 'fields **of** study', 'to **have** knowledge **of** (something)' and 'to **have** problems **in** (something)'. It is imperative, therefore, for students to know these expressions so that they can use them appropriately. In example (iv), the use of '**in'** suggests 'containership'. This is inappropriate to be used for places such as an institution. The sentence thus can be corrected in two ways: i) by changing the preposition to '**at'** to show a place, and adding the definite article '**the'** or b) by maintaining the preposition '**at'** and rather changing the word 'level' to another word, for instance, 'institutions'.

Table 13 Errors related to the wrong usage of plurals

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
8. Wrong use of plurality	i. English language is one of the influential ***language*** in Africa.	i. English language is one of the influential ***languages*** in Africa.
	ii. It helps people from different ***country*** to interact to exchange ***idea***.	ii. It helps people from different ***countries*** to interact to exchange ***ideas***.
	iii. English language is used to acquire different ***knowledges*** and skills for purposes of job seeking.	iii. English language is used to acquire different ***knowledge*** and skills for purposes of job seeking.

Some words in specific contexts need to be used in the plural form and others in the singular form. Some words also do not have plural markers. Plurality in this context thus refers to the wrong use of the plural marker. In example (i), 'language' needed to be used in the plural form as the context denotes there are several languages and English is only one. Example (ii) had two errors both of which should be marked with the plurality. The first part denotes plurality because of the word 'different' that precedes it. The second also denotes plurality because there is an inference to 'people'.

Table 14 Errors related to poor spelling and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples		Correct form
9. Wrong spellings	I.	Finally, English Language in tertiary education plays an ***importante*** role.	i. Finally, English Language in tertiary education plays an ***important*** role
	II.	So taking the language which is the English seriously in the tertiary education will prepare us to be ***actif*** in all areas.	*ii,* So taking the language which is the English seriously in the tertiary education will prepare us to be ***active*** in all areas
	III.	If you do not know how to speak or read English, you will ***definetly*** be lost.	*iii.* If you do not know how to speak or read English, you will ***definitely*** be lost.

Poor spelling came third amongst the errors with high scores. Out of the error categories detected in the compositions of the students, spelling accounted for 13.6%. It is a clear indication of the limited English language at the disposal of the students. This can be attributed to many factors such as lack of reading in order to build vocabularies, lazy attitudes of students towards academic work and perhaps lack of reading materials. There are rules to spelling which guide learners to spell correctly. Adequate knowledge of these spelling rules can help students get their spellings right. It must be noted that wrong pronunciation of words sometimes lead to the words being spelled incorrectly. The spelling of 'importante' and 'actif' stems from an EFL background.

There were other forms of spellings which were inherent in the students' compositions. Some examples include: '*countrys', 'comper', 'enguage', 'mejor', 'tirtory', 'acadamic', 'dayly', 'writting', 'accross', 'can not', 'mordern', 'corma', 'taugh', 'pronounciation', 'continueing', 'forieng', 'unecessary', 'eassies', 'conclution'*, etc. instead of *'countries'*, *'compare'*, *'engage', 'major', 'tertiary', 'academic', 'daily', 'writing', 'across', 'cannot', 'modern', 'comma', 'tough', 'pronunciation', 'continuing', 'foreign', 'unnecessary', 'essays', 'conclusion',* respectively. These inappropriate spellings are an indication that the students have no or little knowledge of spelling rules.

Table 15 Errors associated with wrong expressions

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
10. Wrong expressions	*i. I chose to come **and do my university** here because of the English.* *ii. Learning of English language helps in **making people easier to travel** from one place to another.* *iii. The role of English in tertiary education is **too much**.* *iv. Almost all the materials used in teaching and learning are prepared in the English language including Mathematics.*	*i. I chose **to have my university education** here because of the English Language.* *ii. Learning of English language helps in **making it easier for people** to travel from one place to another.* *iii. The role of English in tertiary education is phenomenal / significant.* *iv. Almost all the materials used in teaching and learning **including Mathematics** are prepared in the English language.*

'Wrong expressions' as used in this study refer to expressions that do not conform to appropriate usage in English language. It also includes literal translations, misplaced modifications, wrong order or arrangement of words and ambiguity. In example (i), it seems to be an error of literal translation as well as an expression that does not conform to the appropriate usage. It must be noted that one cannot 'do' a university. In example (ii), the error has to do with the arrangement of words. Example (iii) simply does not conform to English language usage. It is actually a local expression to the magnitude of something. Example (iv) is the case of a misplaced modifier. 'Including Mathematics' should be placed after 'teaching and learning'. Mathematics is a subject that is taught and learned.

