

Aspects of Written English Language Errors Made by Level-One Students in a South African University

by

VINCENT NDISHUNWANI DEMANA

Student Number:9424056

A

**Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
English (ENG 7000)**

to the

**Department of English, Media Studies, and Linguistics
Faculty of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education**

University of Venda

Thohoyandou, Limpopo

South Africa

Supervisor: Prof. E.K. Klu

Co-supervisors: Dr M.J. Maluleke

Dr P. Kaburise

2022

DECLARATION

I, Ndishunwani Vincent Demana, hereby declare that “Aspects of Written English Language Errors Made by Level-One Students in a South African University” submitted by me for the PhD degree at the University of Venda, has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and execution and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.



Signature: _____

Date: 17 November 2022

ABSTRACT

Several researchers have raised concerns regarding the perpetual decline of the standard of English proficiency of South African university students in their written production. To be able to cope with university studies and everyday communication in English, a student must have the required proficiency in English language usage for tertiary education. Majority of them, however, still produce erroneous English utterances in their oral and written performances. As a result, this study was intended to investigate the errors in a corpus of essays written by level-one students at a South African university. To achieve the objectives of the study, fifty (50) essays written by level-one students who had registered for English Communication Skills (ECS1541) in the 2021 academic year were analysed. Cluster sampling was used to select the research participants. The study adopted document analysis technique in which data were collected by means of an essay task on a given topic. The study adopted a combination of the Linguistic category and the Surface structure taxonomies to allow a more comprehensive examination and description of errors from different analytical perspectives. The findings revealed that the students committed a total of 445 errors in their written productions. They were errors of omission (41.35%), addition (26.29%) and misformation (32.36%). These errors were further broken down to the following language aspects: copula 'be' and other auxiliaries 92 (21%), third person singular 81 (18%), pronoun 79 (18%), preposition 62 (14%), plural marker '-s/-es' 59 (13%), article 32 (7.2%), coordinating conjunction 'and' 16 (3.6%), apostrophe 's and possessive 's 14 (3.1%) and past tense markers 10 (2.2%). The possible causes of errors committed were ascribed to a variety of factors including cross-

linguistic differences between English and the students' L1, overgeneralisation, carelessness on the part of the student, insufficient mastery of the English language system and hypercorrection resulting from the students' strict observance and over-caution regarding the English language structure. Based on the study findings, the study recommends strategies that may offer invaluable insights to English language teachers, module facilitators and curriculum designers operating in similar contexts.

Keywords: addition errors, error, error analysis, linguistic category taxonomy, misformation errors, mistake, omission errors, surface structure taxonomy

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to:

The memory of my late parents, Mr. Munzhedzi Nelson Demana and Mrs. Musundwa Nyamukamadi Demana.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I am greatly indebted to my promoter, Professor E.K. Klu, for his invaluable assistance, advice, and encouragement in making this dissertation a reality. Had it not been for him, this work would simply not have been possible.

I sincerely thank my able co-promoters, Dr MJ Maluleke, and Dr P Kaburise for their mentorship and for all the inconvenience they had to endure towards the completion of this work.

To my siblings Mbudzeni Pinky Mabongo, Dr Mboniseni Rejoice Maphangwa, Vhengani Uelendar Mbedzi and Mashudu Margaret Demana for your support and encouragement.

To my wife, Mokhadi; my children, Themba, Rabelani, Mulisa and Mukoni, my grandchildren Riwawe and Wavhuthu, I owe all of them sincere apology and sincere thanks for their forbearance while I left them for hours on end, doing the study and the write-up.

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 The procedure of Contrastive Analysis.....	26
Figure 2.2. The IL Continuum.....	37
Figure 2.3. Psycholinguistic sources of errors.....	70
Figure 3.1. Map of the Study area.....	111
Figure 4.1: Frequency of grammatical errors.....	130
Figure 5.1: Hierarchical order of the frequency of errors.....	181

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Error of Double Marking in L2 Production.....	89
Table 2.2 Simple Addition Error.....	90
Table 3.1: Example of Table of Type of Errors.....	119
Table 4.1: Gender of the research participants	126
Table 4.2: Age of the research participants.....	126
Table 4.3: Home Language of the research participants.....	127
Table 4.4: The results of the error type and frequency	129
Table 4.5: Omission of copula 'be'.....	131
Table 4.6: Omission of the third person singular marker '-s/-es'	132
Table 4.7: Omission of preposition.....	134
Table 4.8: Omission of pronoun.....	135
Table 4.9: Omission of article.....	136
Table 4.10: Omission of plural marker 's' or 'es'.....	138
Table 4.11: Omission of coordinating conjunction 'and'.....	139
Table 4.12: Addition of copula 'be'.....	141
Table 4.13: Addition of other auxiliaries.....	142
Table 4.14: Addition of third person singular marker 's'.....	144
Table 4.15: Addition of prepositions.....	145
Table 4.16: Addition of pronoun.....	147
Table 4.17: Addition of article.....	149
Table 4.18: Addition of past tense marker '-ed'	150
Table 4.19: Addition of Plural form of morpheme.....	152
Table 4.20: Addition of apostrophe 's' and possessive 's'.....	153
Table 4.21: Misformation of auxiliary 'be'.....	155
Table 4.22: Misformation of other auxiliaries.....	156
Table 4.23: Misformation of preposition.....	158
Table 4.24: Misformation of pronoun	160
Table 4.25: Misformation of article.....	161
Table 4.26: Misformation of plural marker 's' or 'es'.....	163

Table 4.27: Misformation of apostrophe 's' and possessive 's'.....	165
Table 4.28: Misformation of concord: third person singular marker 's'.....	167
Table 5.1: Frequency of recurrence of language aspects.....	182

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CA:	Contrastive Analysis
EA:	Error Analysis
ECS:	English Communication Skills
EFAL:	English First Additional Language
EFL	English Foreign Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FL:	Foreign Language
IL:	Interlanguage
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
LAD:	Language Acquisition Device
LOLT:	Language of teaching and Learning
MT:	Mother Tongue
NL:	Native Language
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TL:	Target Language

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents

DECLARATION	i
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem	5
1.3 Aim of the Study	6
1.4 Objectives of The Study	6
1.5 Research Questions	6
1.6 Research Assumptions	7
1.7 Significance of the Study.....	7
1.8 Delimitation of The Study	8
1.9 Theoretical Framework/Literature Review: A Vignette.....	8
1.10 Approach to the analysis of learner English	10
1.10.1 Stage One: Recognition of the Error	12
1.10.2 Stage Two: Description of the Error.....	14
1.10.3 Stage Three: Explanation of the Error.....	14
1.11 The Practical benefits of Error Analysis	15
1.12 Previous studies on Error Analysis	15
1.13 Methodology.....	18
1.13.1 Research site	18
1.13.2 Population of the study.....	19
1.13.3 Sampling and sample size	19

1.13.4 Data collection	20
1.13.5 Data analysis	20
1.13.6 Ethical considerations	21
1.14 Organisation of the Study	21
1.15 Chapter Summary	22
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW	23
2.1 Introduction	23
2.2 An overview of errors	23
2.3 Approaches to the study of errors	26
2.3.1 Contrastive Analysis	26
2.3.1.1 Application of CA in Linguistics	28
2.3.2 Interlanguage	31
2.3.2.1 Selinker's definition of interlanguage	32
2.3.2.2 Nemser's definition of interlanguage	34
2.3.2.3 Corder's definition of interlanguage	34
2.3.2.4 Theoretical assumptions of interlanguage	35
2.3.2.5 Interlanguage as a continuum of styles	38
2.3.2.6 Characteristics of interlanguage	40
2.3.2.7 Fossilisation	43
2.3.2.7.1 Definitions and description of fossilisation	43
2.3.2.7.2 Krashen's view of fossilisation	46
2.3.2.8 Psycholinguistic processes according to interlanguage	52
2.3.2.8.1 Language transfer	53
2.3.2.8.2 Strategies of L2 communication	55
2.3.2.8.3 Strategies of second language learning	57
2.3.3 Error Analysis Approach	60
2.3.3.1 Procedures of Error Analysis	62
2.3.3.1.1 Collection of a sample of learner language	63
2.3.3.1.2 Identification of errors	65
2.3.3.1.3 Description of errors	65
2.3.3.1.4 Explanation of errors	68
2.3.3.1.5 Evaluation of errors	69
2.3.3.2 Types of Errors	70

2.3.3.2.1 Global and local errors.....	70
2.3.3.2.2 Competence errors and performance errors.....	71
2.3.3.2.3 Productive and receptive errors.....	72
2.3.3.2.4 Overtly erroneous and covertly erroneous sentences.....	72
2.3.3.3 Significance of learners' errors.....	73
2.3.3.4 Sources of Errors.....	76
2.3.3.4.1 Interlingual errors.....	77
2.3.3.4.2 Intralingual errors.....	80
2.3.3.5 Taxonomies of Error Analysis.....	89
2.3.3.5.1 Linguistic Category Taxonomy.....	89
2.3.3.5.2 Surface Strategy Taxonomy.....	89
2.3.3.5.3 Comparative Analysis Taxonomy.....	93
2.3.3.5.4 Communicative Effect Taxonomy.....	94
2.3.4 Previous studies on Error Analysis.....	95
2.3.5 Chapter Summary.....	102
CHAPTER THREE.....	103
RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODS, AND METHODOLOGY.....	103
3.1 Introduction.....	103
3.2 Methodology.....	103
3.2.1 Quantitative approach.....	105
3.2.2 Qualitative Approach.....	106
3.2.3 Mixed Methods.....	110
3.3 Research site.....	112
3.4 Population of the study.....	114
3.5 Sampling and sample size.....	115
3.5.1 Random sampling.....	115
3.5.2 Probability sampling.....	116
3.6 Data collection.....	118
3.7 Data analysis.....	119
3.8 Reliability, Validity, Confirmability and Generalisability.....	121
3.9 Ethical considerations.....	124
3.10 Chapter Summary.....	126

CHAPTER FOUR	127
PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA.....	127
4.1 Introduction	127
4.2 Biographical information of the study participants.....	127
4.3 Types of errors	131
4.3.1 Omission.....	133
4.3.1.1 Omission of the copula ‘be’	133
4.3.1.2 Omission of the third person singular marker ‘-s/-es’	134
4.3.1.3 Omission of preposition.....	135
4.3.1.4 Omission of pronoun.....	137
4.3.1.5 Omission of article.....	138
4.3.1.6 Omission of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’	140
4.3.1.7 Omission of coordinating conjunction ‘and’	141
4.3.2 Addition.....	143
4.3.2.1 Addition of copula ‘be’	143
4.3.2.2 Addition of other auxiliaries	144
4.3.2.3 Addition of third person singular marker ‘-s’	146
4.3.2.4 Addition of preposition.....	147
4.3.2.5 Addition of pronoun.....	149
4.3.2.6 Addition of article.....	151
4.3.2.7 Addition of past tense marker ‘-ed’	152
4.3.2.8 Addition of singular/plural form of a morpheme.....	154
4.3.2.9 Addition of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’	155
4.3.3 Misformation	157
4.3.3.1 Misformation of auxiliary ‘be’	157
4.3.3.2 Misformation of other auxiliaries	159
4.3.3.3 Misformation of preposition	160
4.3.3.4 Misformation of pronoun.....	162
4.3.3.5 Misformation of article	164
4.3.3.6 Misformation of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’	165
4.3.3.7 Misformation of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’.....	167
4.3.3.8 Misformation of concord: third person singular marker ‘s’	169
4.4 Comparison of the Overall Findings of the Study with Results of Previous Studies.....	171

4.4 Possible root causes of errors made in each category	175
4.4.1 The copula ‘be’ and other auxiliaries	176
4.4.2 Subject verb agreement (third person singular ‘-s/ -es’)	176
4.4.3 Prepositions	177
4.4.4 Plural forms	178
4.4.5 Articles	180
4.4.6 Pronouns	181
4.4.7 Genitive possessive case	182
4.4.8 Coordinating conjunction ‘and’	182
4.5 Chapter Summary	183
CHAPTER FIVE	185
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	185
5.1 Introduction	185
5.2 Overview of the summary of the findings of the study	185
5.3 Pedagogical Implications.....	188
5.3.1 Frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors.....	189
5.3.2 Planning remedial material and teaching strategies to curtail the situation of students’ academic language.....	191
5.4 Limitations of the Study	194
5.5 Recommendations for Future Research	196
REFERENCES.....	198
Appendix A: Students’ errors.....	218
Appendix B: Home language of the participants	250
Appendix C: Consent Letter	252
Appendix D: Ethical Clearance Certificate	256

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

South Africa is a multilingual and multicultural country with eleven official languages. English, however, remains a *de facto* lingua franca at most South African universities. At most historically disadvantaged South African universities, majority of level-one students come from non-English speaking environment and hardly communicate in English outside the university campus - and even on campus, they mainly communicate in their home languages such as Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, Setswana, Sesotho, isiNdebele, siSwati, isiZulu, Afrikaans, and isiNdebele.

Of the eleven South African languages, English has a strong and profound presence in the education system in view of its importance as a language of education, trade, commerce as well as for scientific, industrial, and technological advancement. It is taught as one of the compulsory subjects in both public and private schools starting from Grade 4 in public schools and from Grade 1 in private schools for a total of nine years and twelve years respectively. Similarly, English Communication Skills, an academic support programme, is a mandatory requirement in most South African universities for all students irrespective of their different majors.

Manyike and Munyaradzi (2022) assert that in the contemporary globalization, English has gained prominence as a medium of instruction in the higher education landscape

worldwide, including in non-English speaking countries like South Africa. Therefore, proficiency in English Language is a necessity for success at all levels.

Unfortunately, most level-one students at South African universities have not acquired the expected proficiency in English language usage for tertiary education and still produce erroneous English utterances in their oral and written performances although they have studied English for over nine or twelve years at both primary and secondary schools (Nzama, 2000). This is supported by the Council on Higher Education (CHE) (2013) which shows that approximately 55% of students who enroll for undergraduate programmes in South African universities never graduate and most drop out in their first year because of their inadequate mastery of the English language.

This observation is strengthened by Khumalo and Reddy (2021) who aver that most students in South African tertiary institutions struggle with learning and maintaining the required academic writing processes because they have less-than-optimal academic literacy backgrounds, having gone through under-resourced rural schools.

The poor achievement of majority of the students in acquiring adequate English language skills despite being exposed to English language for many years has raised many concerns among educators and researchers in Southern Africa, Africa and globally (Mungungu, 2010; Amoakohene, 2017; Okoro, 2017; Emvula; 2018, Khumalo & Reddy, 2021; Mandor, 2021; and Munyaradzi & Manyike, 2022).

Error Analysis is an indispensable source of information for language practitioners that can be used to provide information on students' errors. It can be applied in the diagnosis, identification, and correction of students' errors as well as in the improvement of teaching strategies to curtail those errors. To highlight the importance of Error Analysis, Michaelides (1990:30) avows that using Error Analysis to analyse students' errors can play a pivotal role to all those concerned, i.e., lecturers, teachers, students, and the researchers. Similarly, Richards et al. (1996:127) aver that Error Analysis is conducted to identify strategies which learners use in language learning to track the causes of learner's errors, obtain information on common difficulties in language learning and on how to prepare teaching materials.

Several studies have been conducted at various institutions of higher learning to investigate the errors committed by students in their English usage. The research done by Mandor (2021), for instance, focuses on procedures to analyse errors in the writings of Second Year students at a Ghanaian university. The findings of the study revealed that the students exhibited poor writing skills with inherent grammatical errors, and lack of cohesion and coherence.

Maolida and Hidayat (2021) adopted Error Analysis to investigate the common errors in a corpus of letters written by 22 EFL students from one of the senior schools in Cianjur. Their aim was to discover the written errors committed by the research participants, classify them according to the surface structure taxonomy, and further identify most dominant type of error. The research findings showed that from a total of 68 data of the errors, a total of 25 (36.76%) data belonged to addition which is the most dominant error

type, 20 (29.41%) data belonged to omission, 19 (27.94) data belonged to misinformation, and only 4 (5.88%) belonged to misordering errors.

Emvula (2018) also adopted Error Analysis to analyse common grammatical writing errors in a corpus of 300 essays written by Namibian Grade 7 learners. The findings revealed that the learners made several grammatical errors in the following seven error categories: tenses, articles, prepositions, singular/plurals, subject-verb agreement and word choice.

Other studies on Error Analysis include studies by Roos (1990), Manthata (1991), Hinson and Park (2009), Nzama (2010), Mungungu (2010), Hariri (2012), Pineteh (2013), Swalmeneh (2013), Sajid et al. (2016), Quibol-Catabay (2016), Amoakohene (2017), Okoro (2017), Khumalo and Reddy (2021) and Munyaradzi and Manyike (2022).

Research studies have revealed that students who are learning English as a second or foreign language at various levels of education globally, commit language errors, and South Africa is no exception as illustrated by Roos (1990), Manthata (1991), Nzama (2010), Pineteh (2013), Khumalo and Reddy (2021), Munyaradzi and Manyike (2022).

However, with all the several Error Analysis studies that abound especially at several institutions of higher learning and secondary schools in Southern Africa, Africa and globally, I am yet to find a study that has adopted a combination of the linguistic taxonomy and the Surface structure taxonomy to analyse the written English structural errors culled from students' written productions in the context of level-one students at a South African university. It is based on this research gap that the current study sought to explore and

typify the errors in the essays of first year students at a South African university and thus, suggest strategies aimed at improving the academic proficiency of the students in question.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Majority of level-one students at a South African university have not acquired the expected proficiency in English language usage for tertiary education (Nzama, 2010; Pineteh, 2013; Khumalo & Reddy, 2021; Munyaradzi & Manyike, 2022). They produce persistent structural written errors which impede their ability to communicate intelligibly in English despite their ten years or more exposure to English at both primary and secondary schools. Most of them come from non-English speaking environment and hardly communicate in English outside the university campus - and even on campus, they mainly communicate in their home languages (Pineteh, 2013; Khumalo & Reddy, 2021).

In the selected university for the study, English Communication Skills is taught as a language-orientated and study skills course designed to help first-entering students cope with university studies and everyday communication in English. It consists of two modules of 15 weeks each. The first semester module is a core module which must be taken by all first-year students from all faculties enrolling for the first time, but also those from other groups who are repeating the ECS course. Despite the intervention of English Communication Skills, the gravity of the students' written errors calls for attention considering that these students are soon-to-be graduates who will come into society to

apply the knowledge and language skills that they have gained from the university. This, therefore, is the problem underpinning this study.

1.3 Aim of the Study

The aim of the study was to analyse a corpus of essays written by level-one students at a South African university to help find their errors and thus help improve the academic literacy levels of the students in question.

1.4 Objectives of The Study

The objectives of this study are:

- To analyse the types of English structural errors that are committed by level one students at a South African university.
- To determine the possible root causes of English structural errors committed by level one students at a South African university.
- To come up with remedial strategies to curtail the current situation of students' academic language.

1.5 Research Questions

The following are the research questions underpinning the study:

- What are the types of English structural errors committed by level one students at a South African university?
- What are the possible root causes for the English structural errors committed by level one students at a South African university?

- Which remedial strategies can be employed to curtail the current situation of students' academic language?

1.6 Research Assumptions

The following assumptions underpin this study:

- Due to poor educational background, level-one students at a South African university commit structural errors in their English utterances.
- Level-one students at a South African university commit lexical and grammatical errors due to certain factors.
- Errors committed by level-one students at a South African university are attributed to interference or interlanguage and other factors such as carelessness and overgeneralisation.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study seeks to shed light on the types of English structural errors committed by level-one students at a South African university which may, in turn, assist English Communication Skills and English Language Major lecturers to design strategies that can be employed to remedy the English language structural errors committed by their students, particularly when developing English teaching materials. The study can also be used by curriculum developers, either at schools or universities as a model for improving effective English teaching materials and methodology.

1.8 Delimitation of The Study

The study was delimited to level-one students who had registered for English Communication Skills at a South African university in the 2021 academic year. The data collected were from essays written by these students and therefore, the results may not be generalised.

1.9 Theoretical Framework/Literature Review: A Vignette

This study adopted an adapted Error Analysis approach for the study of errors committed by level-one students at a South African university. Brown (1980) defines Error Analysis as process to observe, analyze and classify the deviations of the rules of second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learners. In the same vein, Crystal (1987) defines Error Analysis as a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. The primary principle in the adopted approach was to provide a framework for identification and ordering of errors in terms of distributional occurrences and to identify possible psycholinguistic explanation for the origin of each identified error.

The occurrence of non-target sentences provides evidence of the learners' ability to form and test the assumptions about the nature of the target language. The existence of deviations from the target language norm provides clues of cognitive activities as well as evidence of active learning processes. Error Analysis is central to the understanding of this process.

The basic assumption of Error Analysis is that learners are regarded as creating for themselves an explanation of the structural properties of the target language. In view of this, Dulay and Burt (1973) refer to the second language learner as a 'cognitive organizer or creative constructor'. Deviations from the target language norm arise when the type of universal cognitive processing strategies do not lead to the formulation of assumptions which result in the creation of target-like sentences.

This study adopted the method and procedures for Error Analysis approach expounded by Corder (1973). The term 'errors' is used to identify and distinguish the non-target sentences in the written tasks of level-one students. The rationale of using Error Analysis approach in this study was to provide explanations of the nature and origin of non-target like sentences by proposing a psycholinguistic origin in terms of learners' strategies and creative abilities. This study adopted the following series of successive steps in the Error Analysis approach proposed by Theo van Els et al. (1984: 47):

- (i) identification
- (ii) description
- (iii) explanation
- (iv) evaluation
- (v) prevention/correction

Corder (1973) avers that the identification of deviant sentences involves the interpretation of non-target like sentences in context because utterances must correlate to the linguistic environment. Corder makes a distinction between sentences that are overtly deviant and those that are covertly deviant. He asserts that sentences which are overtly deviant are

without doubt, ungrammatical in respect of the target language norm whereas sentences which are covertly deviant are grammatically well-formed in terms of the target language norm, but inappropriate in the context in which they occur. Therefore, the process of identification and description of the origin and nature of the non-target like sentences should be based on the context in which they occur.

The following preliminary literature review is aimed at evaluating the contributions and underlying postulations of the theory of Error Analysis to second language learning.

1.10 Approach to the analysis of learner English

There are three approaches to the analysis of 'learner English' namely, contrastive analysis, Error Analysis and transfer analysis. The three approaches mainly differ in focus. Contrastive Analysis focuses on predicting learners' errors by comparing the linguistic differences between the learner's native language and the target language (Ellis, 2008: 47). On the other hand, transfer analysis compares the 'learner English' with the mother tongue and attempts to explain the structure of those errors that can be traced to language transfer. Error Analysis compares the 'learner English' with English (target language) itself and judges how learners have deviated.

The present study focused on Error Analysis. Error Analysis does not take account of the learner's native language in the description of learner's errors (James, 1998), but seeks to gain access to the 'transitional competence' or 'Interlanguage' of the second language learner for two main reasons: its description and explanation of its systematic nature. Following this technique, Corder (1981) suggests six hypotheses:

- (i) Interlanguage expressions have a communicative function and are systematic. This suggests that deviant expressions are part of the overall system, and, thus, ought to be equal in importance to the researcher.
- (ii) Interlanguage is a system which is neither the first language nor the full second language, but includes characteristics of both, and even some characteristics which do not belong to either system.
- (iii) The learner possesses a degree of competence in the second language referred to as 'transitional competence' which can be described in the same way as his competence in the first language.
- (iv) Not all utterances generated by the second language learners are signs of an underlying system which Corder refers to as a 'built-in system. Some utterances in Interlanguage might be isomorphic with those of the second language, that is, correct by the second language norms, but occur only by chance. To be part of the built-in system, both the deviant and non-deviant forms should occur with a minimum of consistency.
- (v) Interlanguage is expressed as an autonomous system like any other linguistic system.
- (vi) The errors are not to be regarded as harmful for the learner, but ought to be regarded as indicators that the learner is in the route of making hypotheses and testing them to find out the nature of the second language rules.

Corder (1973) asserts that Error Analysis should follow the following three stages:

1.10.1 Stage One: Recognition of the Error

At this stage, the analyst should distinguish and separate between errors which reveal a contravention of the code, that is, errors of competence, and those which are accidental, that is, errors of performance. According to Corder (1973), errors of performance (lapses and mistakes) are not important as they are common even among first language speakers themselves. In the same vein, Chomsky (1965) pointed out that “A record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from the rules, changes of plan in mid-course and so on”. Corder asserts that errors of competence as opposed to errors of performance are of value to the error analyst as they show how far the learner has gone in the mastery of the target language rules.

Before Corder, errors were divided according to the following levels of structural analysis: phonology, morphology, lexis and syntax. Hymes (1972) added the notion of communicative competence to complete Chomsky’ linguistic competence, and with the spread and development of sociolinguistics research, the notion of pragmatic level was added to the classification of errors. Apart from grammatical errors in the broadest sense of grammar, which include errors of phonology, morphology, lexis, and syntax; Corder, motivated by Hymes, added appropriateness, feasibility, and probability. The four yardsticks for evaluating learners’ errors became:

- (i) Grammaticality (acceptability): An utterance is said to be grammatical or acceptable when it is possible in formal terms. When a learner utters *‘What can I does’, the deviation is grammatical.

- (ii) Appropriateness: An utterance may be grammatical but not necessarily appropriate. This occurs when an utterance deviates from the sociocultural norms of the target language. When a learner utters * ‘Good morning, pal’ is an utterance which is grammatically not erroneous, but when addressed to the learner’s teacher, it shows ignorance of the status relationship between the speaker and the hearer.
- (iii) Feasibility: At times, an utterance may be both grammatical and appropriate without being feasible. An utterance is said to be not feasible when it is not easily understandable or not “perfectly natural and immediately comprehensible without paper and pen analysis, and in no way, bizarre and outlandish” (Chomsky, 1965:10).
- (iv) Probability: An utterance may be grammatical, appropriate, and feasible but not probable. If a second language learner utters *“My classmate boiled his assignment”, it is grammatical, appropriate, feasible, but it is out of the sphere of common usage and, so, not probable. It is only if such an utterance is from a famous poet or writer that it can be tolerated.

Accordingly, an utterance is said to be correct on condition that it satisfies both Chomsky’s linguistic competence, which entails the underlying knowledge of the linguistic rules and Del Hymes’ communicative competence which includes knowledge of the sociolinguistic norms.

Corder (1973) also draws a distinction between covert and overt errors. An overt error is an error that is readily interpretable as part of the learner’s idiosyncratic dialect such as

*“He quit smoking last year’. Here the error is obviously perceived as an error of tense. On the other hand, when a Tshivenda speaker of English utters *“I want to know English”. It may be a covert error if what he means is “I want to know the English people’ and not “I want to learn English”.

1.10.2 Stage Two: Description of the Error

During the second stage, the error analyst describes the process through which the learner goes to end up with a deviant item or idiosyncrasy. This implies a reconstruction of the utterance according to the target language norm, which means a description of what the learner intends. This might seem as a simpler task, particularly as compared to the previous stage, but it signifies no fewer problems.

1.10.3 Stage Three: Explanation of the Error

During this stage, the analyst attempts to trace the origin of the error. The analyst might perceive the error as interference from the native language or any other linguistic system, drawing parallels between the erroneous forms and those of the source language. The analyst may eventually conclude that the source of the error is one of the developmental process in learning such as overgeneralization of the rules of the target language. It also happens at times that some errors are not readily interpretable and defy all explanations. This last stage of Error Analysis is regarded as the most delicate stage due to the large number of possibilities open to the error analyst. This stage also depends on the analyst’s views about language and language learning.

1.11 The Practical benefits of Error Analysis

Error Analysis is a section of the methodology of language learning to assist language practitioners in dealing with the difficulties that second language learners encounter.

According to Sujoko (1989), Error Analysis offers the following practical benefits:

- (i) Errors provide feedback; they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques.
- (ii) They show the teacher the parts of the syllabus that have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention.
- (iii) They enable the teacher to decide how much time and effort needs to be devoted to which areas. This is the day-to-day value of Error Analysis.
- (iv) They provide the information for designing a remedial syllabus or a programme of re-teaching.

The above information clearly illustrates that adopting Error Analysis helps to analyse errors made by learners to reveal something about the system through observation, classification, identification, separation, and description.

1.12 Previous studies on Error Analysis

This section presents an overview of the main findings of previous Error Analysis studies regarding structural errors committed by English second and foreign language from different language backgrounds in the literature.

Okoro (2017) carried out a study on “*Error Analysis of the Written English Essays of Junior Secondary School Two Students in Owerri North*”. The study findings revealed that the

errors committed by the study participants were due to mother tongue interference, intralingual transfer and carelessness.

Similarly, Amoakohene (2017) analysed fifty students' scripts to investigate the errors committed by first-year students of the University of Health and Allied Sciences in Ghana. The findings of his study revealed that after having undergone the Academic and Communication Skills programme for two semesters, the first-year students were not able to effectively apply the rules of usage in the English language. Of the fifty scripts that were analysed, a total of 1050 errors were detected. The findings of the study further showed that of the 1050 errors that were detected, 584 (55.6%) were grammatical errors followed by 442 (42%) mechanical errors and 24 (2.3%) errors linked with poor structuring of sentences. According to Amoakohene (2017), the above situation needed immediate attention to save the image of the University of Health and Allied Sciences and to fully equip the graduates from the university in the field of Academic Writing and Communication Skills to enable them to compete with confidence at both the international and local levels.

Sajid et al. (2016) investigated the most common errors committed by students at postgraduate level in English writing skill in Pakistan. The study identified the most common errors to be verb-tense, spelling, inappropriate use of vocabulary and concord. The study drew conclusions that even at the postgraduate level, students still make many errors in their English composition.

Mungungu (2010) also conducted a study to investigate common English language errors made by Oshiwambo, Afrikaans and Silozi First Language speakers in Namibia where errors were analysed in a corpus of 360 compositions written by 180 participants. All the errors were identified and grouped into various types. The study findings revealed that the four most common errors committed by the participants were on tenses, prepositions, articles and spelling.

In South Africa, Nzama (2010) investigated the errors of isiZulu speakers of English in both rural and urban areas. The aim of the study was to identify language errors committed by isiZulu speakers and providing possible causes of these errors. The findings of the study revealed that the main contributing factors to errors committed by the learners were lack of teaching materials and libraries at schools and lack of training in teaching English as a subject. The study findings also revealed that the most common errors committed by the participants were: errors in concord, use of auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, plural formation errors, first language interference, past tense errors and infinitives and word reduction whereby letters were omitted from certain words.

Manthata (1991) carried out a study on Error Analysis in the written English of North Sotho speaking students. The study solely classifies errors into categories, provides possible reasons for their occurrence and frequency count of various categories.

Roos (1990) conducted a syntactic Error Analysis of the written work of Vista University students. Her study recommends that utilisation of remedial feedback which should be in

the form of problem-solving skills which focuses on the most serious or frequent errors which occurred. She argues that the problem-solving skill are more likely to lead the individual student to review his/her hypothesis about the rules that govern the usage of problematic language structures.

The above-mentioned studies are in one way or another, relevant to this study. However, the missing gap that this study seeks to address is to establish the common error types committed by level-one students to gain a better understanding of the rationale if any behind the errors and how the errors can be corrected.

1.13 Methodology

Research methods are fact finding strategies. They are methods for data collection. They can include questionnaires, interviews, observations or focus group discussions. Essentially, the researcher must ensure that the method chosen is valid and reliable. The validity and reliability of any research project depends on the appropriateness of the methods used. Whatever procedure one uses to collect data, it must be critically examined to check the extent to which it is likely to yield the expected results (Walliman, 2011).

1.13.1 Research site

The study was conducted at a South African university, which is situated in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

1.13.2 Population of the study

Burns and Grove (2017) define population as all the elements (individuals, objects and events) that meet the sample criteria for inclusion in a study. The population of this study comprised level one students who had registered for English Communication Skills at a South African university in the 2021 academic year.

1.13.3 Sampling and sample size

It was not going to be possible to use the written essay tasks of all level-one students registered for English Communication Skills at a South African University, therefore the researcher selected the participants by using random sampling strategies. Kalof et al. (2008) define random sampling as a technique whereby samples are selected by randomization in which every member of a population is given an equal opportunity of being included in the sample. Somekh and Lewin (2005) aver that probability sampling produces a sample that provides the researcher with a variation in the population and includes four different types of samples, namely; simple random samples, systematic samples, stratified samples and cluster samples.

Cluster sampling is a quick method that concentrates on a few classes in a school or university. It follows the principle that when the population is large, the researcher selects sub-groups such as a class rather than randomly selecting the whole population (Kalof et al., 2008). Gay et al. (2009) define a cluster as a random selection of any location in which the researchers can find an intact group of population members with similar characteristics such as classrooms, schools, hospitals, and department stores. Cluster samples usually involve less time and expense and are generally more convenient. The

steps involved in cluster sampling are as follows: identifying and defining the population, determining the desired sample size, identifying and defining the logical cluster, listing all the clusters, estimating the average number of population members per cluster, determining the number of clusters needed by dividing the sample size by the estimated size of the cluster, randomly selecting the number of clusters and using a table of random numbers as well as including all population members in each selected cluster.

Students who have had registered for English Communication Skills in the 2021 academic year at a South African university were about 3000 and they were divided into the following twelve groups: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K and L. On average, each group had 250 students and each lecturer taught two groups. Using cluster sampling, only two English Communication Skills groups were selected to represent the whole population. From the two groups, only 50 written essays constituting 10% were considered for analysis.

1.13.4 Data collection

In the current study, the study participants were given an essay writing task of at least one page on the given topic 'University life'. Afterwards, the essays were collected to fulfill the data analysis process.

1.13.5 Data analysis

The analysis of written essay task was derived from Coder's (1967) and Theo van Els et al. (1984) method on Error Analysis which involves the following steps:

- collection of samples of learners' knowledge
- identification of errors
- description of errors

- explaining the errors and
- evaluating and correcting the errors

The taxonomy that was used to classify the learners' errors is the surface structure taxonomy derived from Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) who classified errors into four main categories, namely, omission, addition, misformation and misordering.

The study employed the use of document analysis technique. The researcher marked the participants' essays with the help of selected lecturers from the Department of English to validate the findings. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed to analyse data quantitatively using tables of frequency, percentages mean and standard deviations.

1.13.6 Ethical considerations

Prior to the collection of data, the researcher applied for ethical clearance to conduct the study from a South African University Research Ethics Committee. The researcher observed the ethical guidelines throughout the entire research process. The researcher adhered to the following ethical principles:

- Informed consent
- voluntary participation
- Confidentiality

1.14 Organisation of the Study

The study is divided into the following five chapters:

Chapter One provides the introduction of the study and consists of the introduction and background of the study, statement of the problem, aim of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, definition of key terms, significance of the study, outline of the study and conclusion.

Chapter Two provides a detailed review of relevant literature on works of authorities and other scholars who have focused on most of the psycholinguistic theories that underpin this study.

Chapter Three addresses the research methodology implemented in the study and covers the research approach and design, data collection procedures, population, data collection and sampling techniques, data analysis and ethical consideration.

Chapter Four thoroughly analyses and discusses findings of the study.

Chapter Five presents the summary of the study findings, discussion, conclusion, and suggestions for further research.

1.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a general overview of the entire study and introduced the reader generally to the background of the study, statement of the problem, aim of the study, objectives of the study, research questions and research assumptions underpinning the study. The chapter also took a cursory look at the related fields of Error Analysis. In addition, the chapter also outlined the methodological and research procedural strategies that were adopted to achieve the aim and objectives of the study. Additionally, the chapter outlined the significance and delimitations of the study and concluded with the organizational structure of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the orientation of the study. This chapter reviews relevant literature related to aspects of written English errors. It covers the following main areas: an overview of errors, approaches to the study of errors. These approaches are looked at from a linguistic perspective. The linguistic approaches comprise Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis. This is followed by a review of previous studies of Error Analysis which investigated the written English errors made by English second or foreign language learners. In addition, the chapter concludes by focusing on the approach that the researcher undertook.

2.2 An overview of errors

English second language teachers and lectures expect their learners to speak and write flawless English (Burt, 1975). Nevertheless, errors keep recurring and consequently, different views and attitudes are held towards the commission of errors. Richards (1974), Taylor (1975) and Dulay and Burt (1974) avow that errors contain valuable information regarding the strategies that language learners utilize to acquire a language. Language errors committed by second language learners were viewed as something sinful which should be eradicated (Hendrickson, 1978). Errors are however, no longer seen as 'bad habits' in the field of language learning, but as signs of what is happening in the mind of learners. It is from this standpoint that one may argue that investigating errors committed

by language learners forms the basis for a successful learning process due to the value that they have in acquiring a language.

Errors are considered as a natural phenomenon that must occur when one is learning a first or a second language and that all beginners of language learn by making mistakes (Shaughnessy, 1975). Zamel (1981) avers that errors do not suggest that the learner has not yet learnt, instead, they signify that the learner is in the process of learning. These errors are committed by all second language learners, irrespective of what their first language might be, and level one students at a South African university are no exception. It is essential therefore, to diagnose the nature and quantity of errors made by learners, seek for possible causes of these errors, and decide upon the possible and adequate remedial work to help them overcome their second language acquisition problems.

Norrish (1983) asserts that it is essential to draw a distinction between error and mistake as a mistake can be self-corrected with or without being pointed at to the learners whereas an error cannot. An error is regarded as a “noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker reflecting the inter-language competence of the learner” (Brown, 1994). Inter-language errors refer to the type of speech or writing errors that normally occur when a learner is beginning to gain proficiency in the target language, but has not mastered it (Amoakohene, 2017). On the other hand, Candling (2001) and Richards and Schmidt (2002) consider errors as linguistic forms which a native speaker would not make in the same context. Errors are a distorted form of the target language which results from the improper use of aspects of the learner’s mother tongue while attempting to speak or

write the target language, in this case, English. James (1998) cited in Amoakohene (2017) avers that “errors are systematic deviations where learners have not learnt something they consistently get wrong.” Literature shows that errors are regarded as gaps in learners’ knowledge which naturally arise because learners are not conscious of them. These errors usually happen where learners are consistent in producing the second language and when they produce incorrect language because they do not know the correct form. Brown (2000) and Richards (1974) assert that systematic errors are rule-governed. This means that errors follow the rules of a learner’s interlanguage and as such, indicate a learner’s linguistic system at a given stage of language learning. Thus, errors should not be regarded as bad because they indicate the learner’s understanding of the language or lack of understanding of the language.

On the other hand, mistakes are slips or failure to use known structures correctly. Mistakes are associated with erratic inconsistencies in performance in the usage of a language (Ellis, 2008). Tarigan (1995) as cited in Amoakohene (2017) avows that inconsistencies are in most cases, associated with factors of performance. Learners commit mistakes when they break the language rules because of non-linguistic factors such as slips of tongue, losing attention, carelessness, boredom, fatigue, anxiety, excitement, writing very quickly or thinking ahead. Therefore, if a learner consistently uses an item correctly and then gets it wrong once, the learner has made a mistake (James, 1998; Ellis & Tomlison, 1980). James (1998) clarifies that the criterion that helps one to draw a distinction between an error and a mistake is the self-correctability criterion. He

argues that a mistake can be self-corrected with or without being pointed at to the learners whereas an error cannot.

Errors are 'systematic,' and there is a great likelihood that they may recur consistently as the learners may not be aware of them. This means that it is only the teacher or researcher who can locate the errors (Gass & Selinker, 1994). It is against this background that I have decided to focus on students' errors and not mistakes.

2.3 Approaches to the study of errors

Error Analysis is one of the most important areas of second language learning. It explores errors committed by L2 learners and is defined by Richard and Schmidt (2002) cited in Seitova (2016) as the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners. The sections that follow provide detailed discussions of contrastive analysis, interlanguage, and Error Analysis. This is done to lay a solid foundation for this study considering that Error Analysis which is the focus of the study emerged as an alternative to contrastive analysis.

2.3.1 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is based on Structuralism and Behaviorism which gained great popularity in the 1950s and 1960s (Abushihab, 2014 cited in Kusumawardhani, 2017). This approach was formulated by Fries (1945) and developed by Lado (1957). It focuses on the comparison of the structures of two languages or more to locate the points of

differences which are viewed as the major stumbling blocks for learners who are learning a second language as illustrated in Fig. 2.1 below.

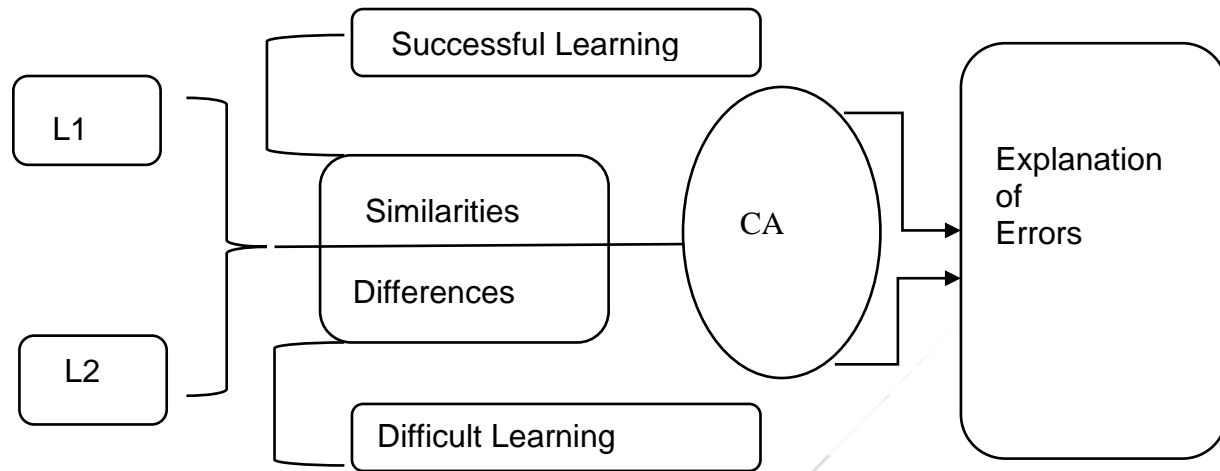


Figure 2.1 The procedure of Contrastive Analysis (Al- Khresheh, 2016: 334)

Contrastive analysis compares the phonological systems, morphological systems, syntax and lexical meanings of two or more languages to facilitate language learning and teaching (Kusumawardhani, 2017; Odlin, 1989). Contrastive Analysis seeks to identify the differences and the similarities between the structures of two languages to predict the areas of difficulties that the learner of the target language usually encounters. The assumption is that the areas of similarities will simplify learning while the differences will trigger difficulties in learning L2 (Lado, 1957).

Similarly, Al-Khresheh (2016) maintains that Contrastive Analysis was an effective theory which was famous for its ability to compare between the structures of two languages to identify the similarities and differences between them.

Odlin (1989) maintains that Contrastive Analysis rests on three main propositions: First, the main stumbling blocks in learning a new language are caused by interference of the first language, that is, language transfer. He maintains that language transfer can either be positive or negative. Negative transfer, also known as interference, occurs when the language learner uses the native-language pattern or rule which results in an ill-formed or deviant form in the target language whereas positive transfer occurs when a language learner transfers a language pattern or rule from the native language which makes learning easier and this occurs when both the native language and the target language have the same form. The next proposition is that these stumbling blocks or deviant forms can be predicted by CA and finally, teaching materials can employ Contrastive analysis to lessen the effects of interference.

2.3.1.1 Application of CA in Linguistics

CA is however, applicable to many areas in the field of linguistics despite the multiplicity of criticisms levelled against it. The section below encapsulates some of the areas in which CA has been adopted.

i. Historical linguistics

Historical linguistics was traditionally known as philology and refers to the branch of linguistics which focuses on the development of language changes over time. Its main aim is to describe and provide justification for the changes that are observed in a language and to reconstruct the pre-history of the languages to establish how the

languages are related and try to group them into language families (Mandor: 2021). It is also known as comparative-historical linguistics because it employs the comparative method to distinguish how languages are related, particularly languages that lack written records. Historical linguistics also develops theories which look at how and why languages evolve and describe history of speech communities or groups of people who share linguistic norms and expectations. It also studies the origin of words and the way in which their meanings have changed throughout history. Lado (1957) and Stern (1983) assert that CA has been subsumed under the name comparative linguistics within the linguistic field.

ii. Second language teaching:

Notwithstanding that CA has some flaws when it comes to the prediction of errors that are likely to be committed by second language or foreign language learners, it offers insights into some of the major errors that are regularly committed by second and foreign language learners regardless of their mother tongue or first language (Mandor: 2021). For this reason, CA affords a custom-made language design which can be readily adopted in the form of awareness raising teaching method and hierarchical learning teaching curriculum (Ellis, 2008).

iii. Second language learning:

CA has contributed enormously to raising awareness in second language learning (Mandor: 2021). Some contributions of CA include its adeptness to account for the observed errors and its ability to account for the differences between mother tongue and

the target language(s); CA also affords second language learning with an opportunity to realise aspects of the target language, which may in turn, enable them to strive to adopt a practical way to learn instead of rote learning, and correct fossilized language errors (Ellis, 2008).

- iv. Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, bilingualism, pragmatics and other cultural -related areas:

CA is applicable across linguistic and cultural fields because of its ability to apply both linguistic and non-linguistic features. This capacity permits a better linguistic-cultural understanding, which is indispensable for learning a language in its entirety (Connor, 1996).

- v. Translation:

CA offers valuable insight regarding linguistic differences between any two languages, and this makes it applicable in the field of translation (Stern, 1893; Ellis, 2008). Mostly, CA serves as a basis for translation because it is essential for translators and interpreters to have a solid understanding of not only the languages they work between, but also of the differences between the languages.

- vi. Language therapy:

CA has been employed in language therapy to make a distinction between language disorder patients and non-standard dialect speakers which is an indispensable attribute for speech pathology identification and matching treatment (Mandor: 2021).

vii. Criminal investigation:

CA research has played a pivotal role by offering valuable insight to subtle differences among languages (Mandor: 2021). These subtle differences in languages can make investigation of criminal activities possible by using clues. For instance, language patterns can be used as clues to analyse phishing texts which were intended to scam users into giving away their confidential information.

2.3.2 Interlanguage

In view of the criticisms levelled at the contrastive approach for its inability to predict and account for all the recurring errors that second and foreign language learners commit, several studies were conducted, many drawing upon the work done by Corder. It came to be realized that second language acquisition is an innovative process of constructing a system in which learners are consciously testing hypotheses about the target language from a number of possible sources of knowledge: limited knowledge of the target language itself, knowledge about the native language, knowledge about the communicative function of language, knowledge about language in general, and knowledge about life, human beings and the universe (Brown, 1987: 168)

This suggests that instead of learners simply taking in whatever input is provided, they however, interrelate with the language environment to put together what is to them a legitimate linguistic system, an organized set of rules that recurrently strays from the rules of the target language, but that enables them to create order from the bulk of new linguistic stimuli which confront them.

Many researchers came up with a variety of terms to allude to this deviant systematic language of second language learners. The term 'Interlanguage' as a theory of language learning was first used by Larry Selinker (1972) "who in his article Interlanguage, views this term as a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language (TL) norm" (Selinker, 1972 cited in Mahmood & Murad, 2018: 96). Nemser (1971) refers to interlanguage as an 'approximate' system. Corder (1971) refers to interlanguage as an 'idiosyncratic' dialect or the learner's 'transitional competence' or 'transitional dialect'. In this study, the concept interlanguage has been adopted to refer to all the above-mentioned terms used by Selinker, Nemser and Corder. All these terms refer to language used by the second or foreign language learners as they attempt to reach and master the target language.

2.3.2.1 Selinker's definition of interlanguage

Even though Nemser (1971) and Corder (1971) wrote about interlanguage a year earlier, Selinker (1972) is regarded as the founder of the term interlanguage as the theory of interlanguage received its full expression in his views.

Selinker (1972: 214) holds that "the set of utterances for most learners of second language is not identical to the hypothesised corresponding set of utterances which would have been produced by a native speaker of a target language had he attempted to express the same meaning as the learner."

He maintains that these two sets of utterances show the existence of a separate linguistic system which is based on the speech of the learner. To Selinker (1972: 214), this linguistic

system is called interlanguage. Selinker maintains that there is an important relationship between the mother tongue and the target language.

According to Ellis (1985: 229), interlanguage refers to “the series of interlocking systems which characterized acquisition”. Conclusions can be drawn from Selinker’ and Ellis’s views that interlanguage is viewed as a composite of the learner’s native language and target language. Ellis (1985:47) asserts that the concepts interlanguage and approximate systems relate to the structured system that is constructed by the learner as well as to a series of interlocking systems: the language continuum.

Appel and Muysken (1987:83) call into question Selinker’s view of interlanguage as a kind of language which is somewhere between the native language and the target language with structural features from both. They contend that interlanguage is “an intermediate system characterized by features resulting from language learning strategies.” They stress that interlanguage is an unstable language.

The above standpoints on interlanguage encapsulate a similar view that interlanguage is neither like the first language nor the second language. Similarly, Barnard (1995: 85) claims that interlanguage is the internalized result of a learner’s creative attempts to produce a second language. It shows evidence of the learner’s cognitive strategies and hypothesis, and it is variable. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991:60) assert that the learner’s interlanguage is systematic; that is, it is rule-governed and that all learners pass through a stage of developing an interlanguage. They maintain that any difference can be accounted for by differences in the learner’s learning experience.

2.3.2.2 Nemser's definition of interlanguage

According to Nemser (1971:116), interlanguage system is an approximate system. He defines an approximate system as “the deviant linguistic system actually employed by the learner attempting to utilize the target language”. Nemser maintains that such approximate systems differ in character depending on the proficiency level, learning experience, communication function and personal learning characteristics.

The approximate system develops in stages from the first attempt to use the target language to the most advanced. The approximate system of an individual learner will coincide with that of another learner who is at the same level of proficiency with some variations because of different learning experiences (Roodt, 1993:6).

2.3.2.3 Corder's definition of interlanguage

Interlanguage system is an idiosyncratic dialect of the target language (Corder, 1981: 116). The notion of an idiosyncratic dialect is an expansion of Corder's earlier concept of transitional competence. Both terms refer to the rule-governed system (an interlanguage) that a learner produces at a given time in his development. Corder holds that the language of second language learners is a special sort of dialect. He describes it as follows:

The spontaneous speech of the second language learner is a language and has a grammar. Secondly, since a number of sentences of that language are isomorphous with some sentences of his target language and have the same interpretation, then some, at least, of the rules needed to account for the learner's language will be the same as those required to account for the target language. Therefore, the learner's

language is a dialect in the linguistic sense: two languages which share some rules of grammar are dialects (Corder, 1981: 14).

According to Corder, a dialect is the shared behaviour of a social group and draws a distinction between the dialects which are not the languages of a social group (idiosyncratic dialects). Corder (1981) categorizes idiosyncratic dialects into four categories which are:

- The language of poems (deliberately deviant)
- The speech of aphasic (pathological deviant)
- The speech of an infant (no plausible interpretation)
- The speech of learners of a second language.

In his interpretation of Corder's view, Richards (1974:161) argues that the speech of second language learners is regular, systematic, meaningful; that is, it has grammar and is describable in terms of a set of rules which is a subset of the rules of the target social language. The other name for idiosyncratic dialect is transitional dialect because of its unstable nature.

2.3.2.4 Theoretical assumptions of interlanguage

The emergence of the interlanguage theory led to the shift in 'psychological perspectives' of second language learning from a behaviorist approach to a mentalist approach. It should, therefore, be noted that some major assumptions of the interlanguage theory were borrowed from the mentalist theories (Tarone, 2001).

When learners are in the process of second language learning, they prepare the assumptions or hypotheses about the rules of the target language. These rules can be regarded as the mental grammars which serve as building blocks in the creation of the learner's interlanguage system. Such grammars are prone to some influences which may be external to the learner and/or internally derived from the learner's internal processing. This implies that the learner's performance is variable as the language learner regularly changes his or her grammar by deleting rules, adding rules, and reconstructing the complete system. This denotes the role of interlanguage in every stage of second language learning. In the gradual process of second language learning, learners always keep on confirming and reconfirming the assumptions or hypotheses about the rules of the target language. Al-Khresheh (2015: 124) maintains that this observation shows that the second language learner keeps on changing his or her own interlanguage until the target language system is fully shaped. This process is known as 'Interlanguage Continuum' and is illustrated in Fig 2.2 below:

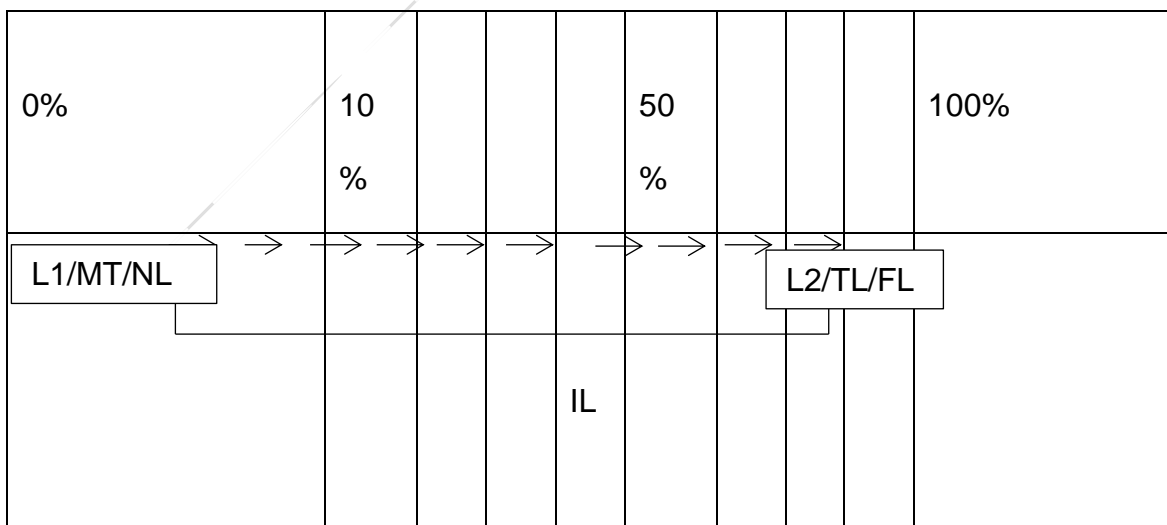


Figure 2.2. The IL Continuum (Tanvir Shameem, 1992 cited in Al-Khresheh 2015)

Al-Khresheh (2015: 125) avers that the core theoretical assumption that underlie the theory of interlanguage is that as the second language learner is attempting to communicate in the target language, the language learner employs a new linguistic system which is neither the native language nor the target language. This supposition has been supported by Selinker (1974:35) who holds the view that interlanguage is “a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner’s attempted production of a TL norm”. He asserted that whenever a second language learner tries to generate a sentence, the learner stimulates ‘the latent psychological structures.’ He describes ‘the latent psychological structures’ as ‘an already formulating arrangement in the brain’. Mitchell and Myles (1998) and Larsen-Freeman (2003) came up with supplementary assumptions which shows that second language acquisition is a process that seeks to increase conformity to a uniform target language; second language learning is an ongoing development from the mother tongue towards the target language; the system characterized by a set of rules which is neither the system of the native language nor the system of the foreign language or target language can be developed by the language learner at every stage of the language learning process (this system is a separate linguistic one); hypothesis-testing or rule-formation are included in the language learning process; it is natural for second language learners to commit language errors; and that majority of second language learners do not attain target language competence (Al-Khresheh, 2015: 125).

Selinker (1972) assumes the occurrence of interlanguage because of dissimilar utterances, as observable data, of the same sentence created by second language

learners and native language learners of the target language. In view of that, he came up with three sets of utterances which can be psychologically linked data of second language learning, and theoretical predication in an important psychology of second language learning to be the surface structure of an interlanguage produced sentence (Selinker, 1972: 214 cited in Al-Khresheh, 2015: 15). The three sets are indicated hereunder:

- Utterances in the learner's mother tongue produced by the learners.
- interlanguage utterances produced by the learners.
- Target or foreign language utterances produced by native speakers of that target language.

This shows that by verifying the three sets of sentences, one can investigate into the psychology of second language learning to reveal the psycholinguistic process which might ascertain the knowledge that activates the interlanguage behaviour. The next section will focus on fossilization and psychological processes which are important views within the latent psycholinguistic structures.

2.3.2.5 Interlanguage as a continuum of styles

When deliberating on the notion of interlanguage as a natural language, Tarone (1979) maintains that interlanguage behaves like other languages. Tarone's paradigm of work was founded on the premise that there were axioms applicable to research on interlanguage. For a fuller appreciation of the relationship between the study of interlanguage and Labov's (1970) methodological axioms, it is important to mention them as encapsulated by Tarone (1979):

Axiom One: Style-Shifting

There is no rigid style that speakers of a language have to follow because speakers will change their linguistic and phonological styles as they change situations and topics.

Axiom Two: Attention

The attention, which is paid by speakers, will change as their linguistic styles move from little commitment to grammatical rules into almost fully grammatical speech.

Axiom Three: Vernacular

In this mode, people do not tend to pay attention to their speech. As a result, sustained regular and systematic phonological and grammatical models can be formed depending upon the actual speech uttered by speakers.

Axiom Four: Formality

Contrary to the vernacular mode, when there is scrutiny of a native speaker or a non-native teacher towards a learner, the language learner tends to pay more attention to his or her own speech.

Axiom Five: Good data

Although it is more natural when someone tapes others without their attention, it is advised that the good data should be taken in a direct tape-recorded interview. This means that the setting here is formal and the subject is fully aware that he/she is being tape-recorded.

2.3.2.6 Characteristics of interlanguage

Tarone et al. (2001) distinguish observable facts or characteristics of interlanguage theory that are discussed hereunder: stability, systematicity, mutual intelligibility and backsliding.

a. Stability

Stability refers to consistency for using a particular rule or form over time in the field of interlanguage learning (Al-Khresheh, 2015: 127). This means that stability occurs when second language learners use the same form twice. However, Henderson (1985) claims that it is not clear whether there is need for a new language hypothesis for more explanation about the human inclination to keep making the same errors or mistakes, and to learn things gradually. This characteristic of interlanguage becomes less interesting when we find that Tarone et al. (1976) chose to draw a distinction between two types of interlanguage users. One type relates to users whose interlanguage is characterized by stability, whereas the other relates to users whose interlanguage is characterized by instability.

b. Systematicity

Al-Khresheh (2015, 128) avers that one of the chief characteristics of interlanguage is its systematicity. This means that interlanguage is orderly and not a haphazard assortment of rules or items. Interlanguage has its own peculiar system of rules that renders it systematic. Even though the rules of interlanguage rules are not necessarily the same as that of the target language, they have a specific set of rules. Regardless of the variability of interlanguage, it is easy to distinguish the rule-based nature of a language learner's use of the target language (Kasper, 2001; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Tarone et al. (1976: 97) cited in

Al-Khresheh (2015, 128) avow that the second language speech can be regarded as systematic “when it evidences an internal consistency in the use of forms at a particular single point in time”.

c. Mutual intelligibility

From a linguistic perspective, mutual intelligibility refers to a relationship between dialects that enable speakers of different languages to understand one another with minimal effort. Interlanguages are characterized by mutual intelligibility that serves as a communication tool among their speakers (Adjemian, 1976: 300). Interlanguages also share many functions of communication with natural languages.

Mutual intelligibility is considered as an important property of the interlanguages which affords interlanguages to be regarded as members of the human language (Henderson, 1985 cited in Al-Khresheh, 2015: 128). Mutual intelligibility takes into consideration the need for foreign language learners to communicate with each other verbally in other languages other than their native language. If the foreign language learners are found to be able to communicate and understand each other in the foreign language, it means that the foreign language learners share an interlanguage and thus, can be regarded as competent. If, on the other hand, the foreign language learners are found not to be able to communicate and understand each other in the foreign language, it means that they possess the non-native grammar that makes it difficult for them to be unable to make the

development of an interlanguage native (Bent & Bradlow, 2003 cited in Al- Khresheh (2015: 128).

It is also essential to find out if a foreign language learner who in one class can communicate with and understand another learner from another class who is also being taught in the same foreign language. If it is established that they can communicate with and understand each other with ease, then it can be concluded that the learners have attained the interlanguage. If, on the other hand, it is established that they do not understand each other, it will be presumed that they have not attained the interlanguage (Darling-Hammond & Young, 2002 cited in Al-Khresheh, 2015: 128). This means that in cases where students can communicate with and understand each other, they have attained the interlanguage. However, if they are unable to understand each other, it means that they do not have the interlanguage.

d. Backsliding

Another distinguishing characteristic of interlanguage is backsliding. Butler-Tanaka (2000) cited in Al-Khresheh (2015: 128) defines backsliding as 'the linguistic mastery of certain forms of the TL, followed by loss, nonuse or misuse of the form'. On the other hand, Selinker (1974) avers that backsliding is neither haphazard nor towards the speaker of the NL but is toward the IL norm. He contends that backsliding is more likely to occur in instances where a foreign language learner concentrates more on meaning and produces an already learnt interlanguage form. Ellis (1994) holds the view that forms or structures that are fossilised continue even with error correction, clear grammatical instruction, or

explanation; and even if they are eliminated, they are more likely to resurface in spur-of-the-moment utterances.

The key difference between fossilisation and backsliding is that in fossilisation, the language learner does not have an alternative rule of the target language whereas in backsliding, the language learner always has an alternative rule, but due to some contextual and emotional factors, the language learner may be unable to use the right alternative rule. This observation is encapsulated by Adjemian (1976: 317) cited in Al-Khresheh (2015: 128) when he states that:

The speaker should have intuitions about the correct rule or form, whereas in the case of fossilisation he may not... this seems to me to imply that backsliding is evidence of a function in IL which has almost lost its permeability.

2.3.2.7 Fossilisation

Fossilisation is one of the significant features of an interlanguage which will be discussed in detail because of its importance in this study. It will be defined, and its causes will be looked at in some depth.

2.3.2.7.1 Definitions and description of fossilisation

One authoritative view of fossilisation is that held by Rutherford (1989: 442) who illustrates fossilisation as “near-universal failure to attain full language competence”. This view puts into relevant context the problem of this study which pertains to the persistent written errors of level-one students at a South African university despite their ten years or

more exposure to English at primary and secondary schools. Shapira (1978:246) refers to fossilisation as 'non-learning' whereas on the other hand, Selinker and Lamendella (1979: 374) refer to it as 'stabilisation'.

As shown earlier on in the problem statement of the study, majority of level-one students at the South African university have not acquired the expected and required proficiency in English language usage for tertiary education. This has a negative impact on the academic language proficiency levels required at university level. According to Cummins (1983: 121), this occurs because majority of English second language learners reach a plateau at less than mastery level where the development of language ceases and fossilises. This means that second language learners who reach the plateau produce fossilised structures in their target language utterances. This observation is further supported by Selinker (1992: 252) who asserts that "there exist forms which remain in the learner speech permanently, no matter what the learner does to attempt their eradication" and no matter what "amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language".

Selinker (1972) viewed fossilisation as a crucial feature of the interlanguage system. Roodt (1983: 21) maintains that Selinker regards fossilisation as a "... mechanism which exists in the latent psychological structure of a person's mind". Selinker (in Richards (1974: 36) states that:

Fossilisable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers a particular NL [native language] will

tend to keep in their IL [interlanguage] relative to a particular TL [target language], no matter what the age of the learner or amount of instruction he receives in the TL.

Moreover, Selinker claims that a critical factor which should be explained by any adequate theory of second language learning and acquisition is the emergence and recurrence of interlanguage structures that were thought to have been eradicated. According to Selinker and Lamendella (1979:363), fossilisation is a concept that is pivotal to the Interlanguage Hypothesis. They contend that the persistent failure of most adult language learners to achieve complete mastery of a second language is an occurrence whose existence seems to be commonly accepted by not only the researchers in second language learning, but by many second language teachers as well.

Kohn (1980: 46) views fossilisation as a plateau at which students come to “rest after studying or acquiring English over a period of time...”.

According to Barnard (1995:4) fossilisation is process which is an interlanguage phenomenon and when “interlanguage structures remained so stabilized for at least five years, they are regarded as being fossilised. Barnard considers this phenomenon as fossilisation because the development of natural second language has been halted before the attainment of mastery of target language levels.

McDonald (1988: 115) asserts that fossilisation exposes the various degrees of language mastery, varying from little to no control of identifiable aspects of the target language to a post-systematic level, with only irregular appearances of the fossilised form.

According to Vigil and Oller (1976: 283), it is not “only the fossilisation of so-called ‘errors’ that must be explained, but also fossilisation of correct forms that conform to the target language norms”.

Nakuma (1998: 248) also pointed out that once an interlanguage is permanent, it “qualifies automatically as fossilised, given that it is by definition deviant from the native language system”. In addition, Nakuma (1998: 252) maintains that fossilisation implies that the second language learner has at an early stage of second language acquisition process, made the decision not to acquire the specific second language form which will be viewed afterwards by others as fossilised.

The above definitions and descriptions of fossilisation clearly portray fossilisation as a serious problematic area in second language learning and teaching. The common view from the above definitions is that speakers whose second language has fossilised fail to reach proficiency in the target language.

2.3.2.7.2 Krashen’s view of fossilisation

As indicated in the preceding section, different authors attribute fossilisation to various factors. However, Krashen (1985) tried to explain and offer a solution for fossilisation by

recommending what he termed an Input Hypothesis. Richards et al. (1992: 182-183) aver that the Input Hypothesis basically states that it is indispensable for the second language learner to understand input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner's present linguistic competence to enable language acquisition to occur in a second language or foreign language. They maintain that second language learners comprehend such language by making use of cues in the situation. Ultimately, the second language learner's ability to produce language is said to emerge naturally, and therefore, does not need to be taught directly.

It is important to note that Krashen (1985: 43) declares that most second language acquirers do not attain the native speaker level of performance in their second language, as they fossilise. Regarding whether the second language theory can account for fossilisation, Krashen suggested the following as possible causes: insufficient quantity of input, inappropriate quality of input, the affective filter, the output filter, and the acquisition of deviant forms.

According to Krashen (1985:43), the first and most noticeable cause of fossilisation is insufficient quality of input. He maintains that the progress of second language learners may fossilize simply because they are no longer receiving comprehensible input (Krashen, 2015:13). To Gass (2013:131), comprehensible input refers to "that bit of language that is heard/read and that is slightly ahead of the learner's state of grammatical knowledge." Krashen (1985) avers that input which is built on what the learner already knows does not support the learner to acquire the second language and neither does the

making use of language structures that are far above the second language learner's current knowledge. Therefore, to improve and progress along the natural order of language acquisition, it is essential that second language learners receive second language input that is a step beyond, or slightly ahead of their current stage of linguistic competence. This means that if a learner is at stage 'i' (current competence), then acquisition occurs when the learner is exposed to comprehensible input that belongs to a level that is higher; that is 'i + 1'. This is supported by Corder (1973: 22) who maintains that the learner should be taught that which he does not yet know of what he needs to know.

Krashen (1985) asserts that the primary role of the language instructor is to ensure that learners receive input that is $i+1$. The same view is shared by Ellis (2008) and Lauren (2011) who contend that language learners are supported by their instructors, context, the knowledge of the world, extralinguistic information and their linguistic competence to enable them understand structures that they have not yet acquired, that is, the language that contains a structure that is a little beyond their current competence.

Inappropriate quality of input is regarded as the second cause of fossilisation. This occurs when language learners are provided with sufficient, but wrong input. To illustrate this point, Krashen (1985: 43) cites an example of a petrol attendant who converses in English everyday but hears phrases like 'fill up', 'Could you check the oil?', etcetera. The above scenario clearly shows that the input received by the petrol attendant has a restricted range of vocabulary and little new syntax as it is loaded with routines and repetitions.

Krashen (1985:44) views the affective filter hypothesis as the third cause of fossilisation which was hypothesised to account for cases in which “comprehensible input of sufficient quality is available, but in which full acquisition does not take place”. He describes the affective filter as a “mental block that prevents the acquirers from utilizing the comprehensible input they receive for language acquisition” (Krashen 1985: 3). Learning occurs when there is no barrier affecting the intake of new information (Conte-Morgan, 2002). Krashen lists the following affective variables that facilitate the second language acquisition: motivation, attitude, self-confidence, and anxiety.

Conteh-Morgan (2002: 192) asserts that learners who are highly motivated, self-confident and have a good self-image and a low level of anxiety have their affective filters ‘down’ and as such, are better positioned for success in second language learning. In these learners, new information is effectively processed in the language acquisition device (LAD) and integrated into the learner’s knowledge base.

When the affective filter is ‘up’, because of environmental, social, and attitudinal factors such as low motivation, low self-image, lack of confidence, debilitating anxiety and when the learner thinks that the language class is the place where his/her language weaknesses will be exposed, input is barred from passing through to the language acquisition device (LAD). If input is prevented, learning does not occur (Gass, 2013: 133). Krashen (1982) avers that when the negative affective variables coalesce, they raise the affective filter and form a mental block that bars comprehensible input from being used for acquisition. This means that when the language learner is not motivated, lacks self-

confidence or is anxious, the affective filter is raised 'up' and causes the learner to block out input.

Krashen (1982) asserts that the affective filter which protects the language acquisition device from input that is required for acquisition is what makes one individual learner distinct from another. The affective filter clarifies why some learners learn, while others do not. Individual variation in second language acquisition is thus ascribed to the affective filter (Gass: 2013: 133).

Moreover, Krashen (1985: 44) avers that fossilisation can be described in terms of 'lack of need', that is, "acquisition stops because the acquirer simply does not 'need' anymore competence – he can communicate adequately with his current grammatical system". Krashen suggests that fossilisation can be treated if communicative requirements are raised, and the performer concentrates on grammatical accuracy.

The output filter hypothesis, which is the fourth cause of fossilisation, attempts to clarify why second language learners do not always perform according to their competence (Krashen, 1985: 45). These second language acquirers seem to be fossilised whereas they have acquired more target language rules than they normally perform. The output filter blocks acquired rules from being used in performance. Krashen (1985: 46) avers that the factors responsible for the formation and maintenance of the output are the same factors that are responsible for the input or affective filter. He advocates that focus should

be on meaning and not on form to enable second language learners to lower their anxiety levels so that they can perform their competence.