Table 16 Errors related to Fragments

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
11. Fragments	*i. As more universities use English as a medium of instruction.*	*i. As more universities use English as a medium of instruction,* ***it makes it indispensable to learn the language.***
	ii. If you have the appropriate foreign language skills and are learning English as a foreign language.	*ii. If you have the appropriate foreign language skills and are learning English as a foreign language,* ***you are better placed for the international market.***
	iii. Though some of its elements are really relevant.	*iii. Though some of its elements are really relevant,* ***too much emphasis should not be placed on appropriateness.***

A fragment is a word group that lacks a subject or a verb and does not express a complete thought. All the examples are the 'dependent word' fragments. The sentences began with subordinates/dependent words; as, if, though. To correct this type of fragment, the dependent word can be eliminated or the fragment can be attached to a complete sentence.

Table 17 Faulty Parallelism and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
12. Faulty parallelisms	*i. English has become the most common and dominant language used both locally and international.*	*i. English has become the most common and dominant language used both locally and* ***internationally****.*
	ii. English has become a means of global communication and earning a living.	*ii. English has become a means of global communication and* ***employment****.*
	iii. English language has also become the most important language for learning, for teaching, accessing sources of modern knowledge and scientific research.	*iii. English language has also become the most important language for learning, for teaching,* ***for*** *accessing sources of modern knowledge and* ***for conducting*** *scientific research.*

Faulty parallelisms occur in sentences which have two or more parts semantically equal but grammatically unequal in form. This type of error mostly occurs in sentences that contain lists. If a list is made up of a particular part of speech or a particular structure, it must be in the same form or word class. In example (i) for instance, an adverb was used to begin a list therefore the next word in the list should also be an adverb to create a parallel structure. In example (ii), the adjective 'global' is used to qualify 'communication, which is a noun. The next word in the list should therefore also be a noun that the same adjective can qualify. In example (iii), the preposition 'for' was used to precede a progressive form of a verb. This means that for all the other items in the list, the preposition should precede them, and the verbs that follow must be in the progressive form to ensure a parallel structure.

Table 18 Errors associated with poor usage of capital letters and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples		Correct form	
13. Wrong capitalisation	I.	Writing English is not an easy task especially if you are not from an English speaking country. ***before*** you start any other subject, you need some improvement on writing English.	I.	Writing English is not an easy task especially if you are not from an English speaking country. ***Before*** you start any other subject, you need some improvement on writing English.
	II.	For instance, when you decide to travel for a meeting in some country such as ***dubai, united states, china, ghana, It*** will be really difficult for you….	II.	For instance, when you decide to travel for a meeting in some country such as ***Dubai, United States, China, Ghana, it*** will be really difficult for you….
	III.	I consider ***english*** language as the most important language in the world.	III.	I consider ***English*** language as the most important language in the world.

With a percentage of 9.31, this type of error of wrong capitalisation in compositions ranked 4th. Students are not aware that starting new sentences require the use of a capital letter and proper nouns are written with the initial letters always in capital letters.

Table 19 Errors in relation to Addition and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
14. Addition	*i. They are taught **on** when to use jargons.*	*i. They are taught when to use jargons.*
	*ii. It is important for the interaction with other people in any other place outside **from** the university.*	*ii. It is important for the interaction with other people in any other place outside*
	*iii. Communication is the act of interacting with one another to ask questions and also demand **a** feedback.*	*iii. Communication is the act of interacting with one another to ask questions and also demand feedback.*
	*iv. Students need English Language as the first subject**,** because it is very important when you want to understand any other subject.*	*iv. Students need English Language as the first subject because it is very important when you want to understand any other subject.*

The term 'addition' is used to indicate that an element such as a preposition, an article, a pronoun or a punctuation which is not supposed to be used in a particular statement/context has been added to it. In example (i), the preposition ***on*** has been used with the verb 'taught'. In example (ii), the adverb 'outside' does not require a preposition after it but ***'from'*** has been added. In example (iii), the word 'feedback' is non-count thus cannot be preceded by an article indicating singularity ***'a'***. In example (iv), a complex sentence which has its main clause in initial position does not require

a comma to separate it from the dependent clause. This type of complex sentence is called a **Loose** sentence (Sekyi-Baidoo 2000). However, if the sentence is begun with the dependent clause, then it requires a comma before the main clause is affixed. This is called a **Periodic** sentence (Sekyi-Baidoo 2000).

Table 20 Errors related to Omission and their corrected forms.

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
15. Omission	*i. Writing English is not [ ] easy task especially if you [ ] not from an English speaking country.*	i. Writing English is not [**an]** easy task especially if you [are] not from an English speaking country.
	ii. English Language provides a lot of things so as students[ ] we need to learn it.	ii. English Language provides a lot of things so as students **[,]** we need to learn it.
	iii. Over the years [ ] it has become a common language that is used in international schools and research institutes.	iii. Over the years **[,]** it has become a common language that is used in international schools and research institutes.
	iv. That means that [ ] is important in tertiary education for the students to master this language.	iv. That means that **[it]** is important in tertiary education for the students to master this language.
	v. Coming [ ] different backgrounds, the language is not the same everywhere.	v. Coming ***from*** different backgrounds, the language is not the same everywhere.

The term 'omission' is used to indicate that an element of the sentence structure has been left out. These elements could be a verb, a preposition, an article, a punctuation mark, a pronoun or even a lexical word. In example (i), an article and a verb have been left out. In examples (ii) and (iii), a comma has been left out. In example (iv), a pronoun has been left out, and in example (v), a preposition has been left out.

Table 21 Errors associated with wrong use of pronouns and their corrected forms

Type of error	Examples	Correct form
16. Wrong use of pronouns	i. Anglophones find it easy to express ***theirselves***.	Anglophones find it easy to express ***themselves***.
	ii. … Some of ***his*** elements are really relevant.	ii. Some of ***its*** elements are really relevant.
	iii. …it enhances every individual to express **his/herself** at any point in time	iii. …it enhances every individual to express **him/herself** at any point in time

The reflexive form of third person plural pronoun is 'themselves'. 'Theirselves' does not exist in the English language. In example (ii), the preceding statement was talking about English language, thus it cannot be referred to or replaced with an animate masculine pronoun. The subject is an inanimate third person pronoun. Example (iii) used his with the reflexive. The third person singular reflexive pronoun is 'himself'/'herself'.

Under the descriptive taxonomies of English (linguistic and surface structure), it can be seen that errors such as wrong use of articles, wrong preposition, tenses (incorrect verb forms) and wrong subject - verb agreement (concord) were characterised by Vasquez (2008) as linguistic errors. Most of the errors committed by participants were caused by overgeneralisation, incomplete application of rules and the interference of L1 as predicted by Selinker (1972) and Stenson (1974). Errors such as wrong choice of words and wrong spellings can be associated with limited vocabulary resources as suggested by Gustilo (2009). However, this limitation can also be attributed to the learning materials used in teaching the English Language at the university. The errors identified in the students' composition cut across other universities and they are similar to the results of Mireku-Gyimah (2014).

4.5.2 Error Diagnosis

Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) made it clear that the accurate description of errors, as done above is a separate activity from the task of inferring the sources of the errors. The ultimate cause of errors in the student composition is the ignorance of the TL rules. However such formal deviance can have declarative or procedural causes. According to Yang (2010) the diagnosis question is often one that transcends description and invokes explanation. The research questions are not qualitative or quantitative. Emphatically, they are questions and it is therefore very academic for researchers to learn to strive for openness in combining different research strategies in order to gain fuller picture on the errors and how to diagnose them. Yang (2010) agrees that errors should be detected and located first before describing them. The author compares the detection of errors to that of a criminal investigation where a line-up of individuals is assembled for an eyewitness to pick out the perpetrator of the crime. In the linguistic community, a similar approach is taken where a line-up of utterances produced by learner given to a knower to pick out potential erroneous utterance. Such task by a researcher or knower can be extremely difficult if there are no systems or diagnostic tools involved.

A diagnostic component is needed to allow the integration of evidence from a wide range of knowledge sources into a unique decision procedure. According to Menzel (2004) if a language tutoring system is expected to simulate creative use of language in communicatively relevant setting and to provide students with adequate level of feedback, two tasks must be solved at the same time:

- A determination of a structural interpretation of the student's utterance even in the presence of considerable local ambiguity and the possible existence of unexpected or unacceptable constructions (Robust parsing).
- An identification of ungrammatical constructions and inappropriate communicative behaviour when it comes to explanation possibilities and strategies for remedy (Fault diagnosis).

Menzel (2004) agrees that although there is more to a good language learning system than just parsing and diagnosis, the two capabilities are essential as core functionality if such systems are expected to depart from a few predefined examples towards flexible interactions which resemble the goal-oriented nature of human communication. The focus on error diagnosis does not imply that errors are going to be emphasised in the learning process. According to Menzel (2004), precise diagnostic results form an indispensable foundation for choosing an appropriate system deliberately even if ignoring the error turns out to be the optimal decision.