The fifth and last cause of fossilisation is the acquisition of deviant forms by beginning acquirers who are “exposed nearly exclusively to imperfect versions of the second language” (Krashen, 1985: 46). Some students are exposed to a second language in extreme foreign situation. Krashen 1985: 46 – 47) vividly encapsulates this scenario:

The only comprehensible input such students typically hear comes from the teacher, usually a non-native speaker of the second language who does not speak the language well and classmates... such input is filled with ‘errors’, intermediate or transitional forms and first language influenced errors. If this interlanguage is the only input available, and if the student hears enough of it..., his language acquisition device will consider it to be ‘real language’ and will acquire it, in the technical sense. Such acquired forms may be difficult to ‘forget’... acquired items enter a permanent storage.

The above view exemplifies and reflects the situation in many rural South African schools where majority of students have no rays of hope of getting the opportunities to meet with native speakers of English. Because of this sad reality, majority of students in rural South African schools are wholly exposed to imperfect versions of the target language. To mitigate this situation, Krashen (1985) proposes that the acquisition of intermediate forms

can be counteracted by providing good comprehensible input from the very beginning. In view of the shortage of teachers who have high levels of English competence, language laboratories, tape recorders, films and books can be used to provide comprehensible input.

2.3.2.8 Psycholinguistic processes according to interlanguage

Selinker (1972:56) as cited in Al-Khresheh (2015: 126) identified the following five essential processes of interlanguage that are involved in the latent psychological structures: “language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning, strategies of L2 communication, and overgeneralisation of TL material”. These processes are also outlined in Ellis (1985: 47) and Richards (1974: 37) as:

- Language transfer due to cross-linguistic influences: fossilisable items, rules, subsystems that occurred in the interlanguage because of transfer from the native language.
- Transfer of training because of faulty teaching procedure and inappropriate teaching resources.
- Strategies of second language: identifiable approaches by the learner to the material being learned.
- Strategies of foreign language communication: identifiable approaches by the learner to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
- Overgeneralisation of TL linguistic material: overgeneralisation of TL rules and semantic features.

Selinker (1972: 37) avers that each of these processes “forces fossilisable material upon surface IL utterances, controlling to a very large extent, the surface structures of these utterances”. Even though scholars do not generally agree whether these processes are separate or not or whether each process can be regarded as a real process, each process will be explicated separately in this section.

2.3.2.8.1 Language transfer

Arabski (2006) cited in Mahmood & Murad (2018: 100) offers two definitions of transfer, one behaviourist and another applied linguistic. Behaviourists used the term ‘transfer’ to refer to a process described as the automatic, uncontrolled, and sub-conscious use of past learner behaviours in the attempt to produce new responses whereas the applied linguists define ‘transfer’ as a process in foreign language whereby learners carry over what they already know about their first language to their performance in their new language”. Similarly, Odlin (1989: 27) succinctly describes language transfer as the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and maybe imperfectly) acquired.

From the above definitions, language transfer is viewed as a mother-tongue-based-process which is responsible for the peculiar production of the second or foreign language. One of the features that distinguishes interlanguage theory from contrastive analysis is that contrastive analysis perceives the mother tongue as the only developer of a language learner whereas interlanguage theory puts forward other processes that influence the second or foreign language besides the process of native language transfer.

Mahmood and Murad (2018: 100) maintain that the distance between the learner's mother tongue and the second language plays a role in the prediction of the amount of the occurrence of language transfer. They assert that the more the two languages have features in correspondence, the greater the likelihood for the mother tongue to have positive influence on learning the second language and vice versa. Language transfer can therefore, either be positive or negative as explained hereunder.

a) Positive transfer

Positive transfer plays an important role in second and foreign language learning. It aids learners to acquire knowledge with ease and enables them to function effectively in unravelling difficulties they have never encountered before. Positive transfer enables learners to relate what they already know of their first language to what they discover in their second or foreign language. This means that the learners' first language can facilitate second language acquisition, particularly in cases where there are similarities between the two languages. Ellis (2000: 300) avers that "If the two languages were identical learning could take place easily through 'Positive Transfer' of the native language pattern". Similar cross-linguistic features such as vocabulary, vowel systems, writing systems and syntactic structures can lessen the time needed to facilitate acquisition (Odlin, 1983).

b) Negative transfer

Crystal (1992: 180) maintains that negative transfer or interference refers to the errors that a speaker introduces into one language because of contact with the mother language. However, instances where the related aspects are the same for both languages

result to positive transfer. Negative transfer occurs when the structural differences between the learners' first language and the second language influence the learners' understanding of the second language and result in systematic errors in the learning of the second language. Negative transfer delays the acquisition of the second language at least temporarily. It also affects word choice, word order, pronunciation, and any other aspect of second language.

2.3.2.8.2 Strategies of L2 communication

Communication strategies refer to all the way that second language learners use to communicate their ideas and intentions relying on their limited linguistic knowledge of the second language (Mahmood & Murad, 2018: 103). Another comprehensive definition of communication was put forward by Faerch and Kasper (1984), who stressed the development and accomplishment of speech production. They avowed that to unravel communication difficulties, language learners do not only work together with their interlocutors, but also locate solutions with minimum assistance from others. They also employ communication strategies to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of their second language and the linguistic knowledge of their interlocutors in real communication situations. The communication strategies employed by second language learners differ according to the intricacy of the intended meaning and vary from employing synonyms, paraphrasing, literal translation, generalizing, approximation, roundabout speech (circumlocution), pointing to miming (Mahmood & Murad, 2018: 103). According to Faerch and Kasper (1984), communication strategies are divided into two types: achievement strategies and reduction strategies. Achievement strategies refer to those

strategies that permit learners to have an alternative plan to achieve reaching an original goal using the resources that are available. On the other hand, reduction strategies are strategies employed by second language learners to avert resolving a communication problem and allowing them to stop trying to convey an original message. Achievement strategies comprise compensatory strategies and retrieval strategies. Compensatory strategies comprise codeswitching, interlingual transfer, interlanguage–based strategies, cooperative strategies, and nonlinguistic strategies. Retrieval strategies are employed when language learners are experiencing difficulties in retrieving interlanguage items. Reduction strategies comprise formal reduction strategies (applying a reduced system to avoid producing non-fluent or deviant utterances) and function reduction strategies (giving up on sending a message or avoiding a specific topic).

Transfer of training

Selinker regards transfer of training as one of the most important processes of interlanguage performance. He states that “if these fossilisable items, rules, and subsystems [which occur in IL performance] are a result of identifiable items in training procedures, then we are dealing with the process known as transfer of training. When language practitioners train second or foreign language learners, their overriding aim is to empower their learners with language skills to enable them to transfer the knowledge that they have gained in the class to real-life situations. This means that for the training to be regarded as successful, the learners should be able to apply the knowledge with ease when it is needed. For example, the foreign language learners should be able to offer an apology, request, complaint, invitation, compliment, or refusal outside the

classroom environment after they have covered the related conversational extracts in the class. In areas where English is taught as a foreign language in a formal situation, transfer of training is more likely to affect upon the interlanguage of learners than in areas where English is a feasible second language (Richards, 1972). He argues that:

In a foreign language setting, where the major source of the input for English is the teaching manual and the teacher, the concept of transfer of training may be a basic analytic approach, since many of the errors observable are directly traceable to the manner of presentation of language features in the school course.

(Richards, 1972: 89)

Transfer of training can be positive if the training course simplifies the quest for the trainees to express their communicative messages in similar contexts outside the classroom. However, if the training course does not simplify the quest for the trainees to express their communicative messages in similar contexts outside the classroom, then the training transfer is negative. Mahmood & Murad (2018: 101) sustain that the yardstick of determining the positivity and negativity transfer of training is the success of the learners in adjusting the knowledge that they have acquired in class in real situations.

2.3.2.8.3 Strategies of second language learning

Learning strategies refer to "an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language -- to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence" (Tarone, 1983: 67). On the other hand, Rubin (1987: 22) define learning strategies as " strategies which contribute to the development of the language system

which the learner constructs and affect learning directly". O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) avow that learning strategies are "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information."

Strategy specialists agree that strategies play a significant role in language learning and that "learners with strategic knowledge of language learning, compared with those without, become more efficient, resourceful, and flexible, thus acquiring a language more easily" (Tseng, Dörnyei & Schmitt, 2006).

Overgeneralisation

Selinker (1972) avers that second language learners are more likely to overgeneralize certain structural rules or semantic features of the target language. Generalisation is defined as

...the use of previously available strategies in new situations... in second language learning...some of these strategies will prove helpful in organizing the facts about the second language, but others, perhaps due to superficial similarities, will be misleading and inapplicable (Richards, 1971:174).

During the 1970s, CA began to lose its popularity as a practical second language acquisition theory, mainly because of a multiplicity of criticisms aimed against it, some of which are indicated hereunder:

- Some second language errors occur not as a result of interference, but due to teaching methods.

- Some linguistic features are easier to learn when the second language is different from the mother tongue.
- It has been noted that while contrastive analysis can over-predict some errors, it can also under-predicted others.
- Some features predicted to be difficult for learners to master were in fact easy to learn.
- The interference of the mother tongue interference seems more related at the lexical, morphological, and syntactic levels than at the phonological.
- Contrary to the Contrastive analysis, the learner's mother tongue can serve as a rich resource base in the mastery of the second language.
- It has been observed that second language learners whose language backgrounds are not the same often make similar errors.
- Numerous second language errors are not caused by mother tongue interference as they are developmental errors.
- Contrastive analysis does not draw a line between errors of competence and errors of performance.

The criticisms levelled at the CA were so numerous that it was almost totally discarded as a feasible theory of second language acquisition as it is only able to predict some of the errors that students are likely to make and not all the errors. If CA was a sound approach, it would be able to predict all the errors which would be made and avoid predicting errors which are not actually made. Unfortunately, that is not the case. It was because of these observations that researchers started referring to the "crisis" in

contrastive analysis. This study acknowledges as valid the multiplicity of criticisms levelled at CA, some of which have been listed above. It is for this reason that I have adopted Error Analysis as an approach instead of contrastive analysis to analyse the written errors committed by level-one students at a South African University.

2.3.3 Error Analysis Approach

Error Analysis is a method that is used for analyzing learner language and as a tool for measuring accuracy. At its core stands a comparison of concrete samples of learner language with the target language norm (Graf, 2015), and its aim is to identify, describe and explain learner errors (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Schumann and Stenson (1974) assert that several linguists espoused Error Analysis as a supplement or replacement of contrastive analysis because of contrastive analysis's inadequacies to account for the factors behind errors committed by language learners. Upon realizing that contrastive analysis was failing to come up with satisfactory justification for the errors committed by the students, it was considered essential to focus attention on the actual errors that the students committed prior to contrasting them (Wilkins, 1968). This marked the birth of true Error Analysis.

Van Patten and Benati (2010: 28) describe Error Analysis as “a research tool characterized by a set of procedures for identifying, describing, and explaining L2 learners' errors”. As indicated in Chapter One, Pit Corder is regarded as the founder of Error Analysis and that he developed it in the early 1970s to address the multiplicity of criticisms levelled against Contrastive Analysis and its limited scope. Given that contrastive analysis mainly focuses on the dissimilarities between the second language

learner's mother tongue and target language, Error Analysis offers a methodological approach and theoretical framework to investigate learner language and to study learner errors and to account for their role in the language learning process. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) cited in Nisreen (2017) opine that the theory of Error Analysis is linked with the advent of the theory of interlanguage advanced by Selinker (1972). Nisreen (2017: 19) asserts that the term "interlanguage" was coined by Selinker to refer to the learner's systematic knowledge of the target language, which is supposed to be an exclusive structure and distinct from the language learner's first language or mother tongue and the second language or target language (Nisreen, 2017). Interlanguage is a system which has been variously referred to as "idiosyncratic dialect" and "transitional competence" by Corder (1971) and as an "approximative system" by Nemser (1971). Wary and Bloomer (2013) as cited in Nisreen (2017) aver that the theory of Error Analysis has played an essential role as "a standard approach" to uncovering the key features associated with the interlanguage of a learner. Error Analysis shares the same notion with Chomsky's interpretation of how language is acquired, which is understood as Nativism (Nisreen, 2017). According to the Nativist theory, language is acquired through a process of unconscious rule formation instead of through a process of habit formation as claimed by the Behaviourists. Chomsky maintains the position that human beings have an inherent predisposition to produce the rules of the target language from the presented input which makes it possible for them to create and understand original and innovative expressions that they are not subjected to (Nisreen, 2017; Van Patten & Williams, 2007). Error Analysis also confirms that second language learners employ intuitive rule formulation and testing to enable them to acquire the rules of the target language (Corder, 1967).

Error Analysis avers that second language learners play an active role in the learning process, generating hypotheses and testing them. Accordingly, not all learner errors are a result of L1 interference, but some reflect the strategies that learners apply throughout the language learning process. Error Analysis performs both theoretical and practical objectives (Corder, 1981). The theoretical objective centers around language learning processes and strategies such as oversimplification and overgeneralisation that second language learners use in the acquisition of the target language.

The practical or applied objective of Error Analysis focuses mainly on devising suitable teaching and learning strategies and materials as well as suggesting remedial courses grounded on hypothetical analysis. Nisreen (2017) emphasizes that teachers can employ Error Analysis as an assessment tool to evaluate the teaching and learning process as well as to detect and single out potential learning priorities. Corder (1975) avows that for academic purposes, it is essential to utilize data obtained qualitatively and quantitatively from a group of learners regarding the main obstacles or hindrances that they encounter. It is crucial for the researcher to classify the errors and to ascertain the regularity of each category of error in order to establish the most problematic areas encountered by the learners. Hereunder follows a discussion on the procedures of Error Analysis.

2.3.3.1 Procedures of Error Analysis

Corder (1974) offers a broad-spectrum structure for carrying out investigations on Error Analysis and proposes the following essential steps: “collection of samples, identification of errors, description of errors, and explanation as well as evaluation of errors” (Nisreen,

2017: 20). Among these steps, the most crucial step is the explanation of errors as it offers new perceptions into the language learning process. Corder (1975: 207) cited in Nisreen (2017) avows that the first essential step which is the description of errors “bridges the gap between Error Analysis as a pedagogical exercise and performance analysis as part of the investigation into the processes of second-language learning”. The section below discusses the major phases of Error Analysis.

2.3.3.1.1 Collection of a sample of learner language

The primary and most critical phase in the application of Error Analysis focuses on the decisions regarding the sort of form of language specimen to collect and how to gather them. There are three different methods that second language researcher can adopt to collect a sample of learner language: naturalistic (spontaneous), elicited and experimental (Chaudron, 2003 cited in Nisreen, 2017). Corder (1974) alludes to experimental and elicited methods as experimental elicitation and clinical elicitation, correspondingly. The naturalistic method entails eliciting a specimen of learner language generated in a real-life setting, whereas experimental production and elicited production approaches entails the elicitation of a specimen applying diverse techniques with attention accorded to meaning as opposed to form (Chaudron, 2003). Clinical elicitation on the one hand demands the learners to generate written or oral data using such means as common interviews or free essays where learners are mainly involved with communication and conveying messages. On the other hand, Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) opine that experimental elicitation is extremely regulated and entails the application of an activity or task to generate data that encapsulate specific structural or grammatical items that the

researcher is mainly focusing on. Even though researchers generally prefer spontaneous data, Diaz-Negrillo and Thompson (2013) and Nisreen (2017) argue that spontaneous data is easily and readily obtainable in second and foreign language contexts where the language learners can spontaneously use a target language for communication in natural or real life situation, but it may not be easy to obtain such data in foreign language contexts where the only setting where the language learners use the foreign appropriately is the language classroom.

Corder (1973) argued for the significance of employing regulated elicitation techniques, instead of relying on spontaneous productions, arguing that the data that is produced spontaneously not sufficient to offer reliable evidence of learner language. Similarly, Nisreen (2017: 21) asserts that “clinically elicited data seem not only more readily available to the foreign language learner corpus researcher, but also closer to what naturally occurring data understood to be in the case of foreign language learners”. Researchers should take numerous considerations into account when gathering or collecting specimen of learner language. These considerations comprise the learners’ background, age, developmental stage, language medium (oral or written) and size of the sample (Ellis, 1994) cited in (Nisreen, 2017). According to Ellis (1994) there are three categories of language specimen depending on how big or how small the sample is. These categories comprise incidental, specific and incidental samples. For massive samples, various language samples are gathered from a sizeable number of language learners to attain a wide-range list of ill-formed utterances which are representative of the entire study population. In a specific sample, one language sample is gathered from a

limited number of language learners while in an incidental sample, only a single sample is gathered from only one study participant. Of all the three categories of samples, Nisreen (2017), Braet, (2011) and Ellis (1994) assert that the sample type that has been reported as the generally used in Error Analysis studies is the specific sample. Another important factor that must be considered when gathering language samples is to decide whether the language samples are to be gathered at a single point in time (cross-sectionally) or over period of time (longitudinally) (Ellis, 1994). Ellis (1994) maintains that cross-sectional Error Analysis studies are more common as compared to longitudinal studies. The current study is also cross-sectional as it involves data gathered from the research participants at a South African University at one point in time.

2.3.3.1.2 Identification of errors

The identification of errors involves a comparison of the learner's language production with the target language. For an analyst to identify errors, it is important to clearly spell out what constitutes an error since different researchers have suggested different definitions of error. Catalán (1997) argues that the proliferation of different definitions of error are of benefit for analysts as they can choose the definition that best serves the objective of the analysis.

2.3.3.1.3 Description of errors

The next step that follows the identification of errors is the description and classification of errors. This stage entails a comparison of the learner's erroneous items with a reconstruction of those items in the target language. James (1998) opines that the overriding aim of classifying errors is to know which errors are different and which are the

same and to enable researchers to count the number of errors of each type. Several taxonomies have been suggested to describe and classify errors. The generally used descriptive taxonomies are the surface strategy taxonomy and the linguistic category taxonomy. The surface strategy taxonomy “highlights the way the surface structures are altered” by means of addition which involves the presence of an item that must not be used, omission when an essential part is omitted, misordering which involves the misplacement of a morpheme, and misformation when a wrong form of a morpheme or structure is used (Dulay et al., 1982: 150).

Corder (1981) on the other hand contends that such a classification of learners’ errors is superficial and inadequate. He asserts that to attain a more systematic and abstract categorisation, errors should be categorised further in terms of linguistic levels (for example: phonology, orthography, morphology, syntax, vocabulary) and grammatical systems (e.g., tense, number, gender). This means that the linguistic category taxonomy clarifies errors in terms of where the errors belong in the overall system of the target language.

Corder (1974) offers another framework that can be used to describe learners’ errors in line with their systematicity: pre-systematic, systematic and post-systematic. Pre-systematic errors occur when second or foreign language learners are unaware of a target language rule. systematic errors occur when the second or foreign language learner has discovered a rule, but it is a wrong one; and post-systematic errors occur when the second language learner is aware of the rule but uses it inconsistently (Corder,

1974). Ellis (1994) avers that although the linguistic and surface classifications have pedagogical implications, they nonetheless, provide little information about the processes involved when learning a second language. On the other hand, Ellis affirms that although Corder's framework which is based on systematicity provides more insight into the second language learning process, its implementation is problematic because "it requires that the researcher has access to the learners and that the learners can provide explanations of their L2 behaviour" (Ellis, 1994: 56). Employing a comparative taxonomy is another way in which errors can be classified. Using a comparative taxonomy, the classification of errors is based on "comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions" (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 163). Errors made by second language learners are most frequently compared with errors made by children acquiring the same language as target language, and equivalent structure in the learners' mother tongue. Using a comparative taxonomy, errors made by second language learners can be grouped into interlingual, developmental and ambiguous errors. While interlingual errors are similar in structure to semantically equivalent structure in the learners' native language, developmental errors are similar to those made by children acquiring the same language as their native language (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). Ambiguous errors are those that can be correspondingly classified as interlingual or developmental. Errors can also be described as either local or global (Burt & Kiparsky, 1974). Local errors do not hinder communication and the intended meaning can be understood because there is a violation of only one segment of a sentence. On the other hand, global errors prevent comprehension of the message and hinder communication as they involve a violation of the rules of the overall structure. Lennon (1991:189) introduces two dimensions of error:

“domain” and “extent”, claiming that “most 'erroneous forms'... become erroneous only in the context of the larger linguistic unit in which they occur”. “Domain” refers to the breadth of the context (from one phoneme to a whole discourse) which is used to determine the occurrence of an error. On the other hand, “extent” refers to the linguistic unit that needs to be replaced, supplied, reordered, or deleted to reconstruct the error. For example, in the erroneous utterance ‘*a scissors’, the domain is the whole phrase, whereas the extent is simply the indefinite article (Lennon, 1991: 192). Researchers within the field of Error Analysis may adopt different error taxonomies based on how they view errors and what is counted as an error (Llach, 2011). However, it has been pointed out that to have a precise categorisation and discussion of error types, a comprehensive categorisation taxonomy should be used (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). James (1998: 95) asserts that error taxonomy must be “well- developed, highly elaborated, and self-explanatory”.

2.3.3.1.4 Explanation of errors

For theoretical and pedagogical purposes, the most critical phase of Error Analysis is the explanation of errors (Ellis, 1994; Taylor, 1986; Corder, 1975). The most crucial objective of this phase is to ascertain the root causes of errors aimed at providing an account of the cognitive strategies that second language learners employ as well as trigger specific language errors. Brown (2000:223) asserts that the identification of the root causes of errors committed by language learners is indispensable “...to formulate an integrated understanding of the process of second language acquisition.” Taylor (1986) cited in (Nisreem, 2017) distinguishes the following four general types of sources of learner

errors: psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, epistemic and discorsal. The focus of Error Analysis is, however, only on the psycholinguistic factors. These Psycholinguistic factors are linked with “the processing mechanism involved in L2 use and to the nature of the L2 knowledge system” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005: 62).

2.3.3.1.5 Evaluation of errors

Contrary to the previous phases of Error Analysis that focus on studying ill-formed or deviant utterances from the point of view of the second language learner, the evaluation of errors focuses on the effect that the commissioned errors have on the recipient regarding their understanding or reaction to errors (Ellis, 1994). According to Khalil (1985), there are three crucial perspectives that can be used to assess the gravity of learners’ errors, namely, intelligibility, appropriateness, and irritation. Intelligibility focuses on the extent to which sentences containing ill-formed or deviant constructions can be understood; appropriateness relates to views that relate to the gravity of the language or structural deviation; whereas irritation is concerned with the quantity of errors and affects the recipient’s emotional reaction (Ellis, 1994). Different analysts, depending on their background or orientation, may evaluate language errors differently due to such factors as the setting of the error. This could, however, stem from the fact that the same error may be assessed differently based on the context of the language error and the investigator who is evaluating the language errors. Native speakers and non-native speakers of a specific language are less likely to administer similar criteria in their evaluation. Nisreem (2017) holds the view that native speakers are inclined to evaluate lexical and global errors as more grave than grammatical and local errors, while on the

other hand, non-native speakers are inclined to evaluate grammatical and local errors more stringently. As pointed out by Ellis (1994: 48) “the evaluation of learner errors has generally been handled as a separate issue, with its own methods of enquiry”

2.3.3.2 Types of Errors

Linguists distinguish the following types of errors:

2.3.3.2.1 Global and local errors

Linguists distinguishes global from local errors. The distinction of these types of errors is based on the comprehensibility of the errors as some errors impede effective communication and result to misunderstanding whereas others do not have any bearing on meaning or comprehension (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972).

Dulay et al. (1982) aver that global errors that have a significant effect on the general arrangement of a sentence, impede communication due to the extensive scope of such an error. Riddel (1990) identified the general kinds of global errors comprising erroneous word order, omission of structural items and misformation of sentence connectors or erroneous linking words, overgeneralization of persistent syntactic rules to exceptions, drawing analogies of complement types, and citing erroneous morphological structures and functional words which expresses the notion of time.

Ridell (1990) also identified the following typical local errors which include erroneous inflections of verbs and nouns, agreement between the subject and the verb, omission of

structural morphemes, erroneous determiners, erroneous construction of quantifiers, concord, linking verbs, derivational and inflectional morphemes among others.

2.3.3.2.2 Competence errors and performance errors

Brown (1987) asserts that competence in a particular language suggests being knowledgeable and familiar with the language, that is, it refers to knowledge regarding the structural rules of the language, its lexis, all the general aspects of a particular language as well as knowledge regarding how all the language aspects fit in together like a jigsaw puzzle whereas performance deals with the ability to handle authentic or real-life language production, namely, speaking and writing, as well as comprehension of linguistic events which involves listening and reading. Corder (1973) avers that mother tongue speakers and learners of a particular language are expected to be competent and demonstrate the ability to be familiar with and to create innumerable sentences in a particular language as well as the ability to identify meaning and relationships between them.

Performance errors do not result from the learners' ignorance of the language, but they are mainly due to such factors such as fatigue, anxiety, slips of tongue or pen, emotion among others. These errors are often not considered as grave and can be dealt with adequately if the learner exerts efforts. Competence errors depict inadequate learning. These errors are very serious as they demonstrate the language learner's flawed comprehension of a certain grammatical structure.

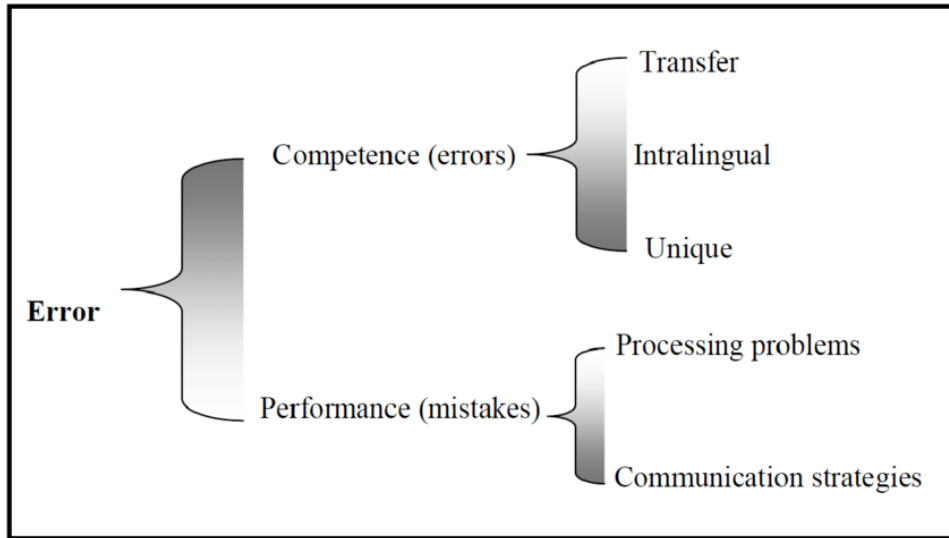


Figure 2.3. Psycholinguistic sources of errors (Ellis, 1994:58)

2.3.3.2.3 Productive and receptive errors

Lengo (1995) draw a distinction between productive and receptive errors. Productive errors occur in both oral and written forms whereas receptive errors occur in listening and understanding.

2.3.3.2.4 Overtly erroneous and covertly erroneous sentences

Corder (1981) draws a distinction between overtly erroneous and covertly erroneous sentences. He asserts that overtly erroneous sentences are apparently acceptable errors because of their inappropriateness in one way or the other. A sentence which is overtly erroneous displays the error that it contains. On the other hand, Cohen (1990) refers to an error which is overt as a 'public error' and an error which is covert error a 'secret error'.

2.3.3.3 Significance of learners' errors

Error Analysis is often used a form of linguistic analysis whose overriding aim is to deal with a learner's unsuccessful mastery of language the target language. It is mainly used as a procedure to establish the occurrence of language errors by focusing on the extent, root causes or sources as well as the results of language errors that have well-defined intentions. Its overriding aim is to seek appropriate and helpful teaching as well as doable corrective measures which are essential to enhance second language learning. Generally, Error Analysis focuses on errors that are committed by language learners errors to attain an enhanced insight the processes involved in the acquisition of the second language.

Considering that erroneous or deviant utterances committed by learners are essential in the provision of evidence regarding the language system that the language learner applies at a certain point in the course, Corder (1981: 10 -11) avows that the language errors committed by the learners have a pivotal role to the language practitioners including language teachers, language analysts and researchers as well as language learners. Ill-formed or deviant constructions are significant to the language practitioner or language teacher as they provide evidence regarding the extent at which the language learner has made progress towards attaining the goal, that is, second language learning. To the researcher, errors provide more insight on how the learners learn the second or foreign language and on the strategies that language learners implement to learn the target language. Errors are also valuable to the learner as they offer suggestions

regarding the strategies that language learners adopt to test the hypotheses about the target language.

In view of the supposition that second language learners who have reached the critical period of language learning pursue the same language development route as that followed by children in the acquisition of the native language, language errors are regarded as signs of a system of the learner's interlanguage. Hence, Error Analysis research project are essential as they produce indispensable feedback to psycholinguists who deal with second language learning.

Considering the pedagogical implications of error-based analysis, errors are important as they serve as a source of feedback to the language teacher regarding effective teaching methods and resources to be employed while training and coaching language learners. It also offers vital information which enables the teacher and the course designer to design remedial programmes and prepare further teaching materials respectively. Svartvik (1973:13) encapsulates benefits of error-based analysis regarding the language teaching situation as follows:

It offers avenues to:

- Arrange language difficulties hierarchically.
- Accomplish authentic grading of teaching primacies for each level.
- Realize standards of grading, if possible, in international collaboration.
- Create appropriate teaching and learning material.
- Review learning programmes regularly.

- Set assessment tasks which serve various purposes.
- Decategorise the teaching of language at various levels.

Richards and Sampson (1974: 15) remarked that “At the level of pragmatic classroom experience, Error Analysis will continue to provide one means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching and determines priorities for future efforts.”

According to Corder (1974), Error Analysis offers both theoretical and applied aims. The overriding aim of the theoretical aim is to “elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language” whereas the overriding applied aim is to enable the language learner “to learn more effectively by exploiting the knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes.”

Investigation of errors committed by language learners has a double purpose: First, it serves a diagnostic tool as it can affirm the language learner’s knowledge of the target language at a specific point in the learning course, and predictive as it can provide information to course designers to recreate language teaching and learning resources on the basis of the language learner’s existing errors (Corder, 1967: 162 – 169).

Similarly, Bartholomae (1988) avows that Error Analysis is both useful and valuable to the second language teachers as it affords them the opportunity to regard language errors as pointers to the process of language learning or as a window to the learner’s mind. From the above, it can be concluded that it is important to investigate an array of productive errors committed by language learners in their performance to have a better

understanding of the nature and root causes of the identified errors so that they can be incorporated addresses well in the teaching and learning programme.

2.3.3.4 Sources of Errors

The most important goal of Error Analysis is to account for the errors that language learners commit. Therefore, the explanation of errors is regarded as the most essential phase of Error Analysis research. Sanal (2005) cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) avers that to reach some effective measures, the error analyst should be cognizant of the source of each type of error. This observation is supported by Ellis (1994) who maintains that the explanation of errors committed by language learners “involves an attempt to establish the processes responsible for L2 acquisition”. This is further supported by Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) who assert that “explaining errors involves determining their sources in order to account for why they were made”.

Al-Kresheh (2016) holds the view that errors committed by foreign, and second language learners might be ascribed to various sources or linguistic factors that might impinge on the processes of English language learning. These processes include the influence of the mother tongue and the target language itself. Al-Khresheh (2016) terms the two linguistic factors interlingual and intralingual interference. Kaweera (2013), Abi Samra (2003), Richards and Schmidt (2002) and Brown (2000) opine that interlingual and intralingual interference are the two major linguistic factors that impede the acquisition of the foreign or second language.

It is, therefore, important to note that language errors committed by foreign or second language learners, whether interlingual or intralingual, are indispensable to understand the strategies that learners adopt in the process of language learning. Error Analysis comprises identification, description, classification, and explanation of errors which can benefit second and foreign language researchers, curriculum designers as well as second and foreign language practitioners in general. Intralingual and Interlingual errors are discussed in detail in the following subsections:

2.3.3.4.1 Interlingual errors

Interlingual (interference) errors are errors caused by the impact of the learner's mother tongue. Schachter and Celce-Murcia cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) define interlingual errors as "those caused by the influence of the learner's MT on production of the TL in presumably those areas where languages clearly differ". This is also supported by Makalela (1998) who maintains that interlingual errors arise directly from the learners' native language. Interlingual errors are considered as signs that the language learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the target language. This type of errors is mainly ascribed to language transfer caused by the learner's mother tongue. Al-Khresheh (2016) posits that language transfer can be negative or positive. When the structure of the mother tongue shares similarities with that of the target language, there is positive transfer whereas in cases where the structures of the mother tongue and the target language are different, the transfer is negative (Wilkins, 1972 cited in Seitova, 2016).

Fried (1968) puts emphasis on the significant role that the first language has in the acquisition of the target language when he states that “the learner’s mother tongue will always be present as a factor of interference or support in the teaching process”. Interlingual transfer is caused by negative transfer of certain linguistic structures from the mother tongue which is ascribed to a rule pattern in the mother tongue that results to an error in the target language. This negative impact of the mother tongue on learning is called interlingual interference of transfer (Khresheh, 2016).

Several studies have revealed that interlingual transfer occurs in second and foreign language writing processes. Ellis (1994) maintains that transfer is “a very complex notion which is best understood in terms of cognitive rather than behaviourist models of learning.” Yet, Lim (2010) holds that “interference has long been regarded as one of the major factors causing difficulties in the acquisition of second language, yet what constitutes interference remains a subject of great interest.”

Interlingual transfer is a very important source which accounts for second and foreign language learning. Earlier studies on Error Analysis have attributed many language errors committed by learners to the influence of the learners’ mother tongue (Amoakohene, 2017; Al-Khresheh, 2016; Pineteh, 2013; Mahmoud, 2005; Lim, 2003; Richards, 1974). This shows that indeed, the mother tongue has a significant role in the acquisition of the second language. This is supported by Newmeyer (1996) who avers that it is unavoidable to use the mother tongue while learning the second language.

Al-Nafoie (2010) asserts that EFL/ESL learners already have their mother tongue which serves as language learning tool for their second language. Al-Nafoie (2010) further maintains that when the second language learners use their mother tongue negatively by transferring some structures from their mother tongue, they end up committing interlingual errors. According to Zobl (1980), cited in Al-Khresheh (2016), interlingual errors have the following characteristics:

- Errors caused by interference don't resemble developmental errors.
- When L2 proficiency is low, learners rely on L1 as a crutch.
- Students make assumptions about L2 using L1.
- Learners struggle to distinguish L1 from L2.
- L1 habits are to blame for learners' mistakes.
- Learners use a cross-linguistic generalization.

From the above, it can be deduced that the linguistic features of the mother tongue serve as a stumbling block which can trigger second language learners to commit errors in their target language. This is supported by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) who maintain that “L2 errors are often the result of learners relying on carrying out word-for-word translations on NL surface structures” when producing oral and written utterances in their performance of the target language. Erdogan (2005) cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) directs that Error Analysis does not consider interlingual errors as “the persistence of old habits, but rather, as signs that the learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the new language.” From this standpoint, one can argue that it would be impractical for second language learners to be taken away completely from their mother tongue as they acquire their second language.