Xie (2019) agreed with the fact that there is a paucity of diagnostic tools designed to detect and profile important aspects of linguistic accuracy in student writing, therefore a target construct should be specified and validated for designing a diagnostic tool of ESL and possibly EFL linguistic accuracy with a focus on the aspects wherein L2 writers are prone to error. Locating errors were not just straightforward this is because some of these errors were diffused throughout the sentences produced or larger unit of text that contained them. These errors were global errors (Burt 1972) which were discussed in chapter 2.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter showed the analysis and evaluation of L200 students' errors found in their written composition. This chapter concludes the error analysis study from theoretical and pedagogical perspectives. The first part of this chapter summarises all the findings of this mixed method approach in this research and then followed the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the study. Finally, the last part of the chapter looks at the limitations of the study and offers suggestions for future research.

5.2 Summary of findings

Errors in L2 writing are unavoidable in the field of linguistics. It is clear that errors committed by Level 200 students of the Ghanaian university under study can all be related to competence and performance in language learning. The theories in this study concentrated largely on the nature of the learner's performance with regard to written composition in English language. Thus, learners' use of English language in a flawless way was the focus and purpose of the study.

To improve effectiveness, and eloquent use of the English language, issues relating to linguistic difficulties must be addressed by teachers of the language. The findings above gave positive insights into L2 acquisition and also gave a general overview of the positive learning experience towards language use. The findings in relation to the analysis of the written composition showed that students encounter problems in written composition with lack of cohesion and coherence in their writing similar to what was discovered by Adika (1999). There was lack of cohesive devices such as conjunctions with respect to grammatical cohesion and general nouns with respect to lexical cohesion. Most students refused to apply the general rules of the target language and thus demonstrated lack of knowledge of the rules and how to apply them. Massive differences were also found between students' competence and

performance with regard to written text and their speaking skills. Some essays provided no logical order of ideas. As mentioned at the beginning of this study, effective communication is essential at the tertiary level and it is a general requirement for every student to go through the English Language and Academic Writing programmes at the university.

Another finding in relation to the marked essays was that much concentration on the language learners' errors may cause the correct utterances in the process of SLA go unnoticed. Most of the errors found in the written composition were influenced by overgeneralisation, ignorance of the restriction and incomplete application of the rules similar to the findings of Mireku-Gyimah (2014). Additionally, transfer of the mother tongue affected a number of errors identified in this study especially omission of words and the lack of cohesive devices as mentioned earlier. This led to a number of errors of expressions found in the compositions. Therefore, awareness of syntactic differences between L1 and L2 is indispensable for both learners and teachers who need to produce a perfect piece of writing, with accurate grammatical structures. Finally, the level of exposure to the English language was an important cause of the errors committed by L200 students. Students spent less time reading in the library and they had less exposure to the use of English language. This is because students spend less time researching either online or reading resources. Errors from this study can be used to develop effective teaching materials to improve English language teaching and learning process.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings presented in this study, a number of pedagogical implications needed to be addressed imminently. These discussions will help the reader understand the strengths of the arguments, and questions raised in Chapter One.

Syntactic influence was a chronic problem with regard to the grammatical errors inherent in almost all the written paragraphs found in the compositions used for the

study. Pedagogically, teachers needed to be aware of the sources of students' errors in order to be able to deal effectively and positively with the error types identified. Much concentration by teachers on the language learners' errors will cause the correct utterances to be adhered to.

Apart from the issues of grammatical errors and difficulties in using grammatical forms and structures, teachers needed to pay attention to errors such as verbs, nouns, and sentence structures. Additionally, errors such as substance errors and lexical errors were equally inherent in students' composition. As a requirement, teachers need to be aware of their sources in order to elevate students' writing performance to a more advanced level as suggested by Dako, Denkabe and Forson (1997).

The cause of ineffective writing should be identified to enhance the writing accuracy of students in an effective and positive manner. Teachers need a clear understanding of L1 interference that hinders particularly EFL students' compositions. This will enable teachers identify the developmental stage of the L200 student, and the linguistic difficulties students face. Such an intervention will help students accustom themselves to new linguistic forms without depending on their native language. It will also help teachers to prepare teaching materials and strategies in accordance with frequency of found errors.

To conclude Canagarajah (2006) suggests that language teachers ought to lay emphasis on grammar and language accuracy even though teachers have become open to the place of world English in composition and the descriptive approach to language teaching.