2.3.3.4.2 Intralingual errors

As pointed out in the above subsection that interlingual errors are caused by negative transfer from the learner's mother tongue, it is important to also note that there are several other errors whose origins cannot be found in the structure of the mother tongue. This means that the mother tongue does not play a role in the production of such type of learners' errors. The errors that cannot be attributed to the structure of the mother tongue occur because of intralingual interference from the target language (Al-Tamimi, 2006). He avers that intralingual interference is one of the contributing factors that affect second language acquisition. Jiang (2009) cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) holds that intralingual interference are independent of learners' L1. This means that intralingual errors are errors that result from the influences of the target language itself. Negative interference may result from the application of common learning strategies which are related to those that are noticeable in first language acquisition. Moreover, they may crop up due to an incomplete process of acquiring the first language. This is supported by Corder (1967) as cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) when he says:

I propose therefore as a working hypothesis that some at least of the strategies adopted by the learner of second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. Such a proposal does not simply imply that the course or sequence of learning is the same in both cases.

Corder's hypothesis vividly indicates that some of the errors that are committed by second language learners can be considered as intralingual errors which might be triggered by

incomplete learning of the target language. These errors reflect the language learner's competence at a certain stage and display some features of first language acquisition. These errors are non-interlingual and are attributed to the differences between the learners' mother tongue and the target language (Lim, 2010). Intralingual errors display the common characteristics of rule learning. These characteristics are grouped under the following four types: overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concepts hypothesised. The following are the traits of intralingual errors as described by Zobl and Liceras (1994):

- Errors are the same as those produced by native speakers.
- Learners develop rules that are comparable to those of native speakers.
- Errors show how competent a student is at a certain developmental level.
- Students attempt to formulate theories concerning the L2.
- The source of errors is L2.
- Mistakes are a common result of learning language norms.
- The simplicity, generalization, and reduction of grammatical redundancy techniques are employed by language learners.

The above subsection discussed intralingual interference as one of the most important linguistic factors that have a bearing on the acquisition of the second language process. The subsections below focus on the following main reasons that cause intralingual errors: overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concept hypothesised:

2.3.3.4.2.1 Overgeneralization

Overgeneralisation is defined as “a process that occurs when a second language learner acts within the target language, generalizing a particular rule or item in the second language – irrespective of the native language-beyond legitimate bounds (Brown, 1987). It occurs when a language learner applies a specific rule in the language learning process to many other situations when there are different rules which need to apply (Khresheh, 2016). Overgeneralization covers instances where the language learner produces an ill-formed structure based on the learner’s experience of other structures in the target language. It may occur when the learner is reducing the linguistic burden of having to master two sets of linguistic or syntactic rules. For example:

* ‘I am afraid of mouses.’

instead of

‘I am afraid of mice.’

This error is made by the English second language learner who has overgeneralized the rule of pluralization, namely, that ‘-es’ or ‘-s’ is added to the word which is in the singular form. The learner, therefore, without observing exceptions to the rule, applies the rule to every word in the singular form. This is supported by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) who prefer to use the term ‘regularisation’ instead of ‘overgeneralisation’. They aver that regularisation is the application of a rule for producing regular forms, for example, adding an ‘-s’ to a singular form to form its plural. The result is that to an irregular form, for example, ‘knife’ becomes *‘knifes’ instead of knives; ‘woman’ becomes *‘womans’ instead of ‘women’ and ‘person’ becomes *‘persons’ instead of ‘people’.

Overgeneralisation errors also result when the learner creates an ill-formed structure based on other structures in the target language (Ellis, 2008). It mostly entails the creation of one ill-formed structure in place of two target language structures, for example, *‘He can dances’, where English permits ‘He can dance’ or ‘He dances’. Al-Khresheh (2016) asserts that foreign and second language learners use generalization as a strategy to facilitate their language learning process and that this strategy is not unique to second language acquisition as it is also used in first language acquisition. He further avers that overgeneralisation arises when language learners incorrectly widen the scope of the rule to a situation where the language rule cannot be applied.

Abi Samara (2003) cited in Al-Khresheh (2016) professes that overgeneralisation is almost related to redundancy reduction given that it involves some examples where the second language learners produce ill-informed structures based on their previous experience of some other linguistic structures in the target language. Sulaiman (2006) also maintains that second language learners find overgeneralisation as a useful language learning tool without considering the context to which it can be applied. Odlin (1989) holds that overgeneralisation is frequently caused by the inappropriate application target language rules and (Ellis, 1990) refers to such errors as ‘examples of obliterate subsumption’.

Littlewood (2004) does not consider overgeneralisation and interlingual interference as different processes. He argues that the two represent aspects of a similar underlying

approach as both arise when learners employ their previous knowledge about language to enable the learning process. Overgeneralisation can result from the manner or order in which the teacher presents language items or the nature of exercises that the learner is expected to perform. Norrish (1983) advises that teachers should refrain from teaching 'together what can be confused'.

2.3.3.4.2 Ignorance of rule restrictions

Ignorance of rule restrictions is another major cause of intralingual errors which is closely related to overgeneralisation. It is defined by Richards (1974) as the inability to observe the restrictions of existing structures or the use of rules to inapplicable contexts. For example, having learnt the structure 'I asked him to do the work' which is very correct, a learner may use this previously learnt grammatical rule in a new context or use it in a context such as *'I made him to do the work' which is incorrect as it ignores restrictions on the distribution of make.

Another contributing aspect is the misuse of preposition which stems from analogy. This occurs when the learner comes across a certain preposition with one type of verb and attempt by analogy to use the same preposition with similar verbs. For example: 'We talked about it' becomes *'We discussed about it', 'Go with him' becomes *'Follow with him' and 'He showed me the movie' becomes *'He explained me the movie'. Richards (1971) asserts that ignorance of rule restrictions might be caused by some pattern exercises that combine complementary rudiments.

2.3.3.4.2.3 Incomplete application of rules

Another main cause of intralingual errors is incomplete application of rules. This refers to the occurrence of deviant structures whose deviancy represents a definite degree of development of the grammatical rules required to produce acceptable utterances. It involves a failure to fully acquire knowledge of the structure of the target language. Unlike in overgeneralisation, where a specific rule is duly employed, second language learners frequently fail to use a rule regularly (Ellis, 1994). It is because of this reason that Norrish (1983) refers to incomplete application of rules as ‘the reverse side of the coin’.

Richards (1974) avers that foreign language learners tend to use some of the rules and persist on constructing deviant forms to simplify their learning. The most common example of incomplete application of rules is the learners’ inefficiency in framing questions correctly. For example, instead of asking ‘Where are you going?’, second language learners might produce such a sentence: ‘You are going where?’. Richards supports this by pointing out that majority of foreign language learners do not find it easy to formulate questions correctly.

2.3.3.4.2.4 False concept hypothesised

This type of intralingual errors results from the learners’ faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. Al-Tamimi (2006) asserts that errors of false concept hypothesised are sometimes triggered by ‘poor gradation of teaching items. Richards (1971) avers that language learners are inclined to form hypothesis about some grammatical rules of the target language. For instance, the form ‘was’ may be interpreted

as the past tense marker and may lead to faulty constructions as *‘one day it was happened’ or *‘she was finished the homework’. Errors which are caused by false concept hypothesised are ascribed to ‘classroom presentation, particularly when there is undue emphasis on the points of differences at the expense of realistic English (Lim, 1998). Typical examples of errors of false concept hypothesised include archiforms and double markings.

Pedagogical implications of Error Analysis

The findings derived from Error Analysis have pedagogical implications in language learning and teaching for syllabus designers and language practitioners. Khansir (2012) asserts that the implications of using EA in the classroom include but not limited to: developing remedial measures, preparing the teaching materials in an appropriate way and making suggestions about the strategies used by learners. Error Analysis also provides signposts to teachers regarding “how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn” (Corder, 1967: 167). Error Analysis plays a pivotal role by providing the teacher with information regarding the learner’s progress. This can enable the teacher to adjust the teaching practices to meet students’ needs. Additionally, Error Analysis provides the teacher with a means of feedback as it reflects how effective the teaching techniques are and red flags language items that require additional attention. Again, Error Analysis enables errors to be treated more appropriately and effectively when their sources are identified (Erdoğan, 2005).

Findings derived from Error Analysis serve a very important role for syllabus designers as they provide insight into the linguistic difficulties that a group of second or foreign language learners encounter and their needs at a particular phase of language learning. In addition, Error Analysis indicates the items that need to be included or given more attention when designing the syllabus and how the language items can be arranged and presented in an appropriate way. Error Analysis also plays a significant role in the understanding of the language learning process, which can lead to improved teaching practices (Wittich, 1979).

Limitations of Error Analysis

Error Analysis has several limitations. Ellis (2008) encapsulates the critiques on Error Analysis into three major groupings: weakness in methodological procedures, theoretical problems and limitations in scope. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) maintain that Error Analysis offers a skewed and incomplete picture of learner language as it does not examine what learners do correctly or show the development over time as it focuses only on learners' erroneous forms at a particular stage and ignores what they do correctly. Again, Schachter (1974) also claimed Error Analysis cannot account for the target language forms that second or foreign language learners may avoid using. Lennon (2008) also argues that because Error Analysis can be influenced by a multiplicity of factors, it makes it difficult for the error analyst to identify the unitary source of an error in some cases and variability in learner performance. Another limitation of Error Analysis is about the processes regarding the identification, classification, and explanation of errors because such processes are not always straightforward. Hammarberg (1974:191)

contends that Error Analysis is “a partial and preliminary source of information at an initial stage of investigation”.

Notwithstanding the limitations of Error Analysis, its contributions to second language acquisition research and practical significance in the field of language teaching is unparalleled (Ellis, 1994; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). As pointed out by Schachter (1974), there is no single approach that can serve as a panacea to all the questions concerning second language acquisition. Saville-Troike (2012: 42) asserts that “EA continues as a useful procedure for the study of SLA”. Some procedures are applied in the current study as a response to some of the limitations of EA. Since students tend to use error avoidance strategies under test conditions (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011), the data of the current study were collected using an essay writing task developed specifically for this study rather than using test or examination scripts. For this study, I adopted a clear working definition of ‘error’ to clarify how errors are understood in this study.

In addition, categorization and explanation of errors were shared with two English language experts from the Department of English. Then the coded data were compared. In cases where there were any differences in the coding of the errors, discussions were made with the language experts and thereafter, the coding was adjusted.

2.3.3.5 Taxonomies of Error Analysis

This section focuses on error taxonomies as part of Error Analysis. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982: 150 - 163) classify the most commonly used taxonomies of Error Analysis as follows: Linguistic Category Taxonomy, Surface Strategy Taxonomy, Comparative Analysis Taxonomy and Communicative Effect Taxonomy. I will explain the four taxonomies for two main reasons. Firstly, to portray error taxonomies which rely exclusively on noticeable characteristics for their definition; and to relate the findings of research conducted so far regarding observed types of error (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 146).

2.3.3.5.1 Linguistic Category Taxonomy

This taxonomy classifies errors according to the language component or linguistic constituent (or both) which is affected by the error. This includes phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis and discourse (Dulay et al., 1982: 146 -147). Researchers use this taxonomy as either the only one or combined with some other taxonomy. This taxonomy is also convenient for organizing the collected data.

2.3.3.5.2 Surface Strategy Taxonomy

This taxonomy focuses on the way in which surface structures are altered. Analysing errors from a Surface Structure perspective enables researchers to recognize that errors made by students are based on some logic and that they are not merely the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of learners' use of interim principles to produce a new language (Dulay et al., 1982 as cited in Kafipour & Khojasteh, 2012). Using this taxonomy, Dulay et al. (1982: 154-163) divide errors into the following categories: omission, additions, misformation and misordering. Omission usually happens during the early

stages of second language acquisition, whereas misformation, misordering or overuse are more common during the intermediate stages (Dulay et al., 1982: 150).

Omission occurs when an item which must be present in a well-formed utterance is missing. Dulay et al. (1982: 154) asserts that there is evidence that grammatical morphemes such as noun and verb, inflections, articles and prepositions are omitted more often than content morphemes which carry meaning. For example, in the sentence **He bought new car*, the grammatical morpheme *a* is omitted.

Additions are the second category of Surface structure taxonomy which are direct opposites of omissions. They occur when there is an additional grammatical item which is not supposed to be there in a well-constructed utterance. Dulay et al. (1982: 156) divide additions into the following three categories: double markings, regularization and simple addition.

- The first category of addition errors is double marking which occurs when the language learner fails to delete certain items which are required in certain linguistic constructions, but not in others, for example, “*Did you understood him?” instead of “*Did you understand him?”.

Table 2.1 Error of Double Marking in L2 Production

Number	Semantic feature	Error	Example of error
1.	Past tense	Past tense is marked in the auxiliary and the verb	She didn't went/goed.
2.	Present tense	Present tense is marked in the auxiliary and the verb	He doesn't eats.
3.	Negation	Negation is marked in the auxiliary and the quantifier Negation is marked in the auxiliary and the adverb	She didn't give him none. He don't get no wings. They don't hardly eat.
4.	Equational predicate	Equation is marked in two copula positions	Is this is a cow?
5.	Object	The object is both topicalized and expressed in the object pronoun	That's is the man who I saw him.
6.	Past tense	The auxiliary is produced twice	Why didn't mommy don't make dinner?

(Source: Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 157)

- The second category of addition errors is regularisation. Regularisation occurs when the second language learner applies a rule to the class of exceptions. Second language learners usually fail to differentiate when they find a few nouns that have the same singular and plural forms such as 'aircraft' and 'salmon'. Moreover,

majority are not aware that not all the verbs in the past tense need to be affixed with the past simple marker (–ed) and therefore, commit errors such as *‘The cellphone costed me R25’ instead of ‘The cellphone cost me R25’.

- The third category of addition errors is simple addition. Table 2.2 below shows examples of simple addition errors:

Table 2.2 Simple Addition Error

Number	Linguistic item	Error
1.	Third person singular	The fishes doesn't live in the water.
2.	Past tense irregular	The train is gonna broke it.
3.	Article 'a'	A this
4.	Preposition	In over there

(Source: Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982: 158)

Table 2.2 above illustrates the four classes of linguistics items and the examples of simple addition errors that can occur concerning them. These four linguistics classes include third person singular –s, past tense irregular, article ‘a, and preposition.

Misformation is the third category of Surface structure taxonomy which involves the “use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure” (Dulay et al., 1982: 158). Misformation has the following three types: regularizations, archi-forms and alternating forms.

- Regularisation errors are errors in which an irregular marker is replaced by a regular marker, for example, *‘salmons’ for ‘salmon’, *‘womans’ for ‘women’ and *‘advices’ for ‘advice’.
- Archi-forms errors are errors that result from the use of one member of a class of forms instead of using all the members. These errors involve such demonstrative adjectives such as this, that, those and these. For instance, ‘that boy’ instead of *‘that boys’, ‘this virus’ instead of *‘these virus’.
- alternating forms which usually occur because of the use of archi-forms that often give way to the “free alternation of various members of a class with each other”, as in *‘this books’ and *‘those pens’ by the same learner (Dulay et al. 1982: 163). Other examples of alternating forms include using ‘she’ instead of ‘her’, ‘he’ and ‘she’, ‘they’ for ‘it’ and so on. Therefore, this will cause errors in the spoken and written utterances of second language learners.

Misordering is the last category of error identified by the Surface structure taxonomy. It occurs in an utterance where a morpheme or a group of morphemes is misplaced as in **I get up at 6 o'clock always*, where *always* is misordered (Dulay et al., 1982: 162). Another example the use of the phrase ‘all the time’ in ‘He is all the time late’ whose correct version should be ‘He is late all the time’ and ‘What father is doing?’ whose correct interrogative form should be ‘What is father doing?’

2.3.3.5.3 Comparative Analysis Taxonomy

The comparative Analysis Taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and another type of construction such as errors committed by children acquiring

their L1. This taxonomy includes the following four error categories: developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors and other errors (Kafipour & Khojasteh, 2012).

Children learning the target language as their first language make comparable developmental mistakes. *'Dog eat it,' for instance, was created by a Spanish toddler learning English. Interlanguage mistakes have a structure that is comparable to a phrase or statement that has the same meaning in the learners' native tongue as "the man slim," as produced by a Spanish speaker. Ambiguous errors include phrases like *"I don't have an automobile," which could be characterized as either developmental or interlingual. There are other errors that don't fit into any of the above categories. For instance, *"She do hungary."

2.3.3.5.4 Communicative Effect Taxonomy

This taxonomy focuses on the effect that the errors have on the listener or reader. Dulay et al. (1982: 189) maintain that "errors that affect the overall organization of the sentence hinder successful communication, while errors that affect a single element of the sentence usually do not hinder communication". They refer to the former as global errors and the latter as local errors. Global errors include:

- wrong order of major constituents
- missing, wrong, or misplaced sentence connectors
- missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules
- regularizing the exceptions to omnipresent syntactic rules

- Inappropriate psychological predicate constructions (i.e., predicates describing how a person feels)
- incorrect complement type selection (i.e., subordinate clauses)

Local errors include incorrect noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, and quantifier formation (Dulay et al., 1982:).

For this study, I will blend the Surface Structure and the linguistic taxonomies because a combination of the two has the advantage of enabling researchers to recognize that errors made by students are based on some logic and that they are not merely the result of laziness or sloppy thinking, but of learners' use of interim principles to produce a new language (Dulay et al., 1982 as cited in Kafipour & Khojasteh, 2012).

2.3.4 Previous studies on Error Analysis

As pointed out earlier on in 1.11, this section presents an overview of the main findings of previous Error Analysis studies regarding structural or grammatical errors committed by English second and foreign language from different language backgrounds in the written production.

Mandor (2021) adopted Error Analysis procedures to analyse language errors in the writings of level-two students at a Ghanaian university. The findings of her study exposed that the students exhibited inadequate writing abilities, including grammatical errors and a lack of consistency and cohesion. The researcher identified 16 different error categories from the data analysis, with expression, omission, spelling, and capitalization accounting

for 25% of the total errors and having a very high frequency of occurrence. Plurality, addition, word choice, and concord errors made comprised the next four errors, each accounting for 25% of the total errors found. Even though they were scored low, errors in tense, punctuation, prepositions, pronouns, flawed parallelism, fragments, incorrect transitions, and articles made up 50% of the total.

In an analysis of 300 essays submitted by Namibian Grade 7 students from three different schools in the Walvis Bay circuit, Erongo Region, Namibia, Emvula (2018) used error analysis to identify prevalent grammatical errors. The study's conclusions showed that learners frequently made errors in the following seven grammatical categories: tenses, articles, prepositions, singular/plural forms, subject-verb agreement, and word choice. The study identified grammatical ignorance, intralingual errors, interference from the first language (mother tongue), and overgeneralization as potential sources of errors.

Okoro (2017) carried out a study on "*Error Analysis of the Written English Essays of Junior Secondary School Two Students in Owerri North*". The study findings revealed that the errors committed by the study participants were due to mother tongue interference, intralingual transfer and carelessness.

Amoakohene (2017) analysed fifty students' scripts to investigate the errors committed by first-year students at the University of Health and Allied Sciences in Ghana. The findings of his study revealed that after having undergone the Academic and Communication Skills programme for two semesters, the first-year students were not able

to effectively apply the rules of usage in the English language. Of the fifty scripts that were analysed, a total of 1050 errors were detected. The findings of the study further showed that of the 1050 errors that were detected, 584 (55.6%) were grammatical errors followed by 442 (42%) mechanical errors and 24 (2.3%) errors linked with poor structuring of sentences. According to Amoakohene (2017), the above situation needed immediate attention to save the image of the University of Health and Allied Sciences and to fully equip the graduates from the university in the field of Academic Writing and Communication Skills to enable them compete with confidence at both the international and local levels.

Quibol-Catabay (2016) used a mixed method research design to analyse the written errors of thirty (30) level two students from the College of Business, Entrepreneurship and Accountancy of State University, Andrews Campus. The objective of the study was to investigate the frequency and the types of errors committed by the subjects in the sentences which they wrote after they had listened to and viewed an audio-visual report. The findings of the study revealed that the study participants committed the following three main categories of errors: mechanical errors, grammatical errors and structural errors. Quibol-Catabay (2016) pointed out that errors that were most dominant in the mechanical, grammatical and structural categories were incorrect use of punctuation marks, wrong use of tense and fragments respectively. The research findings further revealed that highest type of error made by the research participants were errors in the structural category, with a frequency of 63, followed by errors in the grammatical category, with a frequency of 43, and errors in the mechanical category, with a frequency of 31.

Sajid et al. (2016) investigated the most common errors committed by students at postgraduate level in English writing skill in Pakistan. The study identified the most common errors to be verb-tense, spelling, inappropriate use of vocabulary and concord. The study drew conclusions that even at the postgraduate level, students still make many errors in their English composition.

Sawalmeh (2013) carried out an Error Analysis of thirty-two English essays written by thirty-two Arabic speaking Saudi students who were in a preparatory year programme. The aim of the study was to investigate the most common language errors committed by the participants in their written English essays. All the errors that were committed by the students were identified and grouped into different categories. The study identified the following ten most common errors committed the research participants: verb tense, word order, singular/plural form, concord, double negatives, spelling, capitalization, articles, sentence fragments and prepositions.

Pineteh (2013) explored the challenges that undergraduate students from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, South Africa, face in applying the rules of usage of the English Language to communicate in writing and the implications associated with these challenges for students' academic development as well as the possible intervention strategies that can be applied to deal with these challenges in the students' writing. The findings of the study revealed that the academic writing challenges of the students resulted from students' linguistic and general background, their attitude towards academic

writing and the privileging of middle-class literacy practices in South African higher education. To curtail the academic challenges, (Pineteh, 2013) recommended the integration of academic literacy in disciplinary curricula, the promotion of multimodalities of teaching and assessment including teamwork between language lecturers and core course specialists. Pineteh (2013) also highlighted that students should participate in intensive academic reading and writing workshops and that the lecturers who facilitate the academic writing modules at the university should provide increased formative feedback to their students.

Hariri (2012) adopted a linguistic category taxonomy to analyse the morpho-syntactic errors committed by Iranian English Foreign language learners. The study findings revealed that the students committed the following seven categories of errors: errors in the use of articles, errors in the use of prepositions, wrong word order, errors due to the lack of concord, wrong use of conditional sentences, typical Persian constructions, and wrong use of tense. The researcher reported that most of the identified errors were intralingual.

Nzama (2010) investigated the errors of isiZulu speakers of English in both rural and urban areas. The aim of his study was to identify language errors committed by isiZulu speakers and providing possible causes of these errors. The findings of the study revealed that the main contributing factors to errors committed by the learners were lack of teaching materials and libraries at schools and lack of training in teaching English as a subject. The study findings also revealed the following most common errors committed

by the participants were: errors in concord, use of auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, plural formation errors, first language interference, past tense errors and infinitives and word reduction whereby letters were omitted from certain words.

Hinson and Park (2009) also carried out a study to analyse the syntactic errors committed by Korean learners of English. The findings of the study indicated that most of the errors that were committed by the study participants were on articles and verb forms. Errors of articles comprised omission of the definite article 'the' and omission or overuse of indefinite articles 'a' and 'an'. Verb errors comprised incorrect use of tense and verb forms as well as errors of tense agreement. Hinson and Park ascribed these errors to L1 interference due to the cross-linguistic differences between English and Korean regarding the syntactic rules.

Mungungu (2010) also conducted a study to investigate common English language errors made by Oshiwambo, Afrikaans and Silozi First Language speakers in Namibia where errors were analysed in a corpus of 360 compositions written by 180 participants. All the errors were identified and grouped into various types. The study findings revealed that the four most common errors committed by the participants were on tenses, prepositions, articles, and spelling.

Maros et al. (2007) also conducted a study to establish the structural errors committed by Malaysian learners of English at the intermediate level. The research findings revealed that the three most problematic structural categories for the study participants were

articles, concord, and copula. Based on a surface strategy taxonomy, omission and misformation were the most common types of errors. The researchers ascribed most of the identified errors to interference of the mother tongue.

Manthata (1991) carried out a study on Error Analysis in the written English of North Sotho speaking students. The study solely classifies errors into categories, provides possible reasons for their occurrence and frequency count of various categories.

Roos (1990) conducted a syntactic Error Analysis of the written work of Vista University students. Her study recommends that utilisation of remedial feedback which should be in the form of problem-solving skills which focuses on the most serious or frequent errors which occurred. She argues that the problem-solving skill are more likely to lead the individual student to review his/her hypothesis about the rules that govern the usage of problematic language structures.

In a nutshell, the above section has offered a review of similar studies which are of solid bearing to the current study. Although the above studies were conducted in various parts of the world, they strongly suggest the need for Error Analysis. The above studies also informed and guided the present study on the methodological procedures used in analyzing errors committed by level-one English second language students at a South African university. In turn, this enabled the study to attain its objective of establishing the common error types committed by the students in question as well as to gain a better

understanding of the rationale if any behind the committed errors and how the errors can be corrected.

2.3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the review of literature related to aspects of written English language errors. The chapter looked at the following main areas: an overview of errors, approaches to the study of errors. These approaches were looked at from a linguistic perspective. The linguistic approaches comprise Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and interlanguage. This was followed by a review of previous studies of Error Analysis which investigated the written English errors made by English second or foreign language learners. Most issues in this chapter highlight that language errors should be regarded as indicators of the learner's development in second or foreign learning and as evidence of their built-in repertoire and not as indicators of failure in education. The chapter is concluded by focusing on the approach that the study adopted. The next chapter discusses the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN, METHODS, AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In line with the aim of the study which was to analyse the English structural errors in a corpus of essays written by level-one students at a South African university to help improve the academic literacy levels of the students in question, this chapter presents a detailed discussion of how these errors were collected and analysed. These include the methodology, research site, population of the study, sampling and sample size, data collection and analysis, reliability, validity, confirmability and generalisability. This chapter also expounds on the ethical considerations that underpin the study.

3.2 Methodology

There is little or no general agreement regarding the definition of methodology among researchers. There are researchers who use the term methodology synonymously with method while others hold that there is a need to draw a distinction between the two terms. McGregor and Murnane (2010) aver that in most research projects, it is a common practice for the term 'methodology' to be used as the heading, then followed by a description of the methods employed in the research design. This signifies that for most researchers, the two terms 'method' and 'methodology' are synonymous.

Bruwer (2005: 2) avers that methodology is the "broad theoretical and philosophical framework into which ... procedural rules [methods] fit" while "methods are merely

technical rules, which lay down the procedures for how reliable and objective knowledge can be obtained.

Methodology refers to the rationale and philosophical assumptions that underlie any natural, social, or human study, whether articulated or not whereas methods refer to procedures or processes by which the methodology will be operationalized – a means of concretizing or putting a frame around the abstract concept (McGregor & Murnane, 2012: 2). This means that methodology produces method while method cannot produce a particular methodology.

Research methods can be viewed as a tool bag from which the researcher can select the most appropriate research tools or instruments that can be used to gather and subsequently to analyse those data (Pole & Morrison, 2003: 4 - 5). This claim suggests that methodology sets or detects the ground rules which outline how the research should be conducted and the methods to employ these rules.

Research methods are methods for data collection. They can include questionnaires, interviews, observations or focus group discussions. Essentially, the researcher must ensure that the method chosen is valid and reliable. The validity and reliability of any research project depends on the appropriateness of the methods used. Whatever procedure one uses to collect data, it must be critically examined to check the extent to which it is likely to yield the expected results (Walliman: 2011).

The classification of research is generally divided into quantitative research, qualitative research (McBurney & White, 2013).

3.2.1 Quantitative approach

Quantitative research collects numerical data that must be analyzed using mathematical techniques to shed light on phenomena (Muijs, 2011:1). This means that to convert quantitative data into numbers, either scaling, counting, measuring, or both, are employed (Punch, 1998: 59). Creswell (2018) lists the following characteristics of quantitative studies: The first trait of a quantitative researcher is the perception that reality exists and can be assessed objectively using a questionnaire or other instruments. The relationship between the researcher and the subject of the study, which should be remote and independent, comes next. By selecting a deliberate sample and maintaining objectivity, the researcher should try to avoid bias. The deductive nature of the quantitative research method is the third characteristic. This implies that the researcher tests theories or hypotheses that are chosen before the investigation is carried out. The research findings are given based on the facts acquired from the evidence in the research data collected, without reference to the researcher's personal values.

Quantitative research design is broadly divided into experimental designs and non-experimental designs. The two types of experimental designs are: true experiments and quasi- experiments. Muijs (2011: 13) defines experiment as a test under controlled conditions that is made to demonstrate a known truth or examine the validity of a

hypothesis. He further maintains that a true experiment refers to an experimental study in which the subjects of the research study are randomly assigned to treatment conditions. On the other hand, a quasi- experiment refers to an experimental study in which the subjects of the study are not randomly assigned to treatment conditions (Creswell, 2018), but are chosen to be in a control group, called a comparison group that is being selected to be as similar to the experimental group as possible (Muijs, 2011). Some of the non-experimental designs used over the years are observational research, survey research and analysis of existing data sets. Muijs (2011) further asserts that survey or descriptive research are cross-sectional and longitudinal studies conducted using questionnaires or structured interviews to generalize the sample to a larger population. Data collected through questionnaires can be gathered in various ways such as face to face, telephonic and email. On the other hand, in observational research, the researcher collects data by observing particular situations, settings or interactions to observe what is really going on in that situation instead of relying on information from respondents or research participants. Analysis of existing data sets occurs when a research study is conducted by using existing available data to study specific situations (Muijs, 2011).

3.2.2 Qualitative Approach

The aim of the study was to analyse errors in a corpus of essays written by level-one students in a South African University. To achieve this aim, the qualitative research method was used to collect and analyse the written essays from the research participants. By nature, qualitative research is descriptive, thus better positioning the researcher to

describe the errors committed by level one students at a South African university. Jane and Jane (2014: 2 -3) aver that qualitative research:

“... is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices...turn the world into a series of representations including fieldnotes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.”

Denzin and Lincoln's (2018) definition signifies that qualitative researchers are critical observers who seek to bring about positive changes in the world by observing different phenomena in their natural settings. They also employ a multiplicity of data collection tools which do not include quantification and measurements.

Merriam (2002) outlines the following four main characteristics of qualitative research: The first characteristic is that qualitative researchers conduct research studies to understand the meaning of people's lives, phenomena, and experiences from the people's own point of view. The second characteristic is that researchers are “the primary instrument” for data collection analysis. This stems from the researchers' main objective which is to understand. This means that the researcher is the most important and

irreplaceable research tool in the data collection process. The third characteristic is that the qualitative research process is inductive. This indicates that the qualitative researcher collects data aimed at developing hypotheses or theories. The fourth and last characteristic is that the research findings are entirely descriptive. The research findings are presented in the form of words or pictures instead of numbers, and they are supported by citing from interviews, documents, field notes, and so forth.

The above characteristics attest to the lack of uniformity associated with methods involving qualitative research (Hammersley, 1992; Silverman, 1989). Some of these approaches used over the years are phenomenological studies, case studies, grounded theory, ethnographic studies and biographical studies. Phenomenological studies focus on studying or examining people's experiences. A small number of research participants are considered to understand the heart of the experience (Creswell, 2018: 12). Grounded theory seeks to gain in-depth data to discover, or formulate, the substantive theory which is based on the specific real-world situations or events. Case studies seek to describe and analyze a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, a group, an institution, or community in depth (Merriam, 2002: 8). Ethnographic studies aim at studying or observing human society and culture of a specific group of people in a natural field setting for a prolonged time (Creswell, 2018: 11; Merriam, 2002: 8). Biographical studies are aimed at studying a person's life and experiences (Creswell, 2018:47).

Merriam (2002: 12 - 13) identified the following three major data collection methods in qualitative research: interviews, observations, and documents. They aver that interviews can be structured or unstructured. In structured interviews, the researcher prepares a

specific set of questions to ask the research participants whereas in unstructured interviews, the topic is set to be explored and questions are not prepared. The semi-structured interview is a combination of both structured and unstructured interviews. Pertaining to observations, the phenomenon can be observed without the research participants being aware that they are being observed. However, if the researcher plays a role as a member of the group, observational data can be obtained from the researcher's being a part of the activity under observation. In qualitative research methods, documents which are collected can be public records or personal documents which could either be written, oral or visual.

In a nutshell, the major distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is that quantitative research aims at finding out the quantity of several characteristics in a phenomenon, situation, problem or issue, whereas qualitative research aims at finding out and explaining a phenomenon, situation, problem or issue. Quantitative research generally focuses on a larger sample size whereas qualitative research generally focuses on a smaller sample size. In quantitative research, procedures such as objectives, design, sample, questions to ask respondents tend to be rigid or presupposed whereas in qualitative research, the research process can be flexible. Data in quantitative research is analyzed in terms of statistical procedures whereas data in qualitative research is analyzed to describe participants' responses, observations and descriptions of issues (McBurney & White, 2013).

3.2.3 Mixed Methods

A Mixed methods design is regarded as a research strategy that crosses the boundaries of conventional paradigms of research by deliberately combining methods drawn from different traditions, with different underlying assumptions. A mixed methods research design focuses on the collection, analysis and mixing of both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study or series of studies to provide a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell, 2018).

The important key term in mixed methods is methodological triangulations, which means that methodologies are combined in the research study. The basic assumption in mixed methods is that in order to get rid of bias, certain specific data sources, investigators, and methods should be used with other data sources, investigators, and methods. Creswell (2018) distinguishes three models for combining research designs which are: the two-phase design, the dominant- less dominant design and the mixed-methodology design. In the two- phase design approach, the researcher conducts the study in two phases. In this case, the qualitative approach may be applied in the first phase followed by the quantitative approach in the second phase or vice-versa. In the dominant- less dominant design, the researcher applies one approach for the most part of a single study, while on the other hand, only the least part of the other approach is applied in the very same study. In the mixed-methodology design, the researcher combines both the qualitative and quantitative approaches in many steps of the research design such as introduction, literature review, research objectives, and research questions (Creswell, 2018).

Creswell (2018) outlines the following advantages related to the blending of qualitative and quantitative research designs:

- The mixed methods research provides strengths that offset the weaknesses of both qualitative and quantitative research;
- Mixed methods research helps answer questions that cannot be answered qualitatively or quantitatively alone;
- Mixed methods research provides more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than either qualitative or quantitative alone.
- Mixed methods research encourages the use of the multiple worldviews or paradigms rather than the typical association of certain paradigms for quantitative research and others for qualitative research.

For this study, an explanatory mixed methods design was employed. The adopted mixed methods involved a dominant quantitative approach with a less-dominant qualitative data collection procedure. The choice was based on the objectives of the study which were to identify the quantity of English language structural errors that the research participants committed in their written work and to describe the types of errors which appeared in the data collected. Analysis was done to find the frequency and the number of the occurrence of errors in the data collected. After the frequencies of each error type were counted, they were presented in percentages. The research method applied here is quantitative since the aim was to “quantify or find out the extent of the variation in a phenomenon, situation, problem or issue” (McBurney & White, 2013). Moreover, quantitative data refers to data which are altered into numbers by measurements (Punch, 1998: 59).

According to Gay et al. (2009), themes and categories should be created in qualitative research; hence categories for each of the written errors were created. The interpretive method for the in-depth analysis of language errors was then used to describe and interpret the data. Here, the qualitative research method was mainly adopted to analyse the written documents with data collected from the research participants' written essay.