5.4 Limitations of the study

As it is with many Ghanaian Studies on Error Analysis, EFL and ESL students' written compositions were analysed collectively without separating EFL composition from ESL composition. However, EFL students used in this study were of Spanish and French origins and it was relatively difficult to identify the influence of their L1 on the target language (in this case, English language). This is because of the little knowledge the researcher had in French and Spanish. Although the case was different with ESL students who were all of Ghanaian origin, the number of EFL students compared to ESL in the study population remained small and this had little or no effect on the results.

5.5 Suggestions for future studies

Based on the results, observations, analysis and discussion, there are key areas when addressing errors and syllabus content updates. These areas are similar to Kamil *et al.'s* (2008) study of academic literacy and these are discussed below:

a) An explicit provision of vocabularies and use of academic language should be promoted. This will enable learners to acquire new words and equally strengthen their independent skills of constructing meaning of text. Sufficient opportunities should be given to students to use vocabulary in a variety of contexts through extended reading and writing. Teachers are expected to also provide learners with strategies to make sense of texts.

b) There should be an explicit provision of direct composition instruction. This will enable learners acquire basic knowledge of the target language rules in the area of cohesion and coherence. Composition strategies are routines and procedures used by learners to advance their writing skills and make sense of texts.

c) Student motivation in writing should be encouraged. Establish student content learning goals and provide intriguing topics for composition writing. It is important to make writing and literacy experiences more related to students' interests.

Teachers are also required to make intensive and individualised interventions for struggling writers. Some learners need more support to increase their writing ability and skills than regular classroom hours. Students who are unable to meet grade-level standards in writing often require supplementary, intense and individualised writing intervention to improve their writing ability. Such interventions, although rare at the tertiary level, can deepen students' understanding and accelerate their developmental stage. This process is often a two-step process that begins with the initial screening of students' errors to identify those who need extra help. The next step is to design a diagnostic test to provide a profile of writing strengths and weaknesses and also provide interventions where intensiveness is directed towards student needs. High level of instructional quality and the intensity of the intervention will improve students' skill levels concerning composition writing.

To finally conclude this study, three major suggestions require imminent intervention. These are addressed below:

Firstly, students should be taught the fundamentals of English language composition with examples derived from the academic syllabus. In this regard, coherence and well-formed writing should be taught, and strictly by guidance. To improve upon the requirements needed for effective academic writing, the research areas online (in relation to new technologies) and genre-based writing instruction will be salient areas for future research.

Secondly, the results of this study can be used for further research such as providing students with Error Analysis exercises, promoting self and peer corrections, and grammar enhancement through communication activities, developing teaching technologies which are error focused to reduce grammatical errors. Student feedback concerning course objectives and outcomes will be required to assess teaching

materials as well as teacher performance at the end of the first academic year of intervention.

Finally, further studies regarding correlations of L1 interference to L2 writing in various genres should be another area of research which will be more applicable when designing teaching materials for ESL/EFL students during their Level 100 academic year. This will go a long way to enhance the skills of teachers and students alike when producing a near perfect piece of writing with accurate grammatical structures. On the other hand, ESL teachers need to focus on the troubling results seen in the study. More effective strategies are needed for students to enlarge their vocabulary and spelling, and students need to be reminded that wrong spelling, capitalisation, choice of words, plurality, concord, and punctuations are indeed damaging to the overall quality of written compositions.

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Appendices

Syllabus or Outline for English language teaching for First year or Level 100 students in a tertiary institutions.

WISCONSIN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, GHANA

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGE ARTS

COURSE OUTLINE

Course code/Title: English Language WGS 131 Semester: 1st **Credits 3HRS**

Class Hours:

Tues: 2.30 – 5.30pm (BLK C F4)

Fri: 7.00 – 10.00 pm (BLK A F3 B)

Sun: 8.00 – 11am (BLK A F1 A)

Facilitator: Evelyn J. Mandor
Office: 307

Office Hours:

Phone: (Office) 4036 **Cell: 0244755203** **Email:** evelyn.mandor@wiuc-ghana.edu.gh

Prerequisite Course(s):

Required Text(s):

Aarts, B. (2011). *Oxford practice grammar (Advanced).* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Barrett, G. (2016). *Perfect English grammar: The indispensable guide to excellent writing and speaking*. Zephyros Press.

Chukwuma, H. & Otagbruagbu, E. (2008). *English for Academic Purposes*. Onitsa: Africana First Publishers Limited.

Clark, R.P. (2010). *The Glamour of grammar: A guide to the magical and mystery of practical English.* New York: Little, Brown and Company.

Kirkpatrick, B. (2007). *Correct English*. New Lanark, Scotland: Geddes and Grossett.

Opoku-Agyemang, N.J. (n.d). A handbook for writing skills(New Edition). Accra: Kingdom Books and Stationery.

Sekyi-Baidoo, Y. (2002). *Learning and Communicatiing*. Accra: Infinity and Graphics Limited.

Swan, M. & Walter, C.(2011). *Oxford English Grammar Course*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

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Course Description
This introductory course emphasises the development of study skills and strategies that will enhance students' success in academic work. Additionally, the course is also aimed at helping students communicate effectively using grammatically correct expressions with complex sentence patterns in various situations. The course, again, will enable students to produce academically acceptable essays.
Course Objectives
At the end of this course the student will be able to: Improve their mastery of the English grammar by focusing on sentence structures and the mechanics of the language.

Correct grammatical errors with an eye toward minimising error when writing for a formal audience. Use the appropriate nouns, pronouns, adverbs and adjectives in sentences Observe subject-verb agreement in sentences Gain mastery of the appropriate use of tenses in texts Differentiate good sentences from faulty sentences Apply the different rules of punctuations in text Revise text containing sentence fragments and run-on sentences
Course Content Unit 1: Introduction to Parts of speech and their functions Unit 2: Introduction to Parts of speech and their functions Unit 3: Phrases and Clauses Unit 4: Sentences & Sentence Types Unit 5: Concord Unit 6: Punctuations Unit 7: Avoiding Faulty Sentences Unit 8: Formal and Informal Language Unit 9: The Paragraph Structure - components Unit 10: The Paragraph Structure – Introductions & Conclusions Unit 11: Essay Writing Unit 12: Essay Writing Unit 13: Revision

Teaching and Learning Strategies

Lectures

Brainstorming and discussion

Small Group work – activity and discovery learning process

Written Exercises

Assessment

Continuous assessment: Work must be submitted by the stated deadlines!

Assessment weighting

The mid-semester exams will account for 20% of total grade while that of class assignments will account for 15% of total grade with the exams accounting for 60% of the marks. Class attendance and participation will account for the remaining 5%

Course Policy

Attendance:

All students must participate in and attend lectures regularly and promptly. Lateness is inexcusable. Attendance will be taken at every class meeting. Students who arrive late or leave early may be marked absent. Absences due to illness must be documented by a health professional. Excessive **lateness and unexcused absences** may result in a fail grade on the final report.

Code of conduct:

It is expected of students to behave in a professional and respectful manner in the classroom and during any interaction with the lecturer, colleagues, and other stakeholders (e.g. recruiters). Here are a few specific policies each student must to respect while in my class:

Read and understand course syllabus.

Read assigned material before class.

Academic Honesty: Cheating of any kind is an unacceptable behaviour and will not be tolerated.

Do your own work.

Do not collaborate with others on assignments unless it is specifically allowed.

Unless otherwise noted, all work submitted needs to be typed (double-spaced) and stapled.

Arrive to class on time.

Do not disrupt class.

No reading of newspapers during class.

No chit-chat about non-course related topics.

No noise emitting devices (e.g., cell phones, pagers, mp3 players). Place your noise emitting devices on vibrate or turn them off during class.

Instructor permission is required prior to using a laptop in class. A laptop computer used in class should be employed strictly for class related activities.

Cheating/Plagiarism:

Cheating of any kind is not acceptable and will not be tolerated. Some of the more common types of academic dishonesty relate to the following:

Plagiarism – Do not use published and/or unpublished material without acknowledging the source.

Cheating on assignments or projects – Do not collaborate with other students unless it is specifically stated by the instructor that working with others is allowed (e.g., a team project).

Cheating on examinations – Do not acquire from, or give information to, other students about exams. Do not use materials or resources during exams that are not expressly permitted by the instructor.

Penalties for cheating and plagiarism may range from an “F” on a particular assignment, an “F” for the course, to expulsion from the University College. Violators of the University College’s policy on Academic Integrity will be sanctioned.

Assignment submission:

Students are expected to be highly motivated to undertake any assignment and also submit them on time. They must maintain organised work habits and be willing to work hard to attain the benefits of the course.

The student must demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of concepts through the assignments and quizzes.

To receive credit, all assignments are to be delivered on the date specified at the time the assignment was given.

Referencing:

All works that are used in assignments must be fully referenced.