3.3 Research site

The study was carried out at a South African university, which is a historically disadvantaged, rural-based university situated in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. It is in the Thulamela Local Municipality which is within the Vhembe District Municipality in Thohoyandou town (see Fig 3.1).

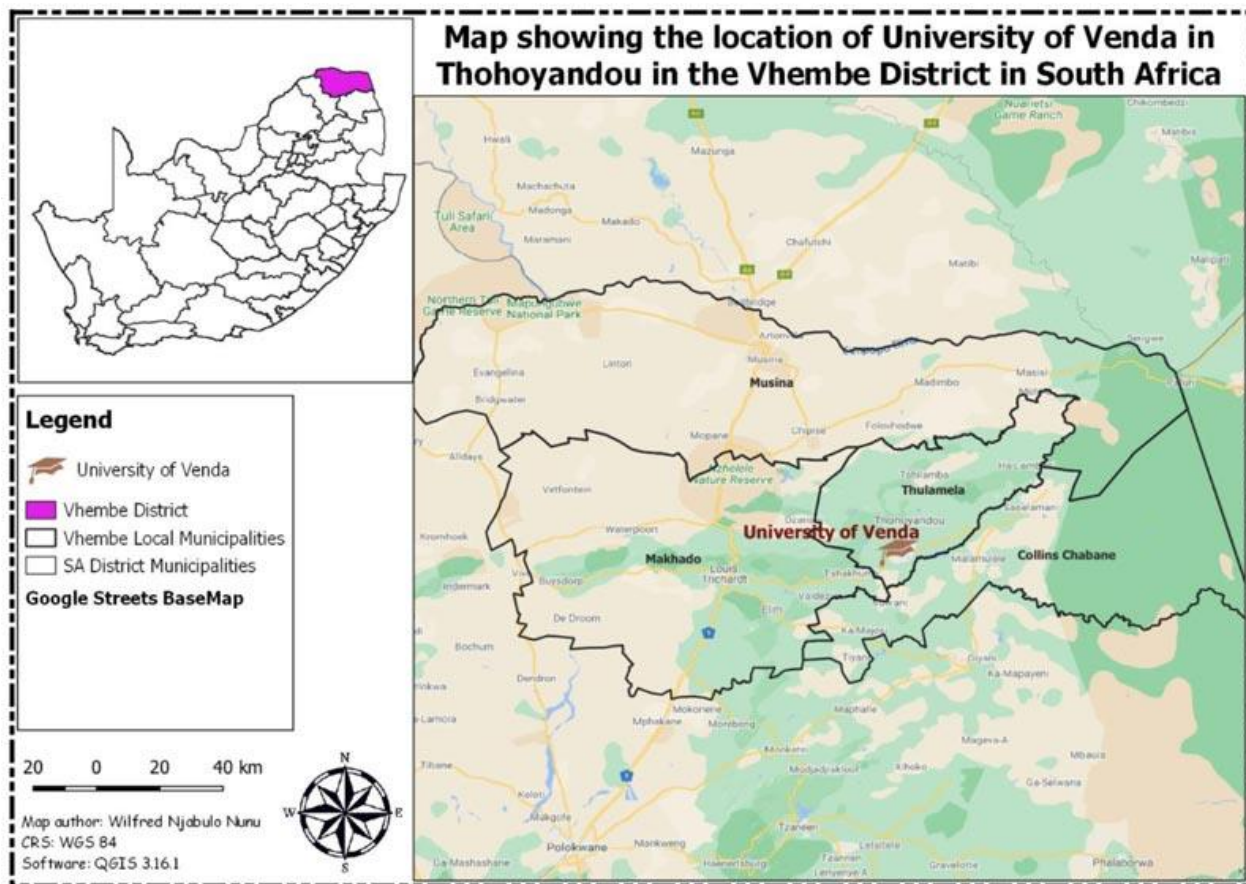


Figure 3.1. Map of the Study area

(<https://openaidjournal.com/contents/volumes/V15/TOAIDJ-15-42/TOAIDJ-15-42.pdf>)

The study area is one of South Africa's 26 public universities. It is a residential university located in the fast-growing town of Thohoyandou. It has the following six faculties that incorporate 43 academic departments: Faculty of Health Sciences; Faculty of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education; Faculty of Management, Commerce and Law; and Faculty of Science, Engineering and Agriculture. The faculties offer certificate, diploma, and degree programmes. All level-one students registered at different faculties must register for English Communication Skills which is a compulsory language-orientated and

study skills module designed to help newly admitted level-one students cope with university studies and everyday communication in English. English Communication Skills comprises two modules of 15 weeks each. Module One is offered in the first semester and Module Two in the second semester. Module One is a core module and must be taken by all level-one students from all faculties, but also by students from other year-groups who are repeating the English Communication module. Module One is a prerequisite for students to be allowed to register for the second semester module.

3.4 Population of the study

Burns and Grove (2017) define population as all the elements (individuals, objects, and events) that meet the sample criteria for inclusion in a study. The population of this study comprised all level one student who had registered for a compulsory English Communication Skills semester course in the 2021 academic year. The second, third- and fourth year undergraduate students were excluded from the study because a study of this nature can be done at 'entry level' or 'departure level' (Anku, 2017). Therefore, only level one students who had registered for English Communication Skills (ECS1541) in the 2021 academic year participated in the study given that the first year of an undergraduate programme functions as a transition period from high school to the university. When level-one students transit to university, they are faced with numerous challenges, - linguistic, social and study habits which may impede their academic performance.

3.5 Sampling and sample size

Sampling refers to the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation, or outcome regarding the bigger group. In the same vein, a sample refers to a subgroup of the population that a researcher is interested in (McBurney & White, 2013). The two main types of sampling are: random/ probability sampling, non-random/ non- probability sampling.

3.5.1 Random sampling

Kalof et al. (2008: 42) define random sampling, also known as probability sampling, as a technique whereby samples are selected by randomization in which every member of a population is given an equal opportunity of being included in the sample. There are three types of random sampling: simple random sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling. In simple random sampling, each sampling unit is assigned a number, then the sample size is selected by using a selected method which could be a fishbowl draw, a table of random numbers or a computer program. For stratified random sampling, the sampling elements are separated by such attributes as gender, age, income, marital and employment status. Then the researcher picks the desired sampling elements for every stratified group by using simple random sampling designs. Stratified sampling can be divided into two types, namely: proportionate and disproportionate stratified sampling. McBurney and White (2013) aver that in proportionate stratified sampling, “the sample selected is in proportion to the size of each stratum in the population”, whereas for disproportionate stratified sampling, “consideration is not given to the size of the stratum”.

Cluster sampling requires the researcher to divide the population into categories, or “clusters.” (McBurney & White, 2013). It is a quick method that concentrates on a few classes in a school or university. It follows the principle that when the population is large, the researcher selects sub-groups such as a class rather than randomly selecting the whole population (Kalof et al., 2008: 223). Gay et al. (2009: 129) define a cluster as a random selection of any location in which the researchers can find an intact group of population members with similar characteristics such as classrooms, schools, hospitals and department stores. Cluster samples usually involve less time and expense and are generally more convenient. The steps involved in cluster sampling are as follows:

- identifying and defining the population,
- determining the desired sample size,
- identifying and defining the logical cluster,
- listing all the clusters,
- estimating the average number of population members per cluster,
- determining the number of clusters needed by dividing the sample size by the estimated size of the cluster,
- randomly selecting the number of clusters and using a table of random numbers
- including all population members in each selected cluster.

3.5.2 Probability sampling

Probability sampling, also known as non-random sampling, is sampling which is carried out when the researcher cannot ascertain the exact number of elements that are there in a population or a qualitative study which does not seek to generalise the research

findings. In this case, selection of a sample hinges on other factors. The four types of probability sampling are as follows: quota sampling, judgmental sampling, accidental sampling and snowball sampling. For quota sampling, the researcher gathers the sample data based on his own accessibility to the study population. In other words, the researcher selects the sample from an accessible location, and when the researcher meets people who possess requisite attributes, he requests them to participate in the study. The researcher follows this procedure until getting needed number of research participants. On the other hand, accidental sampling is more akin to quota sampling because it is also based on the researcher's accessibility to the sample. Conversely, it does not require any particular attribute of the research participants. Judgmental sampling, also known as purposive sampling, relies on the researcher's viewpoint of potential participants who can offer the necessary data to respond to the research objective and who are also willing to share such data. Snowball is a process of selecting a sample using networks. To start with, a few individuals in a group or organization are selected and the required information is collected from them. Thereafter, the individuals are requested to identify further people who could make up a sample. The crucial feature is that each person or unit relates to another through direct or indirect linkage. This type of sampling is used for sensitive issues, for example, conducting research about prostitutes or a gang family (Kumar, 2005).

Considering that it was not possible to analyse the written essay tasks of all level-one students registered for English Communication Skills at a South African university, I selected the participants by using cluster sampling which is a quick and convenient

method that concentrates on a few classes in a school or university. Students who had registered for English Communication Skills in the 2021 academic year at a South African university were about 3000 and they were divided into the following twelve groups: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K and L. On average, each group had 250 students and each lecturer taught two groups. Using cluster sampling, only two ECS groups were selected to represent the whole population. From the two groups, only 50 written essays constituting 10% were considered for analysis.

3.6 Data collection

Considering the methods used to collect data in previous Error Analysis studies, some data were collected from asking the research participants to write composition. For example, Mandor (2020) collected data by asking second year students from the Business, Communication, and Humanities and Social Sciences Departments of Wisconsin International University College (WIUC), Ghana to write a controlled essay. Other data were collected from the research participants' own pieces of work; for example, Mungungu (2010) gathered data from English written essays produced by the subjects of the study during their Grade 12 end-of-year examination in 2007. This shows that data collection methods of errors in essays written by second or foreign language participants is largely conducted in one of the two ways: assigning a written task to the research participants or collecting the already written task from the research participants. In this study, the study participants were given an essay writing task of at least one page on the following topic:

- University life

The participants were given forty minutes to complete the task in a lecture hall to ensure that the data is authentic as they were writing in a controlled environment with limited time. Moreover, the participants were not allowed to refer to a dictionary or any other source during writing process. Afterwards, the essays were collected to fulfill the data analysis process.

3.7 Data analysis

Data analysis entails striving to find out patterns and trends in data sets while data interpretation entails explaining those patterns and trends. The techniques that researchers and scientists employ to analyse and interpret data enable other scholars to review the data and use it in future research (Egger & Carpi, 2008:1). Error Analysis is used both as a method of analysing data and a theory. Caicedo (2009) and Richards and Schmidt (2002) aver that Error Analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms of oral or written language. Following the guidelines of selecting a corpus of language (Ellis, 1995), a sample of written work was collected from 50 study participants.

A combination of the Linguistic category taxonomy and the Surface structure taxonomy developed by Dulay et al. (1982) was adopted. The Linguistic category taxonomy entails classifying learners' errors in terms of where the errors belong in the overall system of the target language. For example, grammatical errors can be categorised into tense, prepositions, articles, etc. (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The Surface structure taxonomy which is also called 'Target Modification Taxonomy' by James (1998), describes errors

based on “the way the surface structures are altered” (Dulay et al., 1982: 150). This taxonomy includes error types such as ‘addition’ which involves the presence of an item that must not be used, ‘omission’ when an essential part is omitted, ‘misordering’ which involves the misplacement of a morpheme, and ‘misformation’ when the wrong form of a morpheme or structure is used. These two taxonomies were employed in this study for the description of grammatical errors for several reasons. Firstly, a combination of the two taxonomies is appropriate to the nature of the errors made at the grammatical level and the two taxonomies complement each other. Secondly, a combination of the two taxonomies can offer a more comprehensive description of errors and allows an examination of errors from different analytical perspectives (Chuang & Nesi, 2006; James, 1998; Taura, 1998). Chuang and Nesi (2006: 253) assert that blending the linguistic category taxonomy and surface structure taxonomy “can generate a bi-dimensional or even multi-dimensional error profile which can facilitate a more thorough understanding of learner errors”. Finally, these two taxonomies are commonly used in Error Analysis studies when dealing with grammatical errors (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; James, 1998).

Data were checked and coded for erroneous sentences. To avoid possible ambiguities and biased judgments in the coding, copies of the first five sampled scripts were shared with two English language experts from the Department of English who are not part of the supervision team. Then the coded data were compared. If there were any differences in the coding of the errors, discussions were made with the language experts and thereafter, the coding was adjusted.

Using the Surface Structure Taxonomy developed by Dulay et al. (1982), all the ill-formed or erroneous clauses were categorized by putting them in the following table to simplify the data analysis process. (See Chapter 2: item 2.3.2.3.2 for detail of the main types of error).

Table 3.1: Example of Table of Type of Errors

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause	Type of Error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation

The next step was to provide the reconstructed clauses for the erroneous clauses. Authoritative English Grammar books such as ‘Oxford Modern English Grammar’ and ‘Advanced Grammar in Use’ were used to make the corrections reliable. It is important to point out that because the erroneous clauses could be reconstructed in different ways, only one version was given. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed to calculate and arrange the data quantitatively using tables of frequency, percentages mean and standard deviations.

The final step was to establish and explain the possible sources of the committed errors. (See Chapter 2: item 2.3.2.3 for detail on sources of errors).

3.8 Reliability, Validity, Confirmability and Generalisability

McBurney and White (2013:156) define reliability as “the degree of accuracy in the measurements made by a research instrument”. There are two main types of reliability, namely: repeated measurement and internal consistency. Repeated measurement refers

to using the same research tool or instrument at different times with the same sample and conditions and comparing the results. The more similar the results, the more the research tool or instrument is reliable and vice-versa. Another method that is applied for repeated measurement is inter-rater reliability which requires more than one judge or rater who uses the same measurement or tool to obtain the result. The more similar the ratings of all raters, the more reliable the measurement and vice-versa (Muijs, 2011). McBurney and White (2013) aver that internal consistency deals with more than one item and is expended to measure the same item and have comparable conclusions.

For this study, the inter-rater reliability was adopted. Since the data analysis process involved the identification of written errors committed by level-one students at a South African university, experts in English language studies were engaged to verify the findings. The data were analysed whereafter the findings were shared with senior lecturers from the Department of English who were not part of the supervision team to check and edit the errors to establish the reliability of the coding. Discussions were then held with the language experts prior to adjustment of the coding.

Validity is concerned with how much the devised instrument can measure what the researchers would like to measure. Muijs (2011) has identified the following three main types of validity: face and content validity, criterion validity and construct validity. Face and content validity refers to the extent to which the content of the instrument such as items of a test or questions of a questionnaire can effectively measure the concept the researcher is trying to measure. Put simply, it must sensibly link with the objectives of the

study (McBurney & White, 2013). Criterion validity refers to the extent to which the expected result relates to other measures, comparing the instrument with other assessments to predict specific outcomes (Muijs, 2011; McBurney & White, 2013). Criterion validity can be subdivided into predictive and concurrent validity. Predictive validity refers to the extent to which the instrument can predict the expected results as in the theory whereas concurrent validity refers to how well the expected outcomes of using the instrument relate to the previous outcomes of other variables. Construct validity relates to the background theory of the concept that the researcher would like to measure (Muijs, 2011). McBurney and White (2013: 155) maintain that construct validity depends on statistical procedures, finding “the contribution of each construct to the total variance observed in a phenomenon.”

For this study, face and content validity were employed. The writing task was structured to be logically related to research questions and the objectives of the study. The writing topic was developed and improved based on literature, as well as the comments and suggestions of the promoters. This was done to enable the research participants to understand the topic that they were asked to write about.

Taylor and Medina (2013) assert that confirmability centers on whether “the research data can be traced to [its] source. This is ensured through record keeping and preservation of data for potential inspection” (Brown, 2005). In the same vein, Creswell (2018) avers that confirmability “establishes the value of the data”. This means that every qualitative study

is viewed as unique and employing unique set of data which can be corroborated in similar studies.

For this study, confirmability was adhered to by painstakingly recording every step that was undertaken in the research process. Records of all the sampled written essays were kept in a safe place for ease retrieval in case they are required for potential inspection. The erroneous clauses culled from the participants' written tasks are appended to the study for confirmation (Appendix A attached).

Generalisability refers to “the ability to apply findings from a sample to other settings within a common population” (Nation, 1997: 173). This means that when the researcher is collecting data from the selected specific sample, the research results should not be biased, but should be able to be generalized into a larger population or similar situations.

Because of a small sample, the findings of this study will only be generalized to a similar target group and circumstances, that is, level one students at a South African university.

3.9 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues are essential to the conduct of research, particularly when the study involves the privacy and reputation of the research participants. Reiter (2017), Creswell (2018) and Reading (2018) define ethics as norms and standards guiding the researcher's code of conduct during research. In addition, Strydom (2005: 69) defines ethics as “a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, which is

subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students”. Ethical conduct in research is concerned with any problematic situations which are morally uncertain such as exposing research participants to danger, the researcher not adhering to confidentiality, using information wrongly, or being biased.

McBurney and White (2013) aver that ethical issues in conducting research are associated with three parties: the participants or subjects, the researcher and the funding organization. They maintain that each of the parties can influence the way in which the research is conducted and the way in which the research results may be presented because of different interests, points of view, objectives, and motivation in being a part of the research activity for each party. It is important therefore, that the research should not be influenced by any parties’ own interest or not to cause harm to any parties.

Ethical clearance was obtained from a South African university Research Ethics Committee prior to the commencement of data collection. Permission to conduct the study was sought from the head of the Department of English, Media Studies, and Linguistics. The research participants were told about this research. Confidentiality and anonymity were also adhered to. The participants’ names will not be identified, hence, it was considered prudent to keep the research participants’ information confidential for the participants’ reputation. The last ethical consideration that was adhered to is correct

reporting. All parts of the research findings were reported without any alteration or distortion whatsoever.

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the methodology of the study, showing methodology, research site, population of the study, sampling and size, data collection and analysis, reliability, validity, confirmability and generalisability as well as ethical considerations. Chapter Four presents the findings derived from the analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data that drive the study. The data for the study were guided by the following research objectives:

- To analyse the types of English structural errors that are committed by level one students at a South African University,
- To determine the reasons for the occurrence of these errors,
- To come up with remedial strategies to curtail the current situation of students' academic language from deteriorating.

4.2 Biographical information of the study participants

A total of fifty (50) level-one students participated in the study. As shown in Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3, the participants consisted of 22 males (44%) and 28 females (56%). Their ages ranged from 18 to 26 years old. Majority of the participants were 20 years old (34%). Their home languages were Tshivenda (15) constituting 30%, Xitsonga (7) constituting 14%, Sepedi (16) constituting 32%, isiNdebele (4) constituting 8%, siSwati (5) constituting 10% (3), and isiZulu (3) constituting 6%. Majority of the participants' home language was Sepedi (32%)

Table 4.1: Gender of the research participants

		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	22	44.0	44.0	44.0
	Female	28	56.0	56.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.2: Age of the research participants

		Age			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	4	8.0	8.0	8.0
	19	9	18.0	18.0	26.0
	20	17	34.0	34.0	60.0
	21	14	28.0	28.0	88.0
	22	2	4.0	4.0	92.0
	23	2	4.0	4.0	96.0
	24	1	2.0	2.0	98.0
	26	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3: Home Language of the research participants
Home Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Tshivenda	15	30.0	30.0	30.0
	Xitsonga	7	14.0	14.0	44.0
	Sepedi	16	32.0	32.0	76.0
	isiNdebele	4	8.0	8.0	84.0
	Siswati	5	10.0	10.0	94.0
	isiZulu	3	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

In this study, data were collected by assigning an essay writing task of at least one page on the following topic: 'University life'. The participants were given forty minutes to complete the task in a lecture hall to ensure that the data is highly authentic as they were writing in a controlled environment with limited time. Moreover, the participants were not allowed to refer to a dictionary or any other sources during the writing process. Afterwards, the essays were collected to fulfill the data analysis process.

Data were checked and coded for erroneous sentences. To avoid possible ambiguities and biased judgments in the coding, copies of the first five sampled scripts were shared with two English language experts from the Department of English who were not part of the supervision team. Then the coded data were compared. In cases where there were

any differences in the coding of the errors, discussions were made with the language experts and thereafter, the coding was adjusted.

As already indicated, the data presented hereunder were culled from 50 essays written by level-one English Communication Skills students. A combination of the Linguistic category taxonomy and the Surface structure taxonomy developed by Dulay et al. (1982) was adopted. The Linguistic category taxonomy entails classifying learners' errors in terms of where the errors belong in the overall system of the target language. For example, grammatical errors can be categorised into tense, prepositions, articles, etc. (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). The Surface structure taxonomy which is also called the Target Modification Taxonomy by James (1998) describes errors based on "the way the surface structures are altered" (Dulay et al., 1982: 150). This taxonomy includes error types such as 'addition' which involves the presence of an item that must not be used, 'omission' when an essential part is omitted, and 'misformation' when the wrong form of a morpheme or structure is used. These two taxonomies were employed in this study for the description of grammatical errors for several reasons. Firstly, a combination of the two taxonomies is appropriate to the nature of the errors made at the grammatical level and the two taxonomies complement each other. Secondly, a combination of the two taxonomies can offer a more comprehensive description of errors and allows an examination of errors from different analytical perspectives (Chuang & Nesi, 2006; James, 1998; Taura, 1998). Chuang and Nesi (2006: 253) assert that blending the linguistic category taxonomy and surface structure taxonomy "can generate a bi-dimensional or even multi-dimensional error profile which can facilitate a more thorough

understanding of learner errors”. Finally, the two taxonomies are commonly used in Error Analysis studies when dealing with grammatical errors (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; James, 1998).

The next step was to provide the reconstructed clauses for the erroneous clauses. ‘Oxford Modern English Grammar’ and ‘Advanced Grammar in Use’ were consulted to make the corrections reliable. It is important to point out that because the erroneous clauses could be reconstructed in different ways, only one version was given.

The final step was to establish and explain the root causes of the committed errors.

4.3 Types of errors

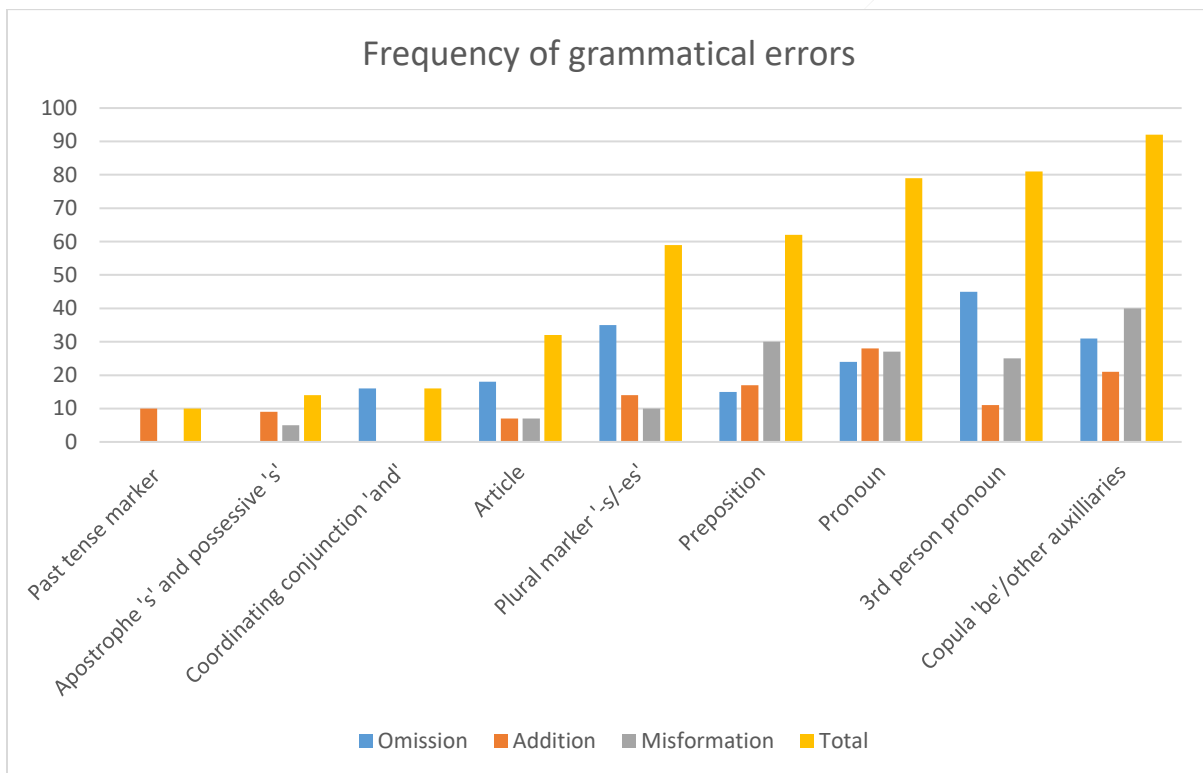
Table 4.4: The results of the error type and frequency

Total Errors found	Omission	Addition	Misformation
445	184	117	144
	41.35%	26.29%	32.36%

From the fifty essays that were analysed, I found 445 errors committed by level one students. Of all the detected errors, 184 were errors of omission constituting 41.35%, 117 addition errors constituting 26.29% and 144 misformation errors constituting 32.36%. Thus, the total number of errors was 445. The analysis above is consistent with the earlier studies by Suhono (2017), Saihi (2021) and Dewi, Rangkuti and Supriadi (2021) which

found that omission errors constituted the highest percentage, followed by errors of misformation and addition respectively among learners of EFL studies. The result of this research concurs with the previous study conducted by Nadya and Muthalib (2021) which shows that the highest percentage of errors in the written test is omission errors, which is 58.38% followed by misformation, addition and misordering errors constituting 16.48% 13.89% and 11.26% respectively.

Figure 4.1: Frequency of grammatical errors



This section focuses on the analysis of the ill-formed clauses and reconstructed versions thereof. Each ill-formed clause was described to establish why the clause was regarded

as erroneous. The following section provides a deeper focus on errors of omission, addition, and misformation.

4.3.1 Omission

Of the total number of errors found, 184 were of the omission type. According to the surface structure taxonomy, omission errors are errors that are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance (Dulay et al., 1982).

4.3.1.1 Omission of the copula 'be'

A copula verb, also known as a copula or, more commonly, as a linking verb, is a special verb in the English language that connects the subject of a sentence to its modifier—the predicate. Copula verbs do not describe actions, and they are not followed by adverbs. The verb 'be' is the most common copula used in English. It can serve as the main verb of a sentence, carry tense, and link the subject with its predicate.

Table 4.5: Omission of copula 'be'

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Correct clause
1	S7	You always tired.	You <u>are</u> always tired.
2		Now I at university.	Now I <u>am</u> at university.
3	S16	It easy to attend online because of free data that get from university	It <u>is</u> easy to attend online because of free data that <u>we</u> get from university

From the analysis of the data, thirty-one errors of omission of verb auxiliaries were detected. Table 4.5 above illustrates examples of the data on omission of verb auxiliaries. As indicated in the first example, the clause **"You always tired"* does not have any auxiliaries. The auxiliary verb 'be' (was) has been omitted and should therefore be inserted in this clause to make it grammatical. Therefore, the correct clause should be *"You are always tired"*. The same applies to the second example **"Now I at university"*. In this clause, the auxiliary verb 'be' (am) has been omitted and should therefore be inserted to make it grammatical. The reconstructed clause should be *"Now I am at university"*. Regarding the third clause, **"It easy to attend online because of free data that get from university"*, the auxiliary verb 'be' (was) has been omitted and should therefore be inserted in this clause to make it grammatical. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be *"It is easy to attend online because of free data that we get from university."* This study confirms the finding of the previous study by Alshayban (2012) which shows that copula omission is a major problem in the written production of EFL learners.

4.3.1.2 Omission of the third person singular marker '-s/-es'

In English, the subject and the verb must agree in number (singular or plural) and person (first, second or third) (Wong, 2002). The morpheme '-s/-es' is attached to the end of a regular verb root in the simple present tense if its subject is third-person singular. From the analysis of the data, thirty-five (45) errors of omission of third person singular marker '-s/-es' were detected. Table 4.6 illustrates examples of the data on omission of third person singular marker '-s/-es'.

Table 4.6: Omission of the third person singular marker ‘-s/-es’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Correct clause
1	A1	University life <u>need</u> a person who knows what he/she is doing.	University life <u>needs</u> a person who knows what he/she is doing.
2		It <u>favour</u> anyone	It <u>favours</u> anyone
3	A16	It <u>need</u> a person who <u>know</u> what is the main point of being at university.	It <u>needs</u> a person who <u>knows</u> the main point of being at university.

As illustrated in Table 4.6, the errors occurred because the students did not put the changing of the word form or the ending to show its grammatical function. The first clause is erroneous because of the omission of the third-person singular marker or inflection ‘-s’ in the verb. The erroneous clause **“University life need a person who knows what he/she is doing”* should be *“University life needs a person who knows what he/she is doing”*. The same applies to the second erroneous clause **“It favour anyone”* which should be *“It favours anyone”*. In the third example, **“It need a person who know what is the main point of being at university”*, the error occurred because the student omitted the third-person singular marker ‘-s’ from the main verbs ‘need’ and ‘wear’. The reconstructed clause should be *“It needs a person who knows the main point of being at university.”*

4.3.1.3 Omission of preposition

Prepositions constitute one of the most important parts of the English grammatical system. A preposition is usually used before a noun or a pronoun to show places,

positions, or times. In the words of Quirk et al. (1985:657), a preposition is a word that expresses relation between two entities, one being that represented by the prepositional complement, the other by the other part of the sentence. The prepositional complement is characteristically a noun phrase (on the table), a nominal wh-clause (from what he said), or a nominal -ing clause (by pressing that button).

The large number of prepositions in English generally creates difficulty for English second or foreign language learners. From the analysis of the data, fifteen (15) errors on omission of prepositions were detected. Table 4.7 illustrates examples of the data on omission of preposition.

Table 4.7: Omission of preposition

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version
1	A21	Majority students are doing it.	Majority <u>of</u> students are doing it.
2	A22	They meet friends rich families.	They meet friends <u>from</u> rich families.
3	A30	You don't even ask permission.	You don't even ask <u>for</u> permission.

As illustrated in Table 4.7, the first sentence is erroneous because of the omission of the preposition 'of'. The erroneous clause *"Majority students are doing it." should be "Majority of students are doing it". The next example is in the sentence *"They meet friends rich

families” in which the preposition ‘from’ has been omitted. The reconstructed version of the sentence should be “They meet friends from rich families”. In the third example, the preposition ‘for’ has been omitted before the direct object ‘permission’. The reconstructed version of *‘‘You don’t even ask permission’’ is “You don’t even ask for permission”.

4.3.1.4 Omission of pronoun

A pronoun is a pro-form which functions like a noun and stands for a noun or a noun phrase. Pronouns in English include personal, possessive, relative, demonstrative, and expletive pronouns (Pavey, 2010). From the analysis of the data, twenty-four (24) errors of omission of pronouns were detected. Table 4.8 illustrates examples of the data on omission of pronoun.

Table 4.8: Omission of pronoun

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Correct clause
1	A10	Many people are archiving their dreams because of dedication to their studies.	Many people are achieving their dreams because of <u>their</u> dedication to their studies.
2	A16	Life of varsity is very difficult when comes to experience.	<u>University life</u> is very difficult when <u>it</u> comes to experience.
3	A26	I’m going to make friends because am shy.	<u>I was</u> going to make friends because <u>I</u> am <u>a</u> shy <u>person</u> .

The first example is, *“Many people are archiving their dreams because of dedication to their studies”. In this sentence, the relative pronoun ‘their’ is missing. The reconstructed version of the sentence should be “Many people are achieving their dreams because of their dedication to their studies”. The second example is *“Life of varsity is very difficult when comes to experience”. In this sentence, the personal pronoun ‘it’, the personal pronoun ‘it’ which refers to ‘University life’ is missing. The reconstructed of the sentence should be “University life is very difficult when it comes to experience”. In the last example, the personal pronoun ‘I’ is similar to the second one. The reconstructed version should be “I was going to make friends because I am a shy person.” instead of *“I’m going to make friends because am shy”.

4.3.1.5 Omission of article

The articles (definite and indefinite) are the most common and typical determiners which refer to the head noun in the noun phrase. The use of definite ‘the’ and indefinite ‘a/an’ article can be determined based on the noun with which they co-occur. The data included instances where the students’ committed errors of omission of articles. Flognfeldt and Lund (2016) assert that the basic rule of articles in English entails that the singular common noun must have an article, whereas common nouns can be used without an article. Learners overlooked this basic rule. The analysis below agrees with a study by Ellis (2008) that articles are one of the most frequently committed grammatical errors among the ESL learners. From the analysis of the data, eighteen (18) errors of omission of articles were detected. Table 4.9 illustrates examples of the data on omission of articles.

Table 4.9: Omission of article

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Correct clause
1	A1	First thing they think about is drink alcohol	<u>The</u> first thing that they think about is to drink alcohol.
2	A5	Meeting friends also can make difference in your life.	Meeting friends can also make <u>a</u> difference in your life.
3	A29	I was able to focus on my studies in first semester.	I was able to focus on my studies in <u>the</u> first semester.

The English language has two articles. The first one is the indefinite article 'a/an'. The article 'a' precedes consonant sounds whereas the article 'an' precedes vowel sounds. The second one is the definite article 'the'. It is used to refer to something or somebody that has already been mentioned or can be understood. In English, the indefinite article 'the' is used to modify non-particular or non-specific singular count nouns, whereas the definite article is used to modify particular or specific nouns (Wong, 2002). As indicated in the first example, there is an omission an article in the clause *"First thing they think about is drink alcohol". The article 'the' has been omitted and should therefore be inserted in this clause to make it grammatical. The reconstructed clause should be "The first thing that they think about is drinking alcohol". In the second example, the sentence is erroneous because of the omission of the article 'a'. The article 'a' should therefore be inserted in the sentence *"Meeting friends also can make difference in your life" to make it grammatical. Therefore, the correct sentence should be "Meeting friends can also make a difference in your life". In the last example, *"I was able to focus on my studies in first

semester”, the omission of the article ‘the’ renders the sentence erroneous’. The article ‘the’ should be inserted in the sentence to make it grammatical. The reconstructed version should be “I was able to focus on my studies in the first semester”.

4.3.1.6 Omission of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’

In general, plurality in English is indicated by adding the morpheme ‘-s’ to the singular countable nouns. However, there are exceptional situations to this general rule. These exceptional situations are more likely to create problems for second and foreign language learners of English. Nouns (names of persons, places, or things) in English can be made plural if they are countable but not if they are uncountable. Omission of a plural marker ‘-s’ occurs where students tend to omit the plural morpheme ‘-s’ in cases where it is required. From the analysis of the data, thirty-five (35) errors of omission of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’ were detected. Table 4.10 below illustrates examples of the data on omission of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’.

Table 4.10: Omission of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	S1	They receive money from many <u>bursary</u> .	They receive money from many <u>bursaries</u> .
2	S2	Peer pressure also affects many <u>student</u> .	Peer pressure also affects many <u>students</u> .
3	A27	It is different in many <u>way</u> .	It is different in many <u>ways</u> .