Schedule

Week 1	***Content***	***Objectives***	***Activities***
	Introduction to Parts of Speech and their functions	*Learners will be able to:* Identify the parts of speech - Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs, Pronouns, Prepositions, etc. Identify the functional relevance of each word class in sentence construction. Use the parts of speech/ word class appropriately in sentences.	Students will be tasked to identify selected word classes in a paragraph. Students, with guidance from the lecturer, will explore the various roles/ positions of the selected word class in a paragraph. Students will be given a paragraph to independently identify the various roles/ positions of the selected parts of speech in the paragraph

Week 2	Introduction to Parts of Speech and their functions	Identify the parts of speech - Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives and Adverbs, Conjunctions, Determiners, etc. Identify the functional relevance of each of the parts of speech in sentence construction. Use the parts of speech appropriately in sentences.	Students will be given a paragraph to independently identify the various roles/ positions of the selected parts of speech in the paragraph
Week 3	Clauses and Phrases	Understanding Phrases (Noun Phrase, Verbal Phrase, Adjectival Phrase, Adverbial Phrase, Gerund Phrase) -Understand and identify the various types of phrases -Identify the functional relevance of phrases in sentence construction and meaning making -Use phrases appropriately in sentences and properly construct them	Students will be tasked to identify phrases/clauses in sentences. Students will explore the differences between the various types of phrases/clauses. Students will be given sentences to independently identify their functional types. Students will be tasked to identify phrases in

			sentences that will be given to them. Students, with guidance from the lecturer, will explore the differences in the various types of phrases. Students will be given sentences to independently identify the roles of phrases in sentences.
Week 4	Sentences and Sentence Types	Identify the functional types of clauses declarative, imperative, interrogatory, and exclamatory. Identify the structural types of sentences – simple, compound, complex, compound-complex Use clauses appropriately in sentences and properly construct them	Students will be given sentences to identify their structural and functional types.
Week 5	Concord (grammatical proximity, notional & pronoun)	Understand the relationship of agreement between subjects and verbs in sentences	Students will be given a paragraph with wrong subject verb agreement to

		Identify the rules that govern the concord relationship in sentences Properly construct sentences with the appropriate concord forms	rewrite to make all the verbs agree with the subjects
Week 6	Punctuation marks	Understand the role of punctuation marks in meaning making in sentences. Know when to use each of the punctuation marks in English Full stop, Comma, Semi-colon, Colon, Hyphen, Dash, Ellipsis, Apostrophe, Question mark, Quotation mark, Exclamation Mark, Capital Letter, Parenthesis, Bracket. Understand the implications of using wrong punctuation marks in sentences.	Students will be given sentences that are not properly punctuated to re-write by correcting them

Week 7	Faulty Sentences (comma spliced sentences, sentence fragments, run-on sentences, misplaced modifiers, dangling modifiers & faulty parallelism)	Tell what constitutes a faulty sentence. Give some common errors committed in sentence constructions. Learn how to correct these errors in sentences. Understand the role of modifiers in sentences.	Students will identify faults in given sentences and correct them.
Week 8	Formal and Informal language	Identify the characteristics of formal and informal language – Formal language uses formal vocabulary, uses full forms of words, avoids jargons/slang, usually uses the 3rd person pronoun, uses the passive voice, avoids hesitation fillers, etc. Informal language is characterised by jargons, contracted forms, informal language/colloquialisms, uses idioms/phrasal verbs, etc.	Students will read a given text to identify the type of text used by identifying the characteristics/features.
Week 9		Identify the features/principles of an effective paragraph –	Choosing their own topics, students will be tasked to develop a

	The structure of the paragraph	unity, coherence, completeness, use of transitions. Compose topic sentences with clear subjects and controlling ideas.	paragraph on a given topic sentence.
Week 10	Methods of paragraph development	Read paragraphs and be able to identify the topic sentence and the method of paragraph development used.	ztudents will be given topic sentences to develop into paragraphs
Week 11	The Essay Structure	The essay is divided into three main parts; the introduction, the body and the conclusion. These various parts are put together coherently using appropriate transitions to form a good essay. It must be strictly formal, that is, possess the qualities of formal writing.	Write a good thesis statement based a given topic and develop it into an academic essay.
Week 12	The Essay Structure	The essay is divided into three main parts; the introduction, the body and the conclusion. These various parts are put together coherently using appropriate transitions to form a good essay. It must be strictly formal, that is, possess the qualities of formal writing.	Write a good thesis statement based a given topic and develop it into an academic essay.
Week 13	**REVISION WEEK**		

Week 14	Start of examinations

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I have read the participant information sheet and the nature and purpose of the study has been explained to me by Mrs. Evelyn Joyce Mandor, a doctoral student of the University of Venda, South Africa.

I understand that I need to avail myself to be used in this study. I further understand that I need to participate in some written assignments which would be analysed by the researcher in order to ascertain the challenges students have with their English language writing.

I also understand that all the information and the responses that I will provide will be treated as confidential and will be used for the purpose of the research only.

During the study, I shall be available for all activities of the study as well as willingly participate in the exercises to facilitate the study. I understand that while the information gained during the study may be published, I will not be identified anywhere in the study through my real names.

I am also aware that I can withdraw from the research study without penalty.

Name of the participant……...
Signature of the participant……
Country of origin……...
Linguistic Background ……..
Date……..

For further information, please contact:

Evelyn Joyce Mandor
Tel.: +233 244 755203
E-mail: evelyn.mandor@wiuc-ghana.edu.gh

Department of Language Arts
Wisconsin International University College
P. O. Box LG 751
Legon, Accra

The Dean
Office of the Dean of Students
Wisconsin International University College
P. O. Box 751
Legon, Accra

Dear Sir/Madam,

REQUEST FOR AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT WISCONSIN INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE.

My name is Evelyn Joyce Mandor, a doctoral student of the University of Venda, South Africa. I am conducting a research on the topic: “Analysis of English Language Errors in the Writing of Second Year Students in a Ghanaian University”.

The study is being conducted under the supervision of Prof. EK Klu and Dr. MN Lambani of the University of Venda, South Africa, and Prof. GSK Adika of the Language Centre, University of Ghana.

This is a single case qualitative study which involves Wisconsin International University College. The study involves participants in the second year from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, School of Communication Studies and School of Business Studies. The study also requires me to sample participants’ class assignments and exercises to identify the types of English language errors they may commit in their writing. In addition, the study will enable me find out whether the academic intervention given to students in the first year (Level 100) has been effective.

If the students consent to participate in the study, please be assured that their anonymity and confidentiality will be guaranteed. Participants' voluntary participation will also be safeguarded, and the content of the study will solely be used for the purpose of the study.

I am hereby seeking your consent to carry on the study among the selected second year undergraduate students of the institution.
If granted permission, I promise to by abide by all rules and regulations governing researchers in the university.

An ethical clearance from the University of Venda, South Africa, would be submitted when it is received.

For further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Evelyn Joyce Mandor (Mrs.)

Tel.: +233 244 755203
E-mail: evelyn.mandor@wiuc-ghana.edu.gh

University of Ghana
Language Centre
P. O. Box LG 119
Legon

July 18, 2019

The Registrar
Wisconsin International University College, Ghana
P .O. Box LG 75
Legon, Accra

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I write to introduce MS. EVELYN JOYCE MANDOR, a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) student of University of Venda (UNIVEN), South Africa, to your institution.

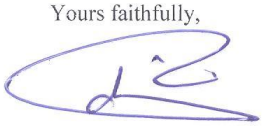
Ms. Evelyn J. Mandor has proposed Wisconsin International University College, Ghana, as her site for her study on the topic: ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE ERRORS IN THE WRITINGS OF SECOND YEAR STUDENTS IN A GHANAIAN UNIVERSITY. The study is being conducted under the supervision of Prof. E.K. Klu, University of Venda, South Africa, Prof. G.S.K. Adika, Language Centre, University of Ghana and Dr. M.N. Lambani, University of Venda, South Africa.

The study, which is qualitative in nature, requires her to use the written assignments of a group of second year students of the university.

Your co-operation and assistance would be very much appreciated to enable her conduct her research successfully.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,



PROF. GORDON S.K. ADIKA
Co-supervisor

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University of Ghana
Language Centre
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July 18, 2019

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Yours faithfully,

PROF. GORDON S.K. ADIKA
Co-supervisor

gskadika@ug.edu.gh
0246611163

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

I am Evelyn Joyce Mandor, a doctoral student of the Department of English, University of Venda, South Africa. I am researching on the topic, “Analysis of English Language Errors in the Writing of Second Year Students in a Ghanaian University”.

This is a single case qualitative study which involves Wisconsin International University College. The study involves participants in the second year from the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, School of Communication Studies and School of Business Studies. The study also requires me to sample participants’ class assignments and exercises to identify the types of English language errors students may commit in their writing. In addition, the study will enable me find out whether the academic intervention given to students in first year (Level 100) has been effective.

You will have to fill-in a consent form if you agree to participate in this study, and also indicate your nationality and linguistic background. Kindly note that any information you provide will be treated with utmost confidentiality. You will also not be identified in any of the study reports. You will remain anonymous in all verbal and written records and reports.

For further information, contact me through:

Tel.: +233 244 755203
E-mail: evelyn.mandor@wiuc-ghana.edu.gh

Thank you.