As illustrated in the first example, the clause *“They receive money from many bursary” is erroneous because of the omission of a plural marker ‘-s’ in a countable noun ‘bursary’. The presence of the quantifier ‘many’ in this clause signals that the countable noun ‘bursary’ should be plural. The plural marker ‘-s’ should be added to the common noun ‘bursary’ to make it ‘bursaries’. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be “They receive money from many bursaries”. The same applies to the second example. *“Peer pressure also affects many student”. In this sentence, the student omitted the plural marker ‘-s’ from the noun ‘student’. The presence of the quantifier ‘many’ signals that the countable noun ‘student’ should be plural. Therefore, it requires the plural marker ‘-s’ to make it plural ‘students’. The reconstructed clause should be “Peer pressure also affects many students”. Regarding third example, *“It is different in many way”, the deviation occurs because the student omitted the plural marker ‘-s’ from the noun ‘way’. The presence of the quantifier ‘many’ signals that the countable noun ‘way’ should be plural. Therefore, it requires the plural marker ‘-s’ to make it plural ‘ways’. The reconstructed clause should be “It is different in many ways.”

4.3.1.7 Omission of coordinating conjunction ‘and’

Coordinating conjunctions such as ‘and’, ‘but’, and ‘or’ are used in English to join independent clauses, phrases, or individual words (Wong, 2002). From the analysis of the data, sixteen (16) errors of omission of conjunctions were found. Table 4.11 illustrates examples of the data on omission of conjunction.

Table 4.11: Omission of coordinating conjunction ‘and’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A2	It teaches you to be independent to have responsibility.	It teaches you to be independent <u>and</u> to have responsibility.
2	A27	I also buy books, clothes, food.	I also buy books, clothes <u>and</u> food.
3	A27	You start relying on yourself, you become dependent.	You start relying on yourself <u>and</u> you become <u>(in)dependent</u> .

Conjunctions play an important role in specifying the semantic connections between parts of a sentence or between a clause and a preceding text. Omission or deviation in the use of conjunction gives rise to vagueness in eliciting the potential semantic relationship between those parts of a sentence or between the clause and the preceding text. As illustrated in Table 10, errors occurred because the phrases are not properly connected due to omission of conjunction. As for the first example, the omission of the additive conjunction ‘and’ in the sentence “It teaches you to be independent to have responsibility” poses difficulty in understanding the semantic relationship between the two clauses which are in the object position of the sentence. The two clauses “It teaches you to be independent” and “to have responsibility” should be connected by the conjunction ‘and’. Therefore, the sentence should be “It teaches you to be independent and to have responsibility”. In the second example “I also buy books, clothes, food”, the error occurs in the last two nouns. There should be a conjunction ‘and’ which is connecting the last

two nouns 'clothes' and 'food'. The correct sentence should be "I also buy books, clothes and food". The error in the last example is similar to the first one. The reconstructed version should be "You start relying on yourself and you become (in)dependent" instead of *"You start relying on yourself, you become dependent".

4.3.2 Addition

From the analysis of the data, 117 errors of the addition type were detected. Additions are the second category of the surface structure taxonomy which are direct opposites of omissions. They are characterized by the presence of an additional grammatical item which is not supposed to be there in a well-constructed utterance (Dulay et al. 1982:156). The following are some of the examples of errors of addition that were detected from the analysis of the data:

4.3.2.1 Addition of copula 'be'

The copula 'be' is regarded as the most common copula used in the English sentence structure. It can function as the main verb of a sentence, carry tense, and link the subject with its predicate. Any deviation in its use causes problems in communication. From the analysis of the data, fourteen errors of addition of verb auxiliaries were detected. Table 4.12 below illustrates examples of the data on addition of auxiliary 'be'.

Table 4.12: Addition of copula ‘be’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A8	Some students <u>are comes</u> from strict families	Some students <u>come</u> from strict families.
2	A9	I <u>am</u> go to class every day.	I go to class every day.
3	A10	They <u>are ended up loosing</u> their lives.	They ended up losing their lives.

As indicated in the first example, the clause “Some students are comes from strict families” is erroneous because of the addition of the auxiliary verb ‘are’. The auxiliary verb ‘be’ (was) has been added in this clause to make it ungrammatical. Therefore, the correct clause should be “Some students come from strict families”. The same applies to the second example “I am go to class every day”. In this sentence, the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (am) should be removed to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “I go to class every day”. In the third example, the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (was) has also been added in the sentence “They are ended up loosing their lives”. The addition of the auxiliary in this sentence renders it ungrammatical. Therefore, the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (am) should be removed to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “They ended up losing their lives”.

4.3.2.2 Addition of other auxiliaries

From the analysis of the data, seven additions of other auxiliaries were detected. Table 4.13 illustrates examples of the data on addition of other auxiliaries.

Table 4.13: Addition of other auxiliaries

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A2	We <u>have ask</u> someone who was passing.	We asked someone who was passing by.
2	A27	The pandemic <u>did helped</u> students a lot since <u>they</u> were no exams.	The pandemic helped students a lot since there were no exams.
3	A32	As a first-year student, my life <u>have changed</u> in many ways.	As a first-year student, my life changed in many ways.

As illustrated in the above table, the errors occurred because of the addition of other auxiliaries. As indicated in the first example *"We have ask someone who was passing", the auxiliary 'have' has erroneously been added. The reconstructed version of the sentence should be "We asked someone who was passing by". In the second example, *"The pandemic did helped students a lot since they were no exams", the auxiliary 'did' was added and this makes the sentence ungrammatical. The reconstructed version of the sentence should be "The pandemic helped students a lot since there were no exams". In the last example, *"As a first-year student, my life have changed in many ways", the auxiliary 'have' was erroneously added and this makes the sentence ungrammatical. The auxiliary 'have' should be deleted for the reconstructed version to be, "As a first-year student, my life changed in many ways."

4.3.2.3 Addition of third person singular marker ‘-s’

In English grammar, *third-person singular marker* refers to the suffix ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ that is commonly added to the root form of a verb in the present tense when it follows a singular subject in the third person (for example, “He *sings* and *dances*”). From the analysis of the data, eleven additions of third person singular marker ‘s’ were detected. Table 4.14 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.14: Addition of third person singular marker ‘s’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A3	University life becomes more harder on students who <u>stays</u> on campus.	University life becomes harder on students who stay on campus.
2	A27	Majority of us <u>comes</u> from disadvantaged families.	Majority of us come from disadvantaged families.
3	A31	University is a place where students <u>goes</u> after obtaining grade 12.	University is a place where students go to after obtaining grade 12.

As illustrated in Table 4.14, the errors occurred because the students added the suffix ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ to the root form of a verb in the present tense when it follows a plural subject in the third person. In English, the suffix ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ is commonly added to the root form of a verb in the present tense when it follows a singular subject (and not a plural subject) in the third person.

The first sentence is erroneous because of the addition of the suffix ‘-s’ to the root form of a verb ‘stay’ when it follows a plural subject ‘students’. Therefore, the third person singular marker ‘-s’ should be deleted so that sentence **“University life becomes more harder on students who stays on campus”* should be *“University life becomes harder on students who stay on campus”*. The error in the second example lies in the wrong addition of the use of the third person singular marker ‘-s’ to the root form of the verb ‘come’ when it follows a plural subject ‘students’. Therefore, the third person singular marker ‘-s’ should be deleted so that sentence **“University is a place where students goes after obtaining grade 12.”* should be *“University is a place where students go to after obtaining grade 12”*.

4.3.2.4 Addition of preposition

Prepositions perform an important function as connectives that show the relationships, such as place, time, direction, and possession between groups of words (Hazen, 2014). The correct preposition to use is at most times, based on native speaker intuition or the context, as there is no absolute rule to determine which preposition should be used in each context. From the analysis of the data, 17 additions of preposition were detected. Table 4.15 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.15: Addition of prepositions

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A10	That is why most of them ended up <u>with</u> dating old people.	That is why most of them ended up dating old people.
2	A13	At university, you meet <u>with</u> different <u>lecture</u> .	At university, you meet different lecturers.
3	A42	There is no pressure coming from <u>to</u> parents.	There is no pressure coming from parents.

As illustrated in Table 4.15, the errors occurred because of the unnecessary addition of prepositions. As indicated in the first example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the preposition ‘with’ after the preposition ‘up’ in the clause “That is why most of them ended up with dating old people”. This makes the clause clumsy and ungrammatical. The preposition ‘with’ should be deleted so that the clause should read “That is why most of them ended up dating old people”. In the second example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the preposition ‘with’ after the verb meet in the clause “At university, you meet with different lecture.” The preposition ‘with’ should be deleted so that the clause should read “At university, you meet different lecturers.” In the third example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the preposition ‘to’ after the preposition ‘to’ in the clause “There is no pressure coming from to parents.” The preposition ‘to’ should be deleted so that the clause should read “There is no pressure coming from parents.”

4.3.2.5 Addition of pronoun

A pronoun is a pro-form which functions like a noun and substitutes for a noun or a noun phrase. Nevertheless, English pronouns have certain morphological characteristics that nouns do not have (Quirk et al., 1985: 335). They are as follows:

- Case: there is a contrast between subjective and objective cases: I/me, she/he, who/whom, etc.
- Person: there is a contrast between 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons: I/you/she, etc.
- Gender: there are overt grammatical contrasts between (i) personal and non-personal gender; and between (ii) masculine and feminine gender: he/she/it.
- Number: there are morphologically unrelated number forms, as in I/wee, he/they, as opposed to the typical regular formation of noun plural: girl/girls.

In view of the above morphological characteristics of English pronouns, it is assumed that learners of English as second or foreign language are prone to face difficulties in using the English pronoun correctly. In the analysis of students' written essays, 28 additions of pronoun were detected. Table 4.16 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.16: Addition of pronoun

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A6	University life <u>it</u> is nice and challenging.	University life is nice and challenging.
2	10	Those students who are not <u>fundend</u> by NSFAS <u>they</u> are suffering...	Those students who are not <u>funded</u> by NSFAS are suffering...
3	A28	Students <u>they</u> was doing things that was not acceptable.	Students were doing things that are not acceptable.

As illustrated in Table 4.16, the errors occurred because of the unnecessary addition of pronouns. As indicated in the first example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the pronoun ‘it’ after the generic noun ‘university life’ in the clause *‘‘University life it is nice and challenging.’’ This makes the clause clumsy and ungrammatical as the pronoun ‘it’ refers to university life in this clause. The pronoun ‘it’ should be deleted so that the clause should read ‘‘University life is nice and challenging.’’ In the second example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the pronoun ‘they’ which refers to ‘those student’ in the clause *‘‘Those students who are not fundend by NSFAS they are suffering....’’ The pronoun ‘they’ should be deleted so that the clause should read ‘‘Those students who are not funded by NSFAS are suffering....’’ In the third example, the student has unnecessarily inserted the pronoun ‘they’ after the generic noun ‘students’ in the clause *‘‘Students they

was doing things that was not acceptable.” The pronoun ‘they’ should be deleted so that the clause should read “Students were doing things that are not acceptable.”

4.3.2.6 Addition of article

Articles in English are divided into definite and indefinite, and they are bound by restrictions of grammatical rules. Any deviance from such rules could lead to errors. The use of definite ‘the’ and indefinite ‘a/an’ articles in English can be determined based on the noun with which they co-occur. In English, the indefinite articles ‘a’ and ‘an’ are used to modify non-particular or non-specific countable nouns, whereas on the other hand, the definite article is used to modify particular or specific nouns (Wong, 2002). From the analysis of the data, seven additions of articles were detected. Table 4.17 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.17: Addition of article

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A9	<u>The</u> university life can skin you alive.	University life can skin you alive.
2	A28	During <u>the</u> COVID-19, <u>the</u> life of university <u>change</u> completely.	During COVID-19, university life changed completely.
3	A43	If you are not <u>an</u> a hard worker you will fail.	If you are not a hard worker, you will fail.

As illustrated in Table 4.17, the errors occurred because articles were erroneously added in the erroneous clauses. For example, clause number 1, *“The university life can skin you alive” is erroneous because the student wrongly added the definite article ‘the’ before the generic reference noun ‘university life’. In this case, the definite article ‘the’ should be deleted to make the clause grammatically correct. The reconstructed clause should be “University life can skin you alive”. In the second example, for instance, the student wrongly added the definite article ‘the’ before the proper noun ‘Covid-19’. The clause *“During the COVID-19, the life of university change completely” should read “During COVID-19, university life changed completely”. In the third example, the student erroneously added the article ‘an’ in the sentence *“If you are not an a hard worker you will fail”. The addition of the article in this clause renders it ungrammatical. Therefore, the article ‘an’ should be deleted to make the clause grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “If you are not a hard worker you will fail”.

4.3.2.7 Addition of past tense marker ‘-ed’

Generally, students who are learning English as a second or foreign language are familiar with the rule that to transform a verb from the stem into a past form, the past tense inflection ‘-ed’ is added to the end of the stem like ‘cook -ed’, ‘pick-ed’, ‘kill-ed’. Thus, most second and foreign English language learners generally hypothesize due to overgeneralisation that all regular and irregular verbs carry the inflection ‘-ed’. From the analysis of the data sixteen (16) errors of addition of past and past participle marker were detected. Table 4.18 illustrates example of the data.

Table 4.18: Addition of past tense marker ‘-ed’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A15	I had <u>lectuctures</u> who <u>taached</u> us until we <u>understand</u> .	I had lecturers who taught us until we understood.
2	A28	They did not even <u>attended</u> class.	They did not even attend class.
3	A27	My university life has <u>taached</u> me how to live with different people.	University life has taught me how to live with different people.

The first sentence is erroneous because of the addition of the past tense inflection ‘-ed’ to the irregular verb ‘teach’. The past tense of the irregular verb ‘teach’ is taught and not ‘taached’. Therefore, the clause “I had lectuctures who taached us until we understand” should be “I had lecturers who taught us until we understood.” The error in the second example lies in the addition of the past tense marker ‘-ed’ to the verb ‘attend’ when the sentence already has the auxiliary past tense marker ‘did’. The clause “They did not even attended class”, should be reconstructed to be “They did not even attend class.” In the third example, the student erroneously added the past tense inflection ‘-ed’ to the irregular verb ‘teach’ as in the first example. The reconstructed clause should be “My university life has taught me how to live with different people” instead of “University life has taught me how to live with different people”.

4.3.2.8 Addition of singular/plural form of a morpheme

Plurality in English is commonly indicated by adding the morpheme ‘-s’ to the singular countable nouns. On the other hand, there are other cases or situations in which such a general rule does not apply. These exceptional cases or situations generally create problems for learners of English as a second or foreign language. When these learners are unaware of such situations, they tend to follow the common rule by adding the plural morpheme ‘-s’ to a certain category of words which do not require it. From the analysis of the data, fourteen (14) additions of singular/plural form of a morpheme were detected. Table 4.19 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.19: Addition of Plural form of morpheme

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A8	University life <u>it</u> is good for many <u>peoples</u> .	University life <u>it</u> is good for many <u>people</u> .
2	A15	We are given a lot of <u>homeworks</u> .	We are given a lot of <u>homework</u> .
3	A16	We get a lot of <u>informations</u> from the internet.	We get a lot of information from the internet.

As illustrated in Table 4.19, the first sentence is erroneous because of the addition of the plural morpheme ‘-s’ to the noun ‘people’ which is already plural. The noun ‘people’ is the plural form of the noun ‘person’. The erroneous sentence **“University life it is good*

for many peoples” should be “University life is good for many people”. The error in the second example lies in the wrong use of the plural morpheme ‘-s’ with the collective noun ‘homework’ which has a plural sense. This deviation is an instance of overgeneralisation. In this case, the learner has overgeneralized the common rule of plural formation when he is not aware of the exceptional cases of plural form. The sentence *“We are given a lot of homeworks” should be “We are given a lot of homework”. The error in the third example also lies in the wrong addition of the morpheme ‘-s’ with the collective noun ‘information’ which also has a plural sense. The reconstructed version of *“We get a lot of informations from the internet” should be “We get a lot of information from the internet.”

4.3.2.9 Addition of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’

Apostrophes are used to show ownership and are used to show that one or more letters are missing in a contraction. An apostrophe error occurs when an apostrophe is needed to show possession or contraction, but it is not there or is in the wrong place or vice versa. From the analysis of data, nine unnecessary additions of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’ were detected. Table 4.20 illustrates examples of the data.

Table 4.20: Addition of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A3	To be affected by STD’s	To be affected by STDs
2	A48	There <u>is a lot of</u> different <u>people’s</u> from many different cultures.	There are many different people from different cultures.
3	A27	We all need friends and <u>family’s</u> to support us.	We all need friends and families to support us.

As illustrated in Table 4.20, the errors occurred because the students unnecessarily added the apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’. The first sentence is erroneous because of the addition of the apostrophe “s’ to the abbreviation ‘STD’. it now appears to be the contracted form of ‘STD is’ instead of a plural form of the noun STD. Therefore, the apostrophe should be deleted so that the clause *‘‘To be affected by STD’s’’ should be ‘‘To be affected by STDs’’. The error in the second example lies in the addition of the apostrophe ‘s’ where it is not applicable. Here, the student has wrongly added the possessive marker ‘s’ to noun ‘people’. Therefore, the apostrophe should be deleted so that the clause *‘‘There is a lot of different people’s from many different cultures’’ should read ‘‘There are many different people from different cultures’’.

In the third example, the student erroneously added the apostrophe ‘s’ in the clause *‘‘We all need friends and family’s to support us.’’. The addition of the apostrophe in this clause renders it ungrammatical. Therefore, the apostrophe ‘s’ should be deleted to make the

clause grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “We all need friends and families to support us.”

4.3.3 Misformation

From the analysis of the data, 144 errors of the misformation type were detected. Misformation is the third category of the surface structure taxonomy. Misinformation occurs when the language learner uses ‘the wrong forms of the morpheme or word’ (Dulay et al. 1982). The following are some of the examples that have been found from the students’ written essays:

4.3.3.1 Misformation of auxiliary ‘be’

The auxiliary ‘be’ is considered as the most common copula used in the English sentence structure which can function as the main verb of a sentence, carry tense, and link the subject with its predicate. Any deviation in its use causes problems in communication. The researcher found twenty-five errors of misformation of auxiliary ‘Be’. Table 4.21 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of auxiliary ‘be’.

Table 4.21: Misformation of auxiliary ‘be’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A28	There <u>was</u> many activities in the campus.	There <u>were</u> many activities on campus.
2	A29	The first thing that was on my mind was how <u>I’m</u> going to make friends because am shy.	The first thing that was on my mind was how <u>I was</u> going to make friends because I am shy.
3	A40	The advantages of university life <u>is</u> :	The advantages of university life <u>are</u> :

As indicated in the first example, the clause **“There was many activities in the campus”* is erroneous because the wrong form of the morpheme or structure (misformation) of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (was) has been used. The auxiliary verb ‘be’ (was) has been misused in this clause to make it ungrammatical. Therefore, the correct clause should be *“There were many activities in the campus”*. The same applies to the second example **“The first thing that was on my mind was how I’m going to make friends because am shy”*. In this sentence, the correct form of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (were) should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be *“The first thing that was on my mind was how I was going to make friends because I am shy”*. In the third example, the wrong form of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (is) has also been used in the sentence **“The advantages of university life is.”* The wrong use of the auxiliary in this sentence renders

it ungrammatical. Therefore, the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (are) should be used instead of the auxiliary verb ‘be’ (is) to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “The advantages of university life are.”

4.3.3.2 Misformation of other auxiliaries

From the analysis of the data, 15 errors of misformation of other auxiliaries were detected.

Table 4.22 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of other auxiliaries.

Table 4.22: Misformation of other auxiliaries

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A16	No lecture <u>is going to</u> follow you ask for work.	There is no lecturer who <u>will</u> follow you up for your outstanding tasks.
2	A28	They <u>didn’ t</u> even attend class and that not good but the expect to pass at the end of the semester.	They <u>do not</u> even attend classes and expect to pass at the end of the semester.
3	A48	As a university student, my life <u>have</u> changed in many ways...	As a university student, my life <u>has</u> changed in many ways...

As illustrated in the first example, the clause “No lecture is going to follow you ask for work” is erroneous because the wrong form of the morpheme or structure (misformation) of the auxiliary verb ‘will’ has been used. The auxiliary verb ‘be’ (is) has been misused in

this clause to make it ungrammatical. Therefore, the correct clause should be “There is no lecturer who will follow you up for your outstanding tasks”. The same applies to the second example *“They didn’ t even attend class and that not good but the expect to pass at the end of the semester”. In this sentence, the correct form of the auxiliary verb ‘do’ should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “They do not even attend classes and expect to pass at the end of the semester”. In the third example, the student used the wrong form of ‘have’ which should be ‘has’ because the subject of the sentence ‘my life’ is a singular noun in the sentence *“As a university student, my life have changed in many way.” The wrong use of ‘have’ in this sentence renders it ungrammatical. Therefore, the auxiliary ‘has’ should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “As a university student, my life has changed in many ways.”

4.3.3.3 Misformation of preposition

Prepositions serve a grammatical function as connectives that show relationships such as place, time, direction, and possession between groups of words (Hazen, 2014). The correct preposition to use is usually determined based on native speaker intuition or the context, as there is no certain rule to determine which preposition to be used in each context. From the analysis of the data, 30 errors of misformation of prepositions were detected. Table 4.23 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of prepositions.

Table 4.23: Misformation of preposition

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A24	There is a lot of competition <u>in</u> university.	There is a lot of competition <u>at</u> university.
2	A24	At the university we must always be prepared <u>of</u> everything.	At university, we must always be prepared <u>for</u> everything.
3	A30	University life is different <u>with</u> high school life.	University life is different <u>from</u> high school life.

As illustrated in the first example, the clause **“There is a lot of competition in university”* is erroneous because the preposition ‘in’ has been used instead of ‘at’. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be *“There is a lot of competition at university”*. The same applies to the second example. **“At the university we must always be prepared of everything”*. In this sentence, the student has substituted the wrong preposition ‘of’ for ‘for’ which renders the sentence ungrammatical. The reconstructed clause should be *‘At university, we must always be prepared for everything’*. Regarding the deviation in the third example, the preposition ‘with’ has been mistakenly used for the preposition ‘from’. The wrong use of ‘with’ in this sentence renders it ungrammatical. The sentence **“University life is different with high school life”* should be reconstructed to *“University life is different from high school life”*.

4.3.3.4 Misformation of pronoun

A pronoun is a pro-form which functions like a noun and substitutes for a noun or a noun phrase. On the other hand, pronouns have certain morphological characteristics that nouns do not have (Quirk et al. 1985: 335). They are as follows:

- Case: There is a contrast between subjective and objective cases: I/me, he/she, who/whom, etc.
- Person: There is a contrast between 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons: I/you/she, etc.
- Gender: There is a are overt grammatical contrasts between (i) personal and non-personal gender; and between (ii) masculine and feminine gender: he/she/it.
- Number: there are morphologically unrelated number forms, as in I/we, he/they as opposed to the typical regular formation of noun plural: girl/girls.

In view of the above-mentioned characteristics, it is assumed that learners of English as a second language are prone to face difficulties in using English pronouns correctly. From the analysis of the data, 27 errors of misformation of pronouns were detected. Table 4.24 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of pronouns.

Table 4.24: Misformation of pronoun

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A2	It teaches <u>you</u> to be independent to have responsibility.	It teaches one to be independent and to have responsibility.
2	A31	The purpose of going to university <u>it</u> to accomplish <u>you</u> dreams or goal.	The purpose of going to university is to accomplish <u>your</u> dreams or goal.
3	A35	It just needs <u>somebody</u> who is able to discipline <u>him/herself</u> .	It just needs one to discipline <u>oneself</u> .

As illustrated in the first example, the clause “It teaches you to be independent to have responsibility” is erroneous because the pronoun ‘you’ has been used instead of ‘one’. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be “It teaches one to be independent and to have responsibility”. The same applies to the second example. “The purpose of going to university it to accomplish you dreams or goal.” In this sentence, the student has substituted the wrong pronoun ‘you’ for ‘your’ which renders the sentence ungrammatical. The reconstructed clause should be “The purpose of going to university is to accomplish your dreams or goal.” Regarding the deviation in the third example, the pronouns ‘somebody’ and ‘him/herself’ have been mistakenly used for the pronouns ‘one’ and ‘oneself’. The wrong use of ‘somebody’ and “him/herself” in this sentence renders it

ungrammatical. The sentence *‘‘It just needs somebody who is able to discipline him/herself.’’ should be reconstructed to ‘‘It just needs one to discipline oneself.’’

4.3.3.5 Misformation of article

The articles (definite and indefinite) are the most common and typical determiners which refer to the head noun in the noun phrase. The definite article ‘the’ is used to denote the phrase it introduces as definite, that is, it refers to something which can be recognized uniquely in the contextual or general knowledge shared by both the speaker and the hearer. On the other hand, the indefinite article ‘a/an’ is used to denote the phrase it introduces as indefinite, that is, it refers to something that is general or when its identity is not known.

From the analysis of the data, seven (7) errors of misformation of articles were detected. Table 4.25 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of articles.

Table 4.25: Misformation of article

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A3	It becomes worse when you have <u>the</u> evil roommate who always <u>steal</u> your things.	It becomes worse when you have <u>an</u> evil roommate who always steals your things.
3	A43	Being <u>an</u> university student sometimes it is good.	Being <u>a</u> university student is sometimes good.

As illustrated in the first example, the clause *“It becomes worse when you have the evil roommate who always steal your things” is erroneous because the definite article ‘the’ is inappropriately used to introduce a head noun ‘evil roommate’, whose identity is unknown or general. In this case, the indefinite article ‘an’ should be used to make the clause grammatical. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be “It becomes worse when you have an evil roommate who always steals your things”. In the second example, *“Being an university student sometimes it is good” is erroneous because the student inappropriately used the indefinite article ‘an’ before a head noun which begins with a consonant sound. The wrong use of the article ‘an’ in this sentence renders it ungrammatical. Therefore, the article ‘a’ should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “Being a university student sometimes it is good.”

4.3.3.6 Misformation of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’

Nouns (names of persons, places or things) in English can be made plural if they are countable but not if they are uncountable. Misformation of a singular/plural noun occurs when the singular form of a noun has been used instead of the plural or vice-versa. From the analysis of the data, ten (10) errors of misformation of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’ were detected. Table 4.26 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’.

Table 4.26: Misformation of plural marker ‘s’ or ‘es’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A2	We are given more than five <u>task</u> which are due the same day.	We are given more than five <u>tasks</u> which are due on the same day.
2	A11	I was suppose to submit three <u>assignment</u> in one week.	I was supposed to submit three <u>assignments</u> in one week.
3	A27	When they were at home their <u>parent</u> use to give them <u>porket</u> money every day.	When they were at home their <u>parents</u> used to give them <u>pocket</u> money every day.

As illustrated in the first example, the clause *“We are given more than five task which are due the same day” is erroneous because a countable noun ‘task’ is singular when it should be plural ‘tasks’. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be “We are given more than five tasks which are due the same day”. The same applies to the second example. *“I was suppose to submit three assignment in one week”. In this sentence, the student used a singular noun ‘assignment’ instead of a plural noun ‘assignments’ as the student is referring to more than one assignment. This renders the sentence ungrammatical. The reconstructed clause should be “I was supposed to submit three assignments in one week”. Regarding the misformation in the third example, the singular countable noun ‘parent’ has been mistakenly used for plural countable noun ‘parents’.

The wrong use of 'parent' in this sentence renders it ungrammatical. The sentence *"When they were at home their parent use to give them porket money every day." should be reconstructed to "When they were at home, their parents used to give them pocket money every day".

4.3.3.7 Misformation of apostrophe 's' and possessive 's'

Genitive possessive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In English, possessiveness is expressed by the use of the possessive morpheme 's' or the preposition 'of' (for example, the child's toy or the toy of the child). The analysis of the data reveals that the number of deviations in the use of genitive possessive case form is the lowest compared to the other categories in terms of frequency or recurrence. From the analysis of the data, only five (5) errors of misformation of apostrophe 's' and possessive 's' were detected. Table 4.27 illustrates examples of the data on misformation of apostrophe 's' and possessive 's'.

Table 4.27: Misformation of apostrophe ‘s’ and possessive ‘s’

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A42	<u>University’s</u> life teach us a student on how to be independent.	University life teaches us as students to be independent.
2	A43	Also at university <u>there’s</u> political parties which lead students.	Also, at university there are political parties which lead students.
3	A47	<u>University’s</u> life requires fighters and conquerors.	<u>University</u> life requires fighters and conquerors.

As illustrated in the first example, the clause *“University’s life teach us a student on how to be independent” is erroneous because the student inappropriately used the genitive possessive morpheme ‘s’ in the context in which it is not applicable. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be “University life teaches us as students to be independent”. Regarding the second example, *“Also at university there’s political parties which lead students”, the student inappropriately used the contracted form ‘there’s’ of ‘there is’ for the contracted form of there are. The inappropriate use of the contracted form ‘there’s’ renders the sentence ungrammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “Also, at university there are political parties which lead students.” Regarding the deviation in the third example, the student inappropriately used the genitive possessive morpheme ‘s’ in the context in which it is not applicable. The sentence *“University’s life requires fighters

and conquers.” should be reconstructed to “University life requires fighters and conquerors.”

4.3.3.8 Misformation of concord: third person singular marker ‘s’

Concord is defined as the relationship between two grammatical units that one of them displays a particular feature (e.g., plurality) that accords with a displayed (or semantically implicit) feature in the other (Quirk et al., 1985). In the same vein, Baker (2003:44) defines concord as the agreement in gender, case number or person between different words that share reference in a sentence. A sentence traditionally is divided into a subject and a predicate; where the subject is the performer of the action, and the predicate refers to the verb and the other elements that come after it. The simple rule in the English language on how agreement is reached between a subject and a predicate is: a singular subject takes a singular predicate, and a plural subject takes a plural predicate. From the analysis of the data, twenty-five (25) errors of misformation of the third person singular marker ‘s’ were detected. Table 4.28 below illustrates examples of the data on misformation of third person singular marker ‘s’.

Table 4.28: Misformation of concord: third person singular marker 's'

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed clause
1	A39	Many people <u>gets</u> too much freedom as their parents are not around.	Many people get too much freedom as their parents are not around.
2	A43	You might get friends or peers who <u>influences</u> you to do bad things.	You might get friends or peers who influence you to do bad things.
3	A49	I'm the one who <u>decides</u> whether to carry on studying.	I'm the one who <u>decide</u> whether to carry on studying.

As illustrated in the first example, the clause *"Many people get too much freedom as their parents are not around" is erroneous because the student inappropriately used the third person inflection -s with the third person plural 'many people'. This makes the clause grammatical. Therefore, the reconstructed clause should be "Many people get too much freedom as their parents are not around." In the second example, *"You might get friends or peers who influences you to do bad things" is also erroneous because the student inappropriately used the plural subject with a singular predicate. Lack of concord renders this sentence ungrammatical. Therefore, the plural predicate should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be "You might get friends or peers who influence you to do bad things." The same applies to the third example, *"I'm the one who decides whether to carry on studying" is erroneous because the student

inappropriately used the plural subject with a singular predicate. Lack of concord renders this sentence ungrammatical. Therefore, the plural predicate should be used to make the sentence grammatical. The reconstructed sentence should be “I’m the one who decide whether to carry on studying.”

4.4 Comparison of the Overall Findings of the Study with Results of Previous Studies

This study contributes to the literature concerning analysis of errors committed by ESL learners in general and level-one students at a South African university in particular (e.g., Munyaradzi & Manyike, 2022; Mandor, 2021; Dewi, Rangkuti and Supriadi, 2021; Emvula, 2018; Amoakohene, 2017; Tiarina, 2017; Suhono, 2017; Okoro, 2017; Alfiyani, 2013; Pineteh, 2013; Mungungu, 2010). Compared with previous research, similarities and differences are found between the overall findings of this study and those of previous studies.

When the related literature was reviewed, it was observed that there are some studies on error analysis in EFL writing and some of those studies used Surface Strategy Taxonomy as is the case with this study. The current study identified a sum of 441 errors and the most frequent error category was omission errors 184 (41.35%). The second most frequent error category was misformation errors 144 (32.36%) followed by addition errors 117 (26.29%). The findings of the current study are similar to that of a more recent

study by Dewi, Rangkuti and Supriadi (2021) which found that omission errors constituted the highest percentage, followed by errors of misformation and addition respectively.

In addition, a study carried out by Suhono (2017) on 36 participants found that students made 131 omission errors (51,7%), 68 misformation errors (26,8%), 43 addition errors (16,9%) and 11 misordering errors (4,34%) which corresponds to the findings of this study. In another study on university first year students, Tiarina (2017) observed that the participants made 27 omission errors (47%), 16 misformation errors (28%), 12 addition errors (21%) and only 2 misordering errors (4%). Alfiyani (2013) also discovered that undergraduate students made 281 omission errors (47,22%), 189 misformation errors (31,7%), 119 addition errors (19,98%) and 6 misordering errors (1%). The findings of the above studies are similar to those obtained in this study (except for the misordering errors that were not part of the scope of this study) with respect to the frequency and order of the errors. The findings of the studies listed above demonstrate that students have common errors in the process of learning a foreign language despite different backgrounds, levels and settings. It is also remarkable that the order of the frequencies of the three major error categories are the same in all four studies given above.

On the other hand, some research findings do not completely support the findings of this study. In a study conducted by Al-husban (2017) on 33 first year undergraduate students, it was identified that there were 103 omission errors (31,3%), 82 addition errors (24,9%), 76 misformation errors (23,2%) and 68 misordering errors (20,6%) in student works which does not correspond to the findings of this study. A study by Limengka and Kuntjara (2013) revealed that students made 181 misformation errors (68,05%), 54 omission errors

(20,3%), 16 addition errors (6,02%) and misordering errors (3,76%) which again does not correspond to the findings of this study. A study by Suwastini and Yukti (2017) also revealed that students made 217 misformation errors (52,29%), 152 omission errors (36,63%), 39 addition errors (9,4%) and 7 misordering errors (1,69%). Another study carried out by Miko (2018) at a university revealed that undergraduate students made 144 misformation errors (42,72%), 107 omission errors (31,75%), 68 addition errors (20,17%) and 18 misordering errors (5,34%) which again does not correspond to the findings of this study.

These studies indicate that misordering is the least frequent error category among students. Addition errors follow misordering errors except for one study, in which it is the second most frequent error category. When it comes to the most frequent one, omission errors prevail all the categories followed by misformation errors. When the frequencies and percentages of major error categories in all studies given above are taken into consideration, it can be stated that misformation errors are still the dominant category followed by omission errors as is the case with this study. Also, addition errors are the third error category, which again supports the findings of this study. The findings show that it is quite natural to make errors while learning a foreign language and it is an essential phase before mastering the target language completely. If learners are forced not to make errors during the process of learning a foreign language, they may avoid using the target language, which is necessary to improve language skills. The more they practice, the fewer errors they will make. It is very hard to eliminate errors in the target language without using the language. What is more, errors provide us with valuable

information regarding the difficulties learners encounter while learning the target language. This helps researchers to develop a more workable curriculum for a specific group of foreign language learners having the same native language. Moreover, these errors can aid teachers to spot what areas of language are problematic for students.

Finally, the findings of this study indicate that level-one students at a South African university experience difficulties at the grammatical level as well. The problematic grammatical issues identified in their written production were associated with the use of the copula 'be', the third person singular '-s/es', pronouns, prepositions, plural markers, articles, the coordinating conjunction 'and' apostrophe 's' and possessive 's' and past tense marker, respectively. Similar categories of structural errors have also been observed in previous studies on English second and foreign language learners in various contexts (Mandor, 2021; Dewi, Rangkuti and Supriadi, 2021; Emvula, 2018; Amoakohene, 2017; Tiarina, 2017; Suhono, 2017; Okoro, 2017; Alfiyani, 2013; Pineteh, 2013). This study confirms the findings of Alshayban (2012) that copula omission is a major problem in the written production of ESL and EFL learners. Some similarities in the types of grammatical errors were also found in previous research concerning ESL/EFL. For example, prepositions and articles are reported in previous studies as difficult grammatical aspects of English for EFL learners to master regardless of their language backgrounds (Abushihab, 2014; Sun, 2014; Wu & Garza, 2014; Barrett & Chen, 2011).

This study contributes to the literature concerning L2 learners' written errors. A comparison of the overall findings of the study with those of previous studies indicates

that there are similarities in the error types made in the written production of EFL learners. However, there are some dissimilarities in the proportion of the types of errors, which could be caused by factors such as the extent of differences between learners' L1 and TL, learners' age and level of proficiency and learning contexts. This study supports previous research in that L1 interference has a strong influence on the occurrence of grammatical errors in the written production of L2 learners.

4.4 Possible root causes of errors made in each category

Arani (1985: 33), in his discussion regarding the root causes of errors committed by L2 speakers, pointed out that:

Since the L2 errors can be caused by a variety of factors, the explanation of errors is by and large speculative. In other words, the fact of the matter is that the errors analyst, can never be one hundred percent sure about what in fact causes the occurrence of errors.

The above observation highlights the notion that L2 errors cannot be ascribed to a single root cause, but to a multiplicity of root causes because of the complex and dynamic processes involved in second language teaching and learning. Therefore, it is important to indicate that these causes are not always straightforward. There may be similarities between the factors that cause these errors. This means that one error may be attributed to a single cause or a multiplicity of causes that may occur simultaneously: for example: inattentiveness, carelessness, deficient hearing, insufficient input, simplification,

overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules. Any or a combination of these factors may lead to errors committed by the language learner, but there is no hard evidence which can be given to a single source. The following section will attempt to discuss the most likely and plausible root causes of the errors in the copula 'be' and other auxiliaries, subject-verb agreement (third person singular '-s/-es'), prepositions, plural forms, articles, pronouns, genitive possessive case and coordinating conjunction 'and'.

4.4.1 The copula 'be' and other auxiliaries

The study findings revealed that one of the most problematic areas of English grammar for the students in this study was the correct use of the copula 'be'. The problem associated with the copula 'be' can be ascribed to two main explanations. The first explanation could be the multiplicity of the forms of the verb 'be' with regards to numbers, person and tense. The copula 'be' has three different present tense forms ('am', 'is' and 'are') and two past tense forms ('was' and 'were'). The other explanation could be the fact that an equivalent structure does not exist in the students' mother tongue.

4.4.2 Subject verb agreement (third person singular '-s/ -es')

Even though the errors associated with the third person singular '-s/-es' were in the form of omission, addition and misformation, omission errors were much more frequent than addition and misformation errors combined. These omission errors could be ascribed to the fact that none of the grammatical persons in English takes the suffixes in the simple present tense except the third person singular verb form. It seems therefore, that such errors associated with the third person singular '-s/-es' form could occur because of

overgeneralisation of all the other forms with a zero ending. On the other hand, the errors involving addition and misformation of the third person singular ‘-s/-es’ to the non-third person singular verb form could be ascribed to the hypercorrection resulting from the students’ strict observance and over-caution regarding this structure. The analysis above agrees with earlier studies by Noor (1985), Tin (2000), and Sonmez and Griffiths (2015) that tense errors are the second most frequently committed grammatical error among second language learners of English. Additionally, the finding of the study about agreement as problematic to L2 learners of English is consistent with Leech (1994), Tin (2000), and Chele (2015) when they indicated that subject-verb agreement poses serious problems to L2 learners of English, especially the 3rd person.

4.4.3 Prepositions

Errors associated with prepositions can be ascribed to the fact that there are no fixed rules that govern the usage and choice of prepositions in English. This observation is supported by Swan (2006: 426) who avers that “it is not always easy to know which preposition to use after a particular noun, verb or adjective.” Moreover, the problems emanate from the complex linguistic functions that prepositions serve as they “appear in adjuncts, they mark the arguments of predicates, they combine with other parts of speech to express new meanings as with phrasal verbs, and they participate in idiomatic expressions” (Leacock et al., 2014: 23).

Additionally, a second look at the study revealed that among the prepositional errors, wrong use of preposition was the most frequently committed error. This agrees with

findings by Saturnina (2015) in a study of prepositional errors of college students of University of the Philippines.

Again, the polysemous nature of English prepositions generally makes it frustrating for second and foreign language learners of English to establish the appropriate prepositions to use (Koffi, 2010). There are great differences between the English prepositional system and that of Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati and isiZulu in both quantity and usage. Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati and isiZulu have many fewer prepositions than English, and because of that, there is necessarily a lack of one-to-one. Thus, when the students in this study were in doubt regarding which preposition to use, they were more likely to rely on their L1. This reliance on their L1 gave rise to errors because of the cross-linguistic differences between the prepositional systems of English and the L1 of the students.

4.4.4 Plural forms

In most cases, plurality in English is indicated by adding the morpheme ‘-s’ to the singular countable nouns. However, there are exceptional situations to this general rule. These exceptional situations are more likely to create problems for second and foreign language learners of English. When students are not aware of such situations or exceptional rules, they are prone to follow the general rule and add the plural morpheme ‘-s’ referring to plurality. For example, in the sentence **“We are given a lot of homeworks”*, the learner adds the plural morpheme ‘-s’ with the collective noun ‘homework’ which has a plural

sense. Here the error lies in the wrong use of the plural morpheme ‘-s’ with the collective noun ‘homework’ which has a plural sense. This deviation is an instance of overgeneralisation. In this case, the learner has overgeneralized the common rule of plural formation when he is not aware of the exceptional cases of plural form. Moreover, the difference in the rules of plural formation of English leads to difficulties for second and foreign language learners. Analysis of data collected from the study shows that the study participants usually omit the plural morpheme ‘-s’ from a certain category of words which require it.

The study findings also show that there are deviations that occurred in the omission of plural forms where students tend to omit the plural morpheme ‘-s’ in cases where it is required. Additionally, the participants of the study have also been observed ignoring the presence of the quantifiers which signal a plural noun as illustrated in the following example extracted from the corpus of the study:

*We are given more than five task which are due the same day.

In the above sentence, the deviation is manifested in the omission of the plural morpheme ‘-s’ from the count noun ‘task’ whose semantic notion of plurality is indicated by the modifier ‘five’. The deviation in the above sentence can be attributed to carelessness on the part of the student for failing to note that the lexical item ‘task’ requires a plural form because its plurality is recognized by the modifier ‘five’ which serves the role of a determiner in this case.

4.4.5 Articles

In the context of the view that the English articles system is a source of extreme frustration for foreign learners of English (Grannis, 1972), the participants of this study are no exception. In fact, the results of this study revealed that a total of fifty-nine article errors were committed by the study participants. One of the basic rules that govern English article system entails that the singular common noun must have an article, whereas plural common nouns can be used without an article (Flognfeldt & Lund, 2016). Participants of this study overlooked this basic rule. The errors associated with articles were in the form of omission, addition and misformation. However, omission errors were much more frequent, followed by addition and misformation. In most cases, the learners left out the article where it was required. This omission of articles could have occurred due to language interference because there are no articles used in the L1 of the study participants (Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati and isiZulu). The omission of article is illustrated in the following example extracted from the corpus of the study:

*meeting friends also can make difference in your life.

Looking at the above sentence, we observe that the indefinite article 'a' has been omitted. Apparently, the research participant seems to have failed to understand that the indefinite article 'a' is deemed obligatory before the lexical word 'difference'. The absence of indefiniteness in Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati, and isiZulu may account for similar deviation in our corpus.

Misformation of English articles that have been drawn from the corpus of the study can be attributed to false analogy and carelessness on the part of the students. Below is an illustrative example found in our corpus of the study:

*Being a university student sometimes it is good.

As illustrated in the above example, the article 'an' is erroneously used before a lexical word which begins with a consonant sound /j/. This deviation is probably due to the learner's failure to observe restrictions in the use of definite and indefinite articles in English. The article rule states that the indefinite article 'an' precedes vowel sounds whereas the indefinite article 'a' precedes consonant sounds. The learner might have confused mistaken vowel for vowel sound. This is because the initial consonant sound /j/ in the word 'university' begins with a vowel 'u' and not a vowel sound.

4.4.6 Pronouns

Majority of pronoun errors committed by level one students at a South African university seem to be mainly due to cross-linguistic differences between English and the students' L1. The analysis of the data shows that students exhibit problems in using right pronouns. These problems surface due to the contrast between the students' L1, in this case Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati and isiZulu, as well as ignorance of differences within the subsystem of the pronouns themselves. Below is an illustrative example found in our corpus of the study:

*The purpose of going to university [it] to accomplish you dreams or goal.

As illustrated in the above example, the deviation or error lies in the confusion of using case pronoun. In this case, second person pronoun 'you' is mistakenly used for the correct form 'your' in the objective case. This deviation is evidence of the learner's insufficient control of the sub-system of case inflections of pronouns.

4.4.7 Genitive possessive case

Genitive possessive case is a case in which the referent of the marked noun is the possessor of the referent of another noun. In English, possessiveness is expressed by the use of the possessive morpheme “s’ or the preposition ‘of’ (for example, the baby’s toy/the toy of the boy). Therefore, omission, addition or misformation of such structure makes the sentence ungrammatical in English. The analysis of the data shows that the number of deviations in the use or omission of genitive possessive case forms is the lowest compared to other categories in terms of frequency and recurrence. Below is an illustrative example found in our corpus of the study:

* University’s life requires fighters and conquers.

As illustrated in the above example, the clause “University’s life requires fighters and conquers” is erroneous because the student inappropriately used the genitive possessive morpheme ‘-s’ in the context in which it is not applicable. Here the student has wrongly added the possessive marker ‘-s’ to the pre-nominal modifier ‘University’ which modifies the noun head ‘life’. This can be attributed to the strategy of overgeneralisation or insufficient mastery of English genitive possessive case.

4.4.8 Coordinating conjunction ‘and’

Omission of the coordinating or additive conjunction ‘and’ has been frequently noticed in our corpus of study. The study participants have been observed omitting the coordinating or additive conjunction in a position where it is required. Below is an illustrative example found in our corpus of the study.

* “I also buy books, clothes, food.”

In the above clause, the conjunction 'and' has been omitted which should be connecting the last two nouns 'clothes' and 'food'. This deviation can be explained as being due to inattention or ignorance on the part of the students to realize the relationship between the last connecting nouns. It could also be due to insufficient mastery of English coordinating conjunctions.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter responded to research questions one and two. The first part of the chapter focused on the analysis of the types of English structural errors from a corpus of essays written by level-one students. The findings revealed that the students committed a total of 445 errors in their written productions. They were errors of omission (41.35%), addition (26.29%) and misformation (32.36%). These errors were further broken down to the following language aspects: copula 'be' and other auxiliaries 92 (21%), third person singular 81 (18%), pronoun 79 (18%), preposition 62 (14%), plural marker '-s/-es' 59 (13%), article 32 (7.2%), coordinating conjunction 'and' 16 (3.6%), apostrophe "s' and possessive "s' 14 (3.1%) and past tense marker 10 (2.2%).

The second part of the chapter attempted to explain the possible reasons for the occurrence of each category of error committed by the students. The findings revealed that L2 errors can be attributed to a variety of factors including cross-linguistic differences between English and the student's L1, overgeneralisation, carelessness on the part of the student, insufficient mastery of the English language system and hypercorrection

resulting from the students' strict observance and over-caution regarding the English language structure.

The next chapter presents the conclusion of the study. It provides the overview of the summary of the study findings, pedagogical implications of the study, study limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the collected data was presented and analysed. Chapter Five presents the conclusion of the study. It commences by focusing on overview of the summary of findings of the study, followed by pedagogical implications of the study, frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors, as well as coming up with remedial strategies to curtail the current situation of students' academic language.

as planning material for remedial material and teaching strategies, study limitations and suggestions for further research.

5.2 Overview of the summary of the findings of the study

The overriding aim of the current study was to provide an in-depth analysis of the English structural errors in a corpus of essays written by level-one students at a South African University to help improve the academic literacy levels of the students in question. The analysis of the errors committed presented in the preceding chapter (i.e., Chapter Four) offers valuable insights regarding the nature of the structural or grammatical errors committed by level-one English Communication students in their written productions. These errors were analysed according to a combination of the Linguistic category and Surface structure taxonomies.

From the analysis of data, the research findings revealed a considerable number of structural errors made by the participants of the study. These errors were categorized under errors of omission, errors of addition and errors of misformation. Omission errors were explored and classified under the following seven categories: omission of the copula 'be', omission of the third person singular marker '-s/-es', omission of preposition, omission of pronoun, omission of article, omission of plural marker '-s' or '-es', and omission of coordinating conjunction 'and'. Addition errors were explored and classified under the following nine categories: addition of copula 'be', addition of other auxiliaries, addition of third person singular marker '-s', addition of preposition, addition of pronoun, addition of article, addition of past tense marker '-ed', addition of singular/plural form of a morpheme, and addition of apostrophe '- 's' and possessive '- 's'. Misformation errors were explored and classified under the following eight categories: misformation of auxiliary 'be', misformation of other auxiliaries, misformation of preposition, misformation of pronoun, misformation of article, misformation of plural marker '-s' or '-es', misformation of apostrophe '-s' and possessive '- 's', and misformation of concord: third person singular marker '- 's'.

A detailed analysis of the errors culled from the students' written productions shows that 445 errors that were detected are of three types: omission, addition and misformation. Omission errors are the highest in terms of frequency. They constitute 184 (41.35%) of the overall total of errors committed. Errors of misformation come next in order. They constitute 144 (32.36%) followed by errors of addition which constitute 117 (26.29%).

Pertaining to the frequency of recurrence of language aspects, a comprehensive analysis of the errors detected from the students' essays reveals that the copula 'be' and other auxiliaries rank the highest as indicated by the frequency and percentage of recurrence. They constitute 91 (21%) of the overall total of errors committed. Third person singular come next in order. They constitute 81 (18%). Pronouns rank third in the order. They constitute 79 (18%) followed by prepositions and plural marker '-s/-es' constituting 62 (14%) and 59 (13%) respectively. Articles and coordinating conjunction 'and' constitute 32 (7.2%) and 16 (3.6%) respectively. They also rank sixth and seventh respectively. Apostrophe '- 's' is the second lowest based on the frequency and percentage of recurrence. It accounts for 14 (3.1%) of the overall errors committed. Past tense marker '-ed' is the lowest based on the frequency and percentage of recurrence.

Regarding the possible causes of ill-formed construction of sentences made by the students in the written essays, the study findings show that the errors were attributed to interlingual and intralingual sources.

There is substantial evidence which points to the interference of the students' home language or mother tongue in the students' written production as most of the errors that were detected indicate the students' heavy reliance on the structure of their home language (Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati, and isiZulu) to create their English sentences. Cross-linguistic differences between their home language (Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Sepedi, isiNdebele, SiSwati, and isiZulu) and English in terms of the copula, 3rd person singular, pronoun, preposition, plural marker '-s' and article

systems, and 'and', which is a coordinating conjunction, were attributed as the most possible causes of most of the errors related to these structural of grammatical classes.

In addition to the interlingual errors, the study also revealed that the occurrence of grammatical errors in the students' written compositions were also ascribed to intralingual factors, although these were very few compared to those that are attributed to the influence of the learners' mother tongue or L1. The analysis of the collected data revealed some instances of intralingual errors that can be attributed to the strategy of false analogy, overgeneralization, structural simplification, insufficient mastery of the target language, ignorance of rule restrictions and carelessness.

5.3 Pedagogical Implications

The overriding aim of this study was to apprise the English second and foreign language teachers, lecturers, and curriculum designers of the aspects of English language errors committed by level-one students in their written productions. The present study has significant pedagogical implications that can be essential to the enhancement of English learning outcomes in the South African context as well as the quality of the students' English written production.

The study offers vital information regarding the English language errors committed by the students in question with regard to their written production as well as root causes of such errors, which has the potential of serving as a springboard for English teachers, lecturers, and curriculum designers to design remedial material and plan teaching procedures

considering the available knowledge pertaining to the teaching and learning of English as second language. The designed remedial material and planned teaching procedures are envisaged to promote the competency of learners in their written productions.

5.3.1 Frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors

It is crucial to consider frequency of recurrence when arranging aspects of errors and establishing their relative significance. The more recurrent the language error, the more serious the attention it deserves. Fig. 5.1 below illustrates the hierarchical order of the frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors committed by the research participants.

Figure 5.1: Hierarchical order of the frequency of errors

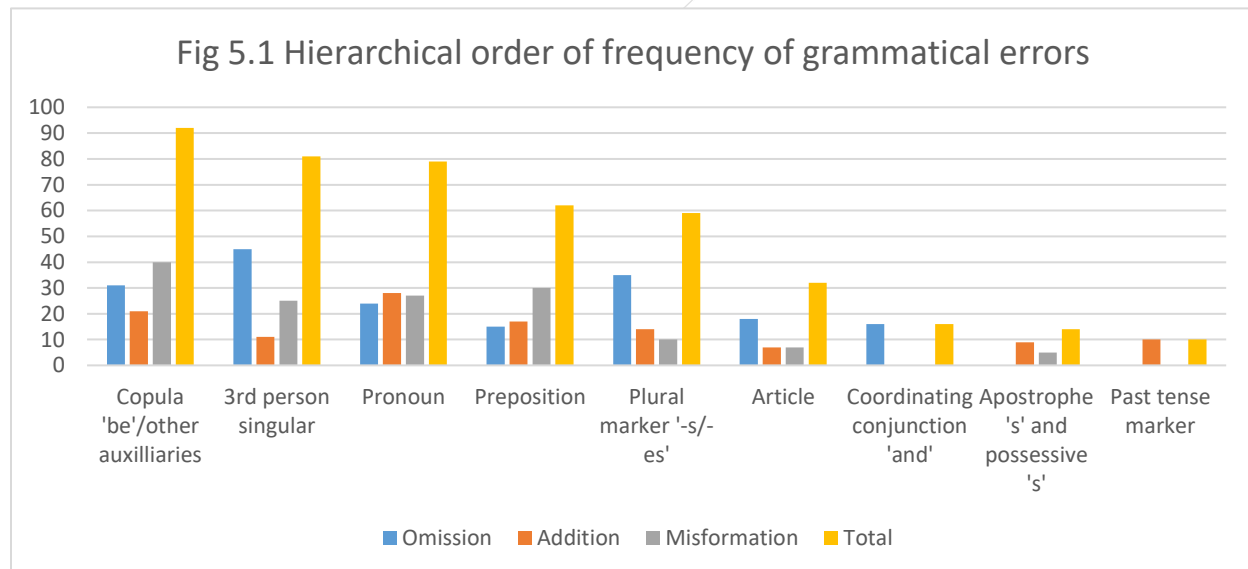


Table 5.1 below also illustrates the frequency of recurrence of aspects of errors. The errors are arranged hierarchically, from the highest to the lowest, to enable English language teachers, lecturers, and curriculum designers to determine priorities based on

frequency of recurrence. The hierarchical order of the frequency of recurrence can assist in the planning of remedial work, starting with the highest area in the hierarchy and progressing gradually to the lowest.

Table 5.1: Frequency of recurrence of language aspects

Category	Frequency of Recurrence	Percentage
Copula 'be'/other auxiliaries	92	21
3rd person singular	81	18
Pronoun	79	18
Preposition	62	14
Plural marker '-s/-es'	59	13
Article	32	7,2
Coordinating conjunction 'and'	16	3,6
Apostrophe 's' and possessive 's'	14	3,1
Past tense marker	10	2,2
TOTAL	445	100

As illustrated in Table 5.1, the most problematic language aspect is in the copula 'be' and other auxiliaries 92 (21%). Other language aspects in the descending order include third person singular 81 (18%), pronoun 79 (18%), preposition 62 (14%), plural marker '-s/-es' 59 (13%), article 32 (7.2%), coordinating conjunction 'and' 16 (3.6%), apostrophe 's' and possessive 's' and past tense marker 10 (2.2%).

5.3.2 Planning remedial material and teaching strategies to curtail the situation of students' academic language

When planning remedial material and teaching strategies to curtail the situation of students' academic language, it is essential for English teachers, module facilitators, and curriculum designers to have a realistic view of the difficulties that language learners encounter. The current study has managed to provide the much-needed analysis of the ill-formed grammatical sentences extracted from a corpus of essays produced by level-one English Communications Skills students at a South African university. The research findings are envisaged to assist English language teachers, module facilitators, and curriculum designers by freeing them from guesswork when planning and designing remedial material. Moreover, a knowledge of the order of the frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors committed is indispensable as it enables language teachers and module facilitators to give more serious attention to errors that are more recurrent.

It is essential to note that the notion of planning and designing remedial resources and teaching strategies should be grounded on the belief that most ill-formed sentences made by students can be remedied by correct language behaviour through remedial materials and teaching strategies that are designed to enable them to internalize the relevant language rules. In the light of this, frequency of recurrence of grammatical errors can be adopted as a criterion when deciding upon the arrangement of the presentation of remedial materials. This criterion labels the gravity of the error based on the regularity of recurrence. The regularity of recurrence of grammatical errors provides avenues for

language teachers and module facilitators to teach the structural items that are more problematic to the students. The frequency scale is an indispensable tool for language practitioners that can be used to determine priorities when sequencing different learning or remedial activities. The copula 'be' and other auxiliaries, third person singular, pronouns and prepositions should be accorded more serious attention as they are the most problematic language aspects as illustrated in Table 5.1.

The research findings regarding the structural errors that students commit, and their root causes reveal the need to design effective and practical remedial learning resources and activities aimed at addressing the identified problematic structural aspects for the students in question such as the use of the copula 'be', third person singular, pronouns, prepositions, and articles.

The research findings have shown that level-one students at a South African university commit English errors in their written production as a result of their insufficient knowledge of the English grammatical system. To remedy this scenario, it is essential for module facilitators employ form-focused remedial instruction aimed at raising learners' awareness of the English grammatical system as well as to enable them to learn the rules and to enhance their grammatical accuracy.

Providing students with miscellaneous activities that include, but not limited to cross-word puzzles, substitution exercises, matching exercises, sentence transformation exercises, rearranging jumbled sentences, multiple choice questions, and cloze-exercises is another

strategy that can be implemented to aid them construct sentences that are structurally correct and contextually appropriate.

Teachers, lecturers, and module facilitators should give students maximum exposure to correct forms of the English language in the classroom especially because L2 students' access to English is limited to the classroom environment. This means that teachers, lecturers, and module facilitators should be good models to students. They should also motivate students to listen to English programmes on the radio, to watch English language television programmes and to read English newspapers and magazines. Students also need to read slightly challenging prose. This will facilitate L2 acquisition.

Moreover, another remedial strategy to curtail the current situation is to put mechanisms in place to ensure that opportunities are made available to the students to enable them to apply the newly acquired knowledge of grammatical rules in writing on a regular basis. In view of the research finding which shows that the students' home language is one of the most principal causes of the grammatical errors that students commit, module facilitators should point out the differences between the structural of grammatical systems of the students' first or home language and English when appropriate to raise the students' awareness of the problems that they are more likely to encounter.

Even though the current study proposes remedial strategies to curtail the ill-formed sentences by the students in the written production, it is essential that module facilitators are considerate and tactful when correcting students' errors. Module facilitators should

always be eclectic when adopting error feedback. Each error feedback should ideally, be based on the students' needs.

Module facilitators can employ any or a combination of the following strategies when correcting structural errors committed by students: class correction, group correction, colleague or mate correction, and self or individual correction. To ensure that the students can correct themselves effectively, it is essential that they should be given ample time and suitable prompts. Another strategy that module facilitators can adopt is to draw students' attention to the errors in their own productions and probing them to self-correct their errors. This strategy is likely to raise the students' awareness of their own ill-formed constructions which may enable them to eradicate them going forward.

Similarly, another strategy that can be adopted to amplify students' awareness of the English grammatical aspects, is to give them a class activity in which they identify and correct all the errors contained in a passage which is marred with grammatical errors.

Even though the focus of this study was on the errors made by level-one students at a South African University, the suggested strategies may offer invaluable insights to English language teachers, module facilitators and curriculum designers who are operating in similar contexts.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

This study has generated important findings and made valuable contributions to literature on aspects of written English language errors committed by students in the South African

context, even though it was no different from other research studies as limitations were also not unavoidable. The first limitation is that the research study was circumscribed to level-one students at a South African university. The research findings could have been more generalisable if the study included students from other South African universities who share similar contextual background as the target population.

Again, because the study focused on the analysis of structural errors committed by second language learners of English, it was therefore, not immune to drawbacks related with the Error Analysis approach. The major challenge associated with Error Analysis is that the process involved in the identification, classification, as well as the explanation of errors is quite problematic and there is always a possibility of inaccuracies. To circumvent this, mechanisms were put in place to ensure that the process of identification, classification, and explanation of errors was as accurate as possible, particularly by sharing copies of the sampled scripts with two English experts who were not part of the supervision team.

Additionally, the categories of errors that were found in the current study were delimited to ill-formed constructions in written the compositions on a single topic 'University life'. If the students were given different essay topics, chances are that other types of errors could have surfaced as different essay topics prompt different grammatical aspects.

Another important point that should be raised is that this study makes no assertion of completeness as it aimed to analyse the structural errors in a group of essays produced

by level one students at a South African university to help find their errors and thus help improve their academic literacy levels. This stems from the fact that there are other important areas of difficulty like spelling, punctuation, and lexical errors that have not been included in the study which are also very central to any complete work. The Error Analysis approach that was adopted in this study is pedagogical in nature and its significance rests in its suggestions for planning remedial materials and teaching strategies.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Error Analysis research is never-ending because of the complex and dynamic processes involved in second language teaching and learning. The research findings of this study can be complemented by further research which can offer comprehensive analyses of the ill-formed constructions committed by students when learning English.

Considering that the focus the study was on errors made by second language learners in the written essays, it is suggested that further research should focus on errors that are made by learners of English as a second or foreign language in the spoken production.

Future research should also compare the errors that students commit in the written production and those committed in the spoken production to analyse the errors committed grounded on the production mode.

Again, it is essential that future research should consider the comparison between the errors that students commit in prepared and unprepared speech.

Considering that the current study is typical of cross-sectional studies happening at a single occasion, future research should consider conducting a longitudinal study of learners' errors to offer an in-depth understanding of the language learning process to focus a spotlight on the language errors that keep on recurring over time.

Given that the focus of the current study was on ill-formed productions which is a part of grammatical errors in academic written production, it is suggested that future researchers should also concentrate on such other problematic language aspects as spelling, punctuation, lexical errors and style or pragmatic transfer.

Finally, future research should also focus on remedial or corrective teaching and come up with practical suggestions for efficient remedial or corrective teaching to ameliorate the difficulties that English second language learners face.

REFERENCES

- Aarts, B. 2011. *Oxford Modern English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Abbott, G. 1980. Towards a more rigorous analysis of foreign language errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18(2), 121-134.
- Ababneh, I. 2017. Analysis of written English: The case of Female University Students in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Social Science Studies*, 4 (5), 1 – 5. [doi:10.11114/ijsss.v5i4.2264](https://doi.org/10.11114/ijsss.v5i4.2264).
- Abushihab, I. 2014. An Analysis of Grammatical Errors in Writing Made by Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 6(4), 213-223. DOI: [10.5296/ijl.v6i4.6190](https://doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v6i4.6190).
- Alhaysony, M. 2017. Strategies and difficulties of understanding English idioms: A case study of Saudi university EFL students. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7 (3), 78 – 84.
- Al-husban, N. (2017). Error analysis of Jordanian first - year university students' English language writing at Arab Open University-Case study. *International Journal of Pedagogical Innovations*. 6(1), 23-30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.12785/IJPI/060103>
- Al-Khresheh, M. 2016. Interlingual interference in the English language word order structure of Jordanian EFL learners. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 16 (1), 105-116.
- Al-Tamimi, A. 2006. An investigation of interlingual and intralingual interference in the acquisition of English present tenses by Yemeni learners. Unpublished MA Thesis, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia.

- Amoakohene, B. 2017. Error Analysis of students' essay: A case of first year students of the University of Health and Allied Sciences. *International Journal of Higher Education*. 6 (4), 45 – 68. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318648964>.
[Accessed on 3 March 2019]
- Anku, J.S.E. 2017. The emergence of social media discourse among Ghanaian University students: Implications for the acquisition of academic literacy. Thohoyandou: University of Venda (Unpublished PhD dissertation).
- Arani, M. T. 1985. Error Analysis: the types and causes of the major structural errors made by Iranian University students when writing expository and imaginative prose. State University of New York at Buffalo. (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation)
- Attar, E. & Allami, H. 2013. The effects of teaching lexical collocations on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3 (6) 1070 – 1079.
- Augustina, V. & Junining, E. 2015. Error Analysis in the travel writing made by the students of English study program. *Journal of English Education and Linguistic Studies*, 2(1):1-28. <https://doaj.org/toc/2503-2194>.
- Aziz, Z. A., Fitriani, S. S., & Amalina, Z. 2020. Linguistic errors made by Islamic university EFL students. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 9, 733-745.
[doi: 10.17509/ijal.v9i3.23224](https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v9i3.23224).
- Bartholomae, D. & Petrosky, A. 1986. *Facts, artifacts and counterfactuals: Theory and method for a reading and writing course*. Upper Montclair, N. J.: Boynton/Cook.

- Bent, T. & Bradlow, A.R. 2003. The interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit. *The Journal of Acoustical Society of America*, 114(3), 1600 – 1610.
- Birdsong, D. 2004. *Second Language Acquisition and Critical Age Hypothesis*. London: LEA Printers.
- Boers, F., Demecheleer, M, Coxhead, A., & Webb, S. 2014. Gauging the effects of exercises on verb-noun collocation. *Language Teaching Research*, 18 (1) 54 – 74.
- Braet, W. 2011. A comparative Error Analysis of essays by first-year bachelors of the universities of Ghent and Louvain-La-Neuve. (Unpublished Master thesis), The university of Ghent, Belgium.
- Brashi, A. 2017. Collocability as a problem in L2 production. *Rejections on English Language teaching*, 8 (1) 21 – 34.
- Brewer, J. 2005. *Ethnography* (2nd ed.), Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Brown, H.D. 2007. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. (5thed.). New York: Longman.
- Brown, J.D. 2005. 'Characteristics of sound qualitative research', *JALT Testing and Evaluation SIG Newsletter*, 9 (2) 31 – 33.
- Burns, N. & Grove, S.K. 2017. *Understanding Nursing Conduct Critique Utilisation*. (8th ed.). London: Saunders.
- Burt, M.K. 1975. Error Analysis in adult EFL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 53-63.
- Burt, M., & Kiparsky, C. 1974. Global and local errors. In J. Schumann & N. Stenson (Eds.), *New frontiers in second language learning* (pp. 71-80). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

- Caicedo, M. C. M. 2009. Native language interference in learning English as a Foreign language: An analysis of written material produced by Spanish speaking students in Senior High school classes, pp 1-123.
- Candling, R. 2001. *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. New York: Longman Inc.
- Catalán, R. 1997. Terms and definitions of errors in SLA. *Bells: Barcelona English language and Literature Studies*, 8, 60-81.
- Chaudron, C. 2003. Data collection in SLA research. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 762-828). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Chele, M. I. 2015. An analysis of subject agreement errors in English: The case of 3rd year students at the National University of Lesotho. *Ghana Journal of Linguistics*, 4(1), 32-40.
- Chomsky, N. 1965. *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.
- Chuang, F.-Y., & Nesi, H. 2006. An analysis of formal errors in a corpus of L2 English produced by Chinese students. *Corpora*, 1(2), 251-271.
- Cook, V. 2008. *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Arnold.
- Corder, S. P. 1981. *Error analysis and interlanguage*. London; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Corder, S.P. 1973. *Introducing applied linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Corder, S. P. 1967. The significance of learner's errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5(4), 161-170

- Council on Higher Education. 2013. A proposal for undergraduate curriculum reform in South Africa: The case for a flexible curriculum structure. *Report of the task team on undergraduate structure*. Pretoria: Council on Higher Education.
- Creswell, J. D. 2018. *Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods*. California: SAGE.
- Crystal, D. 1987. *The Cambridge encyclopaedia of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Diaz-Negrillo, A., & Thompson, P. (2013). Learner corpora: Looking towards the future. In A. Díaz-Negrillo, N. Ballier, & P. Thompson (Eds.), *Automatic treatment and analysis of learner corpus data* (pp. 9-30). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (eds.). 2018. *The Sage Handbook of qualitative research*, (5th ed.). London: Sage Publication.
- Dewi, R.C., Rangkuti, F.H, & Supriadi, S. 2021. Grammatical errors on EFL students' conversation practice: Surface strategy taxonomy, *Journal of Education and Teaching Learning*, 3(3), 10 – 17, <http://pusdikra-publishing.com/index.php/jetl>.
- Dulay, H., Burt, M., & Krashen, S. D. 1982. *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Dulay, H. C., & Burt, M. K. 1974. Errors and strategies in child second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8, 129–136.
- Durrant, P., & Schmitt, N. 2009. To what extent do native and non-native writers make use of collocations? *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 47, 157 - 177.
- Egger, A. E., & Carpi, A. 2008. Data: analysis and interpretation, *Vision learning* Vol. POS-1, p 1. Accessed on: 28/06/ 202. Retrieved from: http://www.visionlearning.com /library/module_viewer.php?mid=154.

- Ellis, N. C. 1995. The psychology of foreign language vocabulary acquisition: Implications for CALL'. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 8(2-3), 103-128.
- Ellis, R. 2004. The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning*, 54 (2), 227 - 275.
- Ellis, R. 2008. *The Study of Second Language Acquisition (3rd ed.)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R., & Barkhuizen, G. 2005. *Analyzing learner language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Emvula, H.M. 2018. Common English grammatical writing errors among Namibian grade 7 learners. Free State: University of the Free State (Unpublished Master's dissertation).<https://scholar.ufs.ac.za/bitstream/handle/11660/11211/EmvulaHM.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Flognfeldt, E & Lund, A. 2016. Design criteria for pedagogical language rules. In M. Bygate, A. Tonkyn, & E. Williams (Eds.), *Grammar and the language teacher*, pp. 45-55. London, England: Prentice Hall.
- Erdoğan, V. 2005. Contribution of Error Analysis to foreign language teaching. *Mersin University Journal of the Faculty of Education*, 1(2), 261-270.
- Gay, L.R., Mills, E.G., & Airasian, P. 2009. *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications*. 9th ed. USA: Pearson.
- Gluth, E. 2008. *Contrastive analysis and Error Analysis in respect of their treatment of the avoidance phenomenon*. German: GRIN Verlag.

- Graf, T. 2015. Accuracy and fluency in the speech of the advanced learner of English (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from the Charles University Thesis and Dissertation Repository. (thesis Id. 151663)
- Grami, G., & Alzughabi, M. 2012. L1 Transfer among Arab ESL learners: Theoretical framework and practical implications for ESL teaching. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2, (8), 1552-1560.
- Granger, S., & Bestgen, Y. 2014. The use of Collocations by intermediate vs. advanced non-native writers: a bigram-based study. *IRAL*, 52 (3), 229 – 252.
- Grannis, O.C. 1972. The definite article conspiracy in English. *Language learning*, 22: 275-289.
- Hadi, S. 2014. Iraqi EFL Learners' use of lexical collocations. *Journal of Nabil University*, 22 (3) 566 – 578.
- Hamed, M. 2018. Common linguistic errors among non-English major Libyan students writing. *Arab World English Journal*, 9 (3), 219 -232. [Doi:https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol19no3.15](https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol19no3.15).
- Hammarberg, B. 1974. The insufficiency of Error Analysis. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, XII (3), 185-192.
- Hammersley, M. 1992. *What's wrong with ethnography?* London: Routledge.
- Hans, Z. 2005. *Fossilization in Second Language Acquisition*. Toronto: Multilingual Matters.
- Hariri, M. 2012. Taxonomy of morpho-syntactic errors and Error Analysis. *Research Journal of Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology*, 4(22), 4856-4860.
- Hazen, K. 2014. *An Introduction to Language*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

- Hemchua, S., & Schmitt, N. 2006. An analysis of lexical errors in the English compositions of Thai learners. *Prospect*, 21(3), 3-25.
- Herring, P. 2016. *The Farlex Grammar Book: Complete English Grammar Rules*. Dublin: Farlex International.
- Hewings, M. 2005. *Advanced Grammar in Use* (2nd ed). United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- <http://144.122.235.170/ckfinder/userfiles/files/Advanced%20Grammar%20in%20Use%202nd%20Edition.pdf>.
- Hinson, D., & Park, K. 2009. Syntactic Error Analysis in a short-term intensive English program. *TNTESOL Journal*, 2, 35-48.
- Heydari, P., & Bagheri, M.S. 2012. Error Analysis: Sources of L2 learners' errors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2 (8), 1583 – 1589.
- Hoey, M. 2012. *Lexical Priming: A New Theory of Words and Language*. London: Routledge.
- Hubbard, P., Jones, H., Thornton, B., & Wheeler, R. 1996. *A Training Course for TEFL*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Husda, A., Yunanda, F., & Siregar, A. 2020. EFL Learners' Surface Taxonomic Errors of Using Appropriate Verbs in Writing Descriptive Text. *English Teaching and Linguistics Journal*, 1 (2), 72 -78. <http://jurnal.umsu.ac.id/index.php/ETLiJ>.
- Hymes, D.H. 1972. On Communicative Competence In: J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds) *Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 269-293.
- James, C. 1998. *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis*. London & New York: Longman.

- Jane, L. & Jane, R. 2014. *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Jarvis, S. 2000. Methodological Rigor in the study of transfer: Identity L1 influence in the Interlanguage Lexicon. *Language Learning* 50(2), 245 – 309.
- Johansson, S., & Hofland, K. 1994. Towards an English-Norwegian parallel corpus. In U. Fries, G. Tottie, & P. Schneider (Eds.), *Creating and using English language corpora* (pp. 25–37). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
- Johns, A.M. & Swales, J.M. 2002. 'Literacy and disciplinary practices: Opening and closing perspectives', *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1 (1), 13 – 28.
- Kafipour, R., & Khojasteh, L. 2012. A comparative taxonomy of errors made by Iranian undergraduate learners of English. *Canadian Social Science*, 8 (1), 18 - 24
[Doi:10.3968/j.css.1923669720120801.680](https://doi.org/10.3968/j.css.1923669720120801.680).
- Kalof, M., Dan, A. & Dietz, T. 2008. *Essentials of Social Research*. 2nd ed. California: Sage.
- Khalil, A. 1985. Communicative error evaluation: Native speakers' evaluation and interpretation of written errors of Arab EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 335-351.
- Khan, I. 2011. Learning difficulties in English: Diagnosis and pedagogy in Saudi Arabia. *Educational Research*, 2(7), 1248-1257
- Khansir, A. 2012. Error Analysis and second language acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(5), 1027-1032.
- Kasper, G. & Dahl, M. 1991. *Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics*. University of Hawaii at Manoa: Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Centre.

- Kasper, G. 2001. Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In K.R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 36 – 60). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kessler, B., & Treiman, R. 2001. Relationships between sounds and letters in English monosyllables. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 44, 592-617. 259
- Khalil, A. 1985. Communicative error evaluation: Native speakers' evaluation and interpretation of written errors of Arab EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 335-351.
- Khalil, E. 2012. Assessing EFL learners' ability in the recognition and production of homophones. *Journal of the College of Education for Women*, 23(2), 529-544.
- Khumalo, N.P., & Reddy, S. 2021. Cross-disciplinary synergy: First year students' experiences of learning academic writing through integrated writing support at a University of Technology. *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa*, 17(1), 1- 11. <https://doi.org/10.4102/td.v17i1.1038>.
- Koffi, E. 2010. *Applied English syntax: Foundations for word, phrase, and sentence analysis*. Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall Hunt Publishing Company.
- Krashen, S. 1981. *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. 1982. *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Kumar, R. 2005. *Research Methodology: A Step- by- Step Guide for Beginner*. 2nd ed. London: Sage Publication.

- Kusumawardhani, P. 2017. The analysis of errors of omission in English narrative composition made by EFL students, *Journal of English Language and Education*, (3) 2, 84 – 96. DOI: [10.26486/jele.v3i2.257](https://doi.org/10.26486/jele.v3i2.257).
- Labov, W. 1970. *The study of nonstandard English*. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Leacock, C., Chodorow, M., Gamon, M., & Tetreault, J. 2014. *Automated grammatical error detection for language learners (2nd ed.)*. San Rafael: Morgan & Claypool Publishers.
- Leech, G. 1994. *A communicative grammar of English*. London: Longman.
- Lennon, P. 1991. Error: Some problems of definition, identification, and distinction. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 180-196.
- Lightbrown, P.M., & Spada, N. 2013. *How languages are learned*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Limengka, P.E. & Kuntjara, E. 2013. Types of grammatical errors in the essays written by fourth-semester students of English department, Petra Christian University. Doctoral Dissertation, Petra Christian University, Indonesia.
- Llach, M. P. A. 2015. Lexical errors in writing at the end of primary and secondary education: Description and pedagogical implications. *Porta linguarum*, 23, 109-124.
- Llach, M. P. A. 2011. *Lexical errors and accuracy in foreign language writing*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

- Mahmood, A. H., & Murad, I.M.A. 2018. Approaching the Language of the Second Language Learner: Interlanguage and the Models Before, English Language Teaching, 11(10). 95 – 108.
- Makalela, J.L. 1998. *Black South African English: A Dynamic Variety*. JHB: University of Witwatersrand.
- Mandor, E.J. 2021. Analysis of English Language Errors in the Writings of Second Year Students in a Ghanaian University. Thohoyandou: University of Venda (Unpublished PhD dissertation).
- Manthatha, S.M. 1991. *Error Analysis: A sample study of errors made by Northern Sotho speaking learners (urban and rural) in written English with special reference to standard 6, 8 and 10*. Sovenga: University of the North (M.Ed dissertation).
- Maolida, E.H.& Hidayat, M.V.C. 2021. Writing errors based on Surface structure taxonomy: A case of Indonesian EFL students' personal letters. *Proceedings of International Conference on Education of Suryakencana (iCONEECTS2021)*. 2(336-344). <https://jurnal.unsur.ac.id/cp/article/view/1369/0>.
- Maros, M., Hua, T., & Salehuddin, K. 2007. Interference in learning English: Grammatical errors in English essay writing among rural Malay secondary school students In Malaysia. *e-BANGI: Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(2), 1-15.
- Matusevich, I. 2016. Quantitative Methodss in Error Analysis on the example of Errors in academic Writing by Czech advanced learners of English (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <https://is.muni.cz/thesis/>.
- Merriam, S. B. A. 2002. *Qualitative Research in Practice: Examples for Discussion and Analysis*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass A Wiley Company.

[https://www.amazon.com/Qualitative-Research-Practice-Examples Discussion/dp/1119452023/ref=pd_lpo_14_img_0/145-8682074-6924260?](https://www.amazon.com/Qualitative-Research-Practice-Examples-Discussion/dp/1119452023/ref=pd_lpo_14_img_0/145-8682074-6924260?)

- McBurney, D. H. & White, T. L. 2013. *Research Methods*. USA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- McGregor, S.L.T. & Murnane, J.A. 2010. Paraadigm, methodology and method: intellectual integrity in consumer scholarship. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 34 (4), 419 – 427.
- Miko, A. J. 2018. Analysis of students' grammatical errors in writing. Unpublished MA Thesis, Ar-Raniry State Islamic University, Darussalam-Banda Aceh, Indonesia.
- Mounya, A. 2010. *Teaching lexical collocations to raise proficiency in foreign language writing. A case of first-year English students at Guelma University, Algeria* (MA thesis) *Universite Mentouri*, Constantine, Algeria.
- Muijs, D. 2011. *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Mungungu, S.S. 2010. *Error Analysis: Investigating the writing of ESL Namibian learners*. Unpublished Masters' dissertation. Unisa. <http://uir.unisa.ac.za/handle/10500/4893>. [Accessed on 15 January 2019.]
- Nadya, N., & Muthalib, K.A. 2021. Error Analysis of the students' English written descriptive text. *English Educational Journal*, 12(2), 196 - 217
- Namvar, F. 2013. The relationship between language proficiency and use of collocation by Iranian EFL students. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 18 (3), 41 – 52.

- Napitupulu, S. 2017. Analysing linguistic errors in writing an English letter: A case study of Indonesian undergraduate students. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 5 (3)
- Nation, J. R. 1997. *Research Methods*. New Jersey: Prentice- Hall, Inc.
- Nisreen, A. A. 2017. *An Investigation of Written Errors Made by Saudi Efl Foundation Year Students*. University of New South Wales. (Unpublished PhD dissertation)
<http://dx.doi.org/https://doi.org/10.26190/unsworks/19853>.
- Nofal, K. 2012. Collocations in English and Arabic: A comparative study. *English language and Literature Studies*, 2 (3), 75 – 93.
- Nzama, M. 2000. *Error Analysis of errors committed by isiZulu speaking learners of English*. M.A. Dissertation, University of Zululand, South Africa.
- Odlin, T. 1989. *Language Transfer: Cross-Linguistic Influence in Language Learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Okoro, G.O. 2017. Error Analysis of the Written English Essays of Junior Secondary School Two Students in Owerri North, *International Journal of Education and Evaluation*, 3 (5), 64 – 74.
<https://www.iiardjournals.org/get/IJEE/VOL.%203%20NO.%205%202017/ERROR%20ANALYSIS.pdf>
- O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A. 1990. *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pole, C. & Morrison, M. 2003. *Ethnography for Education*: United Kingdom: Open University Press.

- Punch, K.F. 1998. *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Paquot, M, & Granger, S. 2012. Formulaic language in learner corpora. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 130 – 149.
- Pavey, L. Emma. 2010. *The structure of language: An introduction to grammatical analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Peters, E. 2015. The learning burden of collocations: the role of interlexical and intra-lexical factors. *Language Teaching Research*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/13621688814568131>. Accessed on 15 January 2019.
- Pineteh, E. 2013. The academic writing challenges of undergraduate students: A South African case study. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 3(1), 12. <https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v3n1p12> Quibol.
- Pour-Mohammadi, M., & Abidin, M. 2011. Test-taking strategies, schema theory and reading comprehension test performance. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(18), 237-243.
- Quibol-Catabay, M. 2016. Error Analysis in students' writing. *International Journal of Advanced Research Management and Social Sciences*, 5(1), 131-148.
- Quirk, R., S. Greenbaum, G. Leech & J. Svartvik .1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. New York: Longman.
- Reading, S. 2018. *Qualitative research design: Case study*. McMillan: SAGE.
- Reiter, B. 2017. *Theory and methodology of exploratory social science research*. Haifa: University of Haifa.

- Richards, J.C.1974. A non-contrastive approach to Error Analysis, In Richards, J. C.(ed.). *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, London: Longman Group.
- Richards, J. 1971. A non-contrastive approach to Error Analysis. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 25(3), 204-219.
- Richards, J., & Sampson, G. 1974. The study of learner English. In J. Richards (Ed.), *Error Analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition* (pp. 3-18). London: Longman.
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. 2002. *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. Pearson Education Limited. London: Longman.
- Richards, J. C., Plott, J., & Platt, H. 1996. *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman.
- Ridha, N. 2012. The effect of EFL Learners' mother tongue on their Writings in English: An Error Analysis Study. *Journal of college arts*. University of Basrah, 60, 22 -45.
- Roos, J.H. 1990. *A syntactic Error Analysis of written work of students at Vista University*. *Rand Afrikaans University*: R.A.U. (M.A. dissertation).
- Rubin, J. 1987. Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner Strategies and Language Learning* (pp. 15-29). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Saihi, H. 2021. Analysis Of Grammar Errors in the Written Productions ff Second Year Students of Biskra University, *Revue des Sciences Humaines*, doi:[10.37136/1003-000-043-045](https://doi.org/10.37136/1003-000-043-045)

- Sajid, J., Igbal M.M. & Umaima, K. 2019. Analysing common errors in English composition at postgraduate level in Khyber Phakhtunkwa (Pakistan). *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 38 (2), 53 -67.
- Saturnina, M. 2015. *An analysis of prepositional errors of college students of University of the Philippines*. (Eric Document No. EJ 1083531).
- Saville-Troike, M. 2012. *Introducing second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sawalmeh, M.H.M. 2013. Error Analysis of written English essays: The case of students of the preparatory year program in Saudi Arabia. University of Ha'il. http://www.philologist.com/Articles_40/Sawalmeh.pdf
- Schachter, J. 1974. An error in Error Analysis. *Language Learning*, 24(2), 205-214.
- Seitova, M. 2016. Error Analysis of Written Production: The case of 6th grade students of Kazakhstani school, *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 232 (2016) 287 – 293. [doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.022](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.022).
- Selinker, L. 1974. Error Analysis: Source, cause, and significance. In J.C. Richards (Eds.). *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman.
- Silverman, D. 1989. 'Six rules of qualitative research: A post-Romantic argument', *Symbolic Interaction*, 12 (2), 215 – 230.
- Somekh, B. & Lewin, C. 2005. *Theory and Methods in Social research*. 2nd ed. California: Sage.
- Strydom, H. 2005. *Sampling and sampling methods*. Pretoria: Van Schaick.

- Suhono, S. 2017. Surface strategy taxonomy on the EFL students' composition: A study of error analysis. *Jurnal IQRA*, 1(2)1, 1 – 31.
- Sujoko, S. 1989. *Error Analysis*. Surakarta: Sebelas Maret University Press.
- Suwastini, N.K.A. & Yukti, W.G.S. (2017). Errors analysis in short biography text written by the 11th grade students of a vocational high school in Singaraja. *International Journal of Language and Literature*, 1(1), 1-10. [https:// doi.org/10.23887/ijll.v1i1.9612](https://doi.org/10.23887/ijll.v1i1.9612).
- Svartvik, J. 1973. Errata: Papers in Error Analysis. Lund: Gleerup, pp. 7-15.
- Swan, M. 2006. *Practical English usage* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tarone, E. 2006. Interlanguage. <http://socling.genlingnw.ru/files/ya/interlanguage%20Tarone.PDF>. Accessed on 21 January 2019.
- Tarone, E. 2001. Interlanguage. In R. Mesthrie (Eds.), *Concise encyclopedia of sociolinguistics* (pp. 475- 481). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Tarone, E. 1988. *Variation in interlanguage*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Tarone, E. 1985. Variability in interlanguage use: a study of style-shifting in morphology and syntax. *Language Learning* 35:373-394.
- Tarone, E. 1983. Some thoughts on the notion of 'communication strategy'. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication* (pp. 61-74). London: Longman.
- Tarone, E. 1979. Interlanguage as chameleon. *Language Learning* 29:181-192.
- Taura, H. 1998. Effective Error Analysis for Japanese ESL learners. In B. Visgatis (Ed.), *On JALT' 97: Trends and Transitions. Proceedings of the JALT 1997 International*

- Conference on Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 27-36). Japan: The Japan Association for Language Teaching.
- Taylor, G. 1986. Errors and explanations. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(2), 144-166
- Taylor, P.C. & Medina, M. 2011. Educational research paradigms: From positivism to pluralism. *College Research Journal*, 1(1), 1-16. Philippines: Assumption College of Nabunturan.
- Thewissen, J. 2013. Capturing L2 accuracy developmental patterns; insights from an error tagged EFL learner corpus. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97, 77 – 101.
- Tiarina, Y. 2017. An interlanguage error analysis: A formative evaluation for freshmen. *Lingua Didaktika*, 11(1), 77-83. <https://doi.org/10.24036/ld.v11i1.7938>.
- Tin, K. K. 2000. An investigation of subject-verb agreement errors in the interlanguage of ESL learners (MA thesis, University of Malaya).
- Tseng, W., Dornyei, Z., & Schmidt, N. 2006. A new approach to assessing strategic learning: the case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(1), 78-102. <https://doi.org/10.1093/app lin/ami046>.
- Van Els, T, Bongaerts, T, Extra, G, Van, OS, C, & Janssen-Van Dieten, A. 1984. *Applied Linguistics and the Learning and Teaching of Foreign Languages*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Van Patten, B., & Benati, A. G. 2010. *Key terms in second language acquisition*. New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Van Patten, B., & Williams, J. 2007. Early theories in second language acquisition. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Walliman, N. 2011. *Research Methods: The Basics*. London: Routledge.
- Wary, A., & Bloomer, A. 2013. *Projects in linguistics and language studies* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Wittich, B. 1979. Error Analysis: Implications for the teaching of foreign languages. *Foreign Language Annals*, 12(4), 315-317.
- Wong, L. 2002. *Sentence essentials: A grammar guide*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Yayasundara, J.M.P.V.K, & Premarathna, C.D.H.M. 2011. A linguistic analysis on errors committed in English by undergraduates. *International Journal of scientific and Research Publications*, 1(1), 1 – 6.
- Yuksel, G. 2007. *Grammatical errors in the composition written by Turkish learners of English*. Unpublished MA thesis. Ataturk University: institute of Social Sciences.
- Zamel, V. 1981. Cybernetics: A model for feedback in the ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 15,139-150.

Appendix A: Students' errors

As illustrated in Table 1, the total number of errors found is

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
1	S1	Now I at university.	Now I <u>am</u> at university.	√		
2		The life it is different from high school life.	University life is different from high school life.	√	√	
3		Here at university, we only attend a class for a 40 minetes.	Here at university, the duration of each lecture is forty minutes.		√	√
4		We find many things like different churchs and student who live different lifestyle.	We find different churches and students who live different lifestyles.	√	√	√
5		Mostly you will find student bzy going up and down attending, some bzy with their schoolwork	You will mostly find students going up and down, whereas others will be attending lectures or doing with their schoolwork	√	√	√
6		It is a place where their is no uniform, we wear our private clothes.	There is no uniform. We dress as we like.	√	√	√
7		Students the enjoy life in this institution because they are receive money from different bursary.	Students enjoy life in this institution because they receive funding from different funders.		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
8		University life <u>it</u> is good for many <u>peoples</u> .	University life is good for many <u>people</u> .		√√	
9		It favour anyone because many thing that people like it is available.	It favours everyone because everything that students want is available,	√	√	√
10		People who drink beer it is there.	People who drink beer are also here.		√	
11		University it cover everyone	University covers everyone.		√	
12	S2	We must attend online	We attend online lectures.	√	√	
13		You found that there is no network where you live.	You sometimes find that there is no network coverage in your area.	√		√
14		Some students might skip or not being able to write a test viable classes.	Some students may either miss online tests or classes.	√	√	√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
15		We are given more than five task which are due the same day.	We are given more than five tasks which are due on the same day.	√√		√
16		We are given lots of homeworks.	We are given a lot of homework.		√	
17		Peer pressure also destroy many student.	Peer pressure also affects many students.	√		√
18		It teaches you to be independent to have responsibility.	It teaches you to be independent and to have responsibility.	√		
19	S3	Things at university stimulate behaviour.	University life stimulates good behaviour.	√	√	
20		You might end up seeing yourself losing everything you fought for for many years.	You may end up losing everything that you fought for for many years.		√	√
21		You choose if you want to submit or not, write test with others or not.	You choose whether to submit an assignment or write a test with others.	√	√	
22		University life becomes more harder on students who stays on res and have roommates.	Life is harder for students who stay on university residences and have roommates.		√	√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
23		It becomes worse if you have an evil roommate who always steal your things.	It becomes worse if you have an evil roommate who always steals your things.	√		
24	S4	Covid-19 has disturbed us in a highly manner.	Covid-19 has disturbed us seriously.		√	√
25		You also receive allowance of NSFAS which is around R1500 every months.	You also receive a NSFAS allowance of R1500 every month.	√	√	
26		The rooms are in good condition as there is a table to study.	All the rooms are in good condition and they all have study tables.	√	√	
27	S5	Meeting friends also can make difference in your life.	It can also make a difference in your life when you meet friends.	√		√
28		That is why there is a say 'Birds of the same fathers flock together.'	That is why there is a saying: 'Birds of a feather flock together.'	√	√	√
29		Here at varsity you have to be more wiser than before because there are much temptentions.	Here at varsity you must be wiser because there are many temptations.		√	√
30	S6	University life it is nice and challenging.	University life is nice and challenging.		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
31		To get admitted to the university, you need to meet their requirement which are minimum.	To get admitted to the university, you need to meet the minimum requirements.		√	
32		First thing they think about is drink alcohol	The first thing that they think about is to drink alcohol.	√		
33	S7	As students we get scared to live away	As students, we get scared when think of living far away from home.	√		
34		You always tired.	You are always tired.	√		
35		Things you do is studying each and every time.	You have to study all the time.		√	
36		I was suppose to submit three assignment in one week.	I was supposed to submit three assignments in one week.	√√		
37		I felt like I can die.	I felt like I could die			

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
38		I have been waiting for that money so long.	I have been waiting for the allowance for a long time.	√		√
39		University life need a person who knows what he/she is doing.	University life needs a person who knows what he/she is doing.	√		
40	S8	That is the kind of situation that make us as students resorts to things such as prostituting or/and finding a blesser.	This kind of situation triggers us as students to resort to such activities as prostitution or finding a blesser.	√	√	√
41		As black people, majority of us comes from disadvantaged families.	As black people, majority of us come from disadvantaged families.	√		
42		This is one difficult part, it is also the biggest distractment.	This is one difficult part which also distracts students from their studies.	√		
43		As students you must be knowing how to balance your things properly.	As a student, you must know how to balance your things properly.	√	√	
44		Some students comes from strict families.	Some students come from strict families.	√		

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
45	S9	Communicate with different languages.	Communicate in different languages.			
46		Its my first time.	It's my first time.			
47		This university life for me is more like the survival of the fittest.	For me, university life is like survival of the fittest.		√	√
48		I am go to class everyday.	I am go to class every day.			
49		It has never became popular that there is no life at university.	It has never been popular that there is no life at university.			
50		The University life can skin you alive.	University life can skin you alive.		√	
51	S10	University life requires one to be very responsible.	University life requires one to be very responsible.	√		
52		Everyone do as they pleases without getting permission to anyone.	Everyone does as he or she pleases without getting permission from anyone.			

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
53		Those who are here to study they study very hard at the end of the year they achieve good marks.	Those who are here to study study very hard and obtain good marks at the end of the year.		√	√
54		Those who are here just because there parents sent them they do nothing.	Those who are here just because their parents sent them, do not do anything.			√
55		Many of people here at the university achieve nothing because some of them change their lifestyle coping what their friends are doing.	Many university students fail because they change their lifestyles and copy what their friends are doing.	√	√	√
56		Some engage themselves to drugs and alcohol while other are selling their bodies to blasers and other people who promise them money.	Some students indulge in drugs and alcohol whereas others engage in prostitution or find blessers who offer them money in return for the rendered services.	√		√
57		In order to survive at the university you must have money to buy food, closes and other things that can make a person to be more valuable.	For one to survive at the university, one must have money for food, clothes and other essentials.	√	√	√
58		Those students who are not fundend by NSFAS they are suffering more especially when they are not from families which parents are working.	Students who are not funded by NSFAS are suffering, more especially when they are from indigent families.	√	√	√
59		For them to survive they must hustel for some money.	For them to survive, they must hustle for some money.	√		

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
60		That is why most of them ended up dating old people.	That is why most of them end up dating older people.	√	√	
61		There are even those who are fundend by NSFAS but still not setisfied.	Even those who are funded by NSFAS are still not satisfied.	√	√	√
62		They ended up loosing their lives.	They end up losing their lives.		√	
63		People who have money at university they were fancy closes and everything they do is classic.	University students who have money wear fancy clothes and do classic things.		√	√
64		Money ruins the lives of many in the university.	Money ruins the lives of many people in the university.	√		
65		Many people are archiving their dreams because of dedication to their studies.	Many people are achieving their dreams because of their dedication to their studies.	√		
66	S11	You always tired.	You <u>are</u> always tired.	√		√
67		Things you do is studying each and every time without a break.	You have to study all the time.		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
68		I was suppose to submit three assignment in one week.	I was <u>supposed</u> to submit three <u>assignments</u> in one week.	√√		
69		Headache is our snack this days.	Headache is our snack <u>these</u> days.		√	
70		University life need a person who knows what he/she is doing.	University life <u>needs</u> a person who knows what he/she is doing.	√		
71		This life is tiring.	This life is <u>tiring</u> .			√
72	S12	This life is really different of that of high school level.	This life is <u>completely different from high school life</u> .		√	√
73		Make sure that you control the level of your freedom and your independently.	Make sure that you control <u>your freedom</u> and <u>your independence</u> .		√	√
74		At university, you meet with different lecture.	At university, you meet <u>different lecturers</u> .			√
75		There is a lot of pressure as the parent are far away from us.	There is a lot of pressure as the <u>parents are</u> far away from us.	√		

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
76		Many student start to loose focus when they reach university.	Many student start to <u>lose</u> focus when they reach university.	√		√
77		the university life it is good and exciting but it need a lot of responsibility.	...university life <u>is</u> good and exciting but it <u>needs</u> a lot of responsibility.	√	√	
78	S13	At university I leaned the team working at first it wasn't easy.	At university, I <u>learned team work for the first time</u> , it wasn't easy.		√	√
79		University is different from high school because here you are at your own.	University is different from high school because here you are <u>on</u> your own.			√
		Making friends its not easy.	Making friends <u>is</u> not easy.			√
80		The lecturals they don't spoon feed like at high school.	The <u>lecturers</u> don't spoon-feed like at high school.	√	√	√
81	S14	Every day when we were attending I would sit next to her.	Every day when we were attending <u>lectures</u> , I would sit next to her.	√		√
82		When we recieved allowances, I was so happy.	When we <u>received</u> allowances, I was so happy.			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
83	S15	She greeted me and asked the direction to the ICT.	She greeted me and asked <u>me</u> for direction to the ICT.	√	√	
84		We are given a lot of <u>homeworks</u> .	We are given a lot of <u>homework</u> .	√√		√
85		We ask someone who was passing and he told us.	We <u>asked</u> for direction from someone who was <u>passing by</u> , and he <u>showed</u> the way.		√	√√
86		Since the day we became more closed and the fact that we were doing the same ECS.	Since <u>that</u> day we <u>became closer</u> to each other <u>because</u> we were doing the same ECS.			√√
87		My first semeter was so good.	My first <u>semester</u> was so good.			√
88		I had lectuctures who taught us until we understand.	I had <u>lecturers</u> who taught us until we <u>understood</u> .	√		√√
89	S16	University is a place where students procced their studie in different course.	University is a place where students <u>enrol for different courses</u> .	√		√√
90		Life of varsity is very difficult when comes to experience.	<u>University life</u> is very difficult when <u>it</u> comes to experience.	√		

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
91		It need a person who know what is the main point of being at university.	It <u>needs</u> a person who <u>knows what the main point of being at university is.</u>	√√		
92		Lectures just give the main point of the note.	Lectures just <u>stress</u> the main <u>points</u> of the <u>notes.</u>	√√	√	
93		In university has gig which happen every Friday.	<u>At</u> university, <u>there are gigs</u> which <u>are hosted</u> every Friday.	√√	√	
94		Students dancing the whole night and some go to sell their body outside in order to get money.	Students <u>dance the whole night away</u> and others <u>prostitute themselves</u> for money.	√√	√	√
95		Someone students they get killed because of dating with different people at the same time.	<u>Some</u> students get killed because of dating different people at the same time.		√√	√
96		In varsity must learn to stand by yourself.	In varsity <u>you</u> must learn to stand <u>on your own.</u>	√		√
97		It easy to attend online because of free data that get from university.	It <u>is</u> easy to attend online <u>lectures</u> because of free data that <u>students</u> get from <u>the</u> university.	√√√√		
98		We get a lot of informations from the internet	We get a lot of information from the internet		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
99		The problem it comes when don't want to attend the lessons or not write any work, no lecture is going to follow you ask for work.	The <u>problem occurs</u> when <u>you don't attend lectures</u> or submit tasks <u>as</u> there is no <u>lecturer who will follow you up for your outstanding tasks</u> .	√	√	√
100	S17	When I complited my matric, I was so excited about going to university.	When I <u>completed</u> my matric, I was so excited about going to university.			√
101		Honestly speaking, university life can be quiet hectic.	Honestly speaking, university life can be <u>quite</u> hectic.			√
102	S18	It is hard to cope if you don't understand or communicate with others using the median language English.	It is hard to cope if you <u>can't communicate</u> with others <u>in English which is the medium of instruction</u> .		√	√√
103		Sometimes meeting friends also can make difference in your life.	Sometimes meeting friends <u>can also make difference a</u> in your life.	√√		√
	S19	The life at university its so amazing.	The life at university <u>is</u> so amazing.			√
104		There is no way in which a lecture will always behind your back asking why you didn't come to class.	There is no way in which a <u>lecturer</u> will always <u>be</u> behind your back asking <u>you</u> why you didn't come to class.	√		√
105	S20	People who are serious can be able to achieve something.	People who are serious <u>can</u> achieve something.		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
106		University life is stressing and some people ended up doing crazy things.	University life is <u>stressful</u> , and some people <u>end</u> up doing crazy things.		√	√
107	S21	They believe is best for them because majority students are doing it.	They believe <u>it</u> is best for them because majority <u>of</u> students are doing it.	√ √		
108		The freedom to attending any club, coming back anytime to your room and having no one to force you to attend classes kills the future of many lives.	Freedom <u>of</u> attending <u>clubs</u> , coming back to your room at any time and having no one to force you to attend classes <u>destroys</u> the future of many lives.		√	√ √ √
109		For the academic year 2021 which is unlike any other normal years where students were supposed to write tests in class, it has changed to online tests which students are abusing.	For the <u>2021 academic year</u> which is unlike any other normal <u>year</u> where students were supposed to write tests in class, it has changed to online tests which are abused by students.		√ √	
110		Covid-19 is causing discomfort to students to not participate very well in class.	Covid-19 is causing discomfort <u>which makes it difficult for students to participate</u> actively in class.		√ √	√
111	S22	Other they meet friends rich families and that start to live like them.	<u>Others</u> meet friends <u>from</u> rich families and <u>they</u> start to live like them.	√ √ √		
112		Some students forget why they at university.	Some students forget why they <u>are</u> at university.	√		
113		They end up failed.	They end up <u>failing</u> .		√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
114	S23	University is where a person is able to choice a career of their choice and study it.	University is where a person can <u>choose</u> a career and <u>pursue</u> it.			√ √
115		When you at university, you have to learn to be independent.	When you <u>are</u> at university, you have to learn to be independent.	√		
116	S24	We also face difficulties when it comes to writing test.	We also face difficulties when it comes to <u>writing tests</u> .	√		√
117		Everyday its due date of assignment.	Every day <u>is</u> due date of assignment.		√	
		We receive assignment every week and given only 1 week to finish them.	We <u>are given assignments</u> every week <u>which are to be submitted in one week</u> .	√	√	√
118		There is a lot of competition in university.	There is a lot of competition <u>at</u> university.			√
119		You just have to decide weather to follow them.	You just have to decide <u>whether</u> to follow them.			√
120		At the university we must always be prepared of everything.	At () university we must always be prepared <u>for anything</u> .		√	√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
121		You will end up living with hunger for the rest of the month.	You will end up <u>without food</u> for the rest of the month.			√
122		University life is different with high school life.	University life is different <u>from</u> high school life.			√
123	S25	University life need people who are determine.	University life <u>needs</u> people who are <u>determined</u> .	√ √		
124		Many people focus on allowance they receive instead of their school work.	Many people focus on <u>the</u> allowance they receive instead of <u>at</u> their school work.	√		√
125		University life is difficult, but it can be easy for you when your serious about your education or future.	University life is difficult, but it can be easy for you <u>if you are</u> serious about your education or future.			√ √
126		University life need hardworkers not chance takers.	University life <u>needs</u> hard workers <u>and</u> not chance takers.	√ √		√
127		If your collected and determine you will live your life and focus on your education.	If <u>you are</u> collected and <u>determined</u> you will live your life and focus on your education.	√		√
128	S26	Some says is a place where you get all the freedom that you always looking for.	Some <u>people say it is</u> a place where you get all the freedom that you <u>have always been</u> looking for.	√√√√	√ √	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
129		You need to be a person who is always active in order to participate in each lelearn.	You need to be a person who is always active in order to participate in each <u>lesson</u> .			√
130		University life need a person who knows what really what makes him/her to be at university.	University life <u>needs</u> a person who knows what really what makes him/her to be at university.	√	√	
131	S27	You start relying on yourself, you become dependent.	You start relying on yourself <u>and</u> you become <u>independent</u> .	√		√
132		The pandemic helped students a lot since they were no exams.	The pandemic helped students a lot since <u>there</u> were no exams.			√
133		Students passed well and promoted to the second semester using only tests and other activities.	Students passed well and <u>were</u> promoted to the second semester <u>based on</u> tests and other activities.	√		√
134		We learn to communicate with people who uses other languages.	We learn to communicate with people who <u>speak</u> other languages.		√	
135		We also find financial advicers who advice us how to use our allowance and teach us to save from the little we receive every month.	We also find financial <u>advisors</u> who <u>advise</u> us <u>on</u> how to use our allowance and () save from the little we receive every month.		√	√ √ √
136		I also buy books, clothes, food.	I also buy books, clothes <u>and</u> food.	√		

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
137	S28	During the Covid-19, the life of university change completely.	During () Covid-19, <u>university life changed completely.</u>	√	√	
138		Covid-19 make university to change they are lifestyle.	Covid-19 <u>made</u> universities to change <u>their lifestyles.</u>	√	√	√ √
139		Some of system university work slowly.	Some () <u>university systems</u> work slowly.	√	√ √	
140		But we are learning more about technology, because now some of us we use the online classes.	We are learning more about technology, <u>as</u> we now <u>attend</u> online classes.			√ √
141		Now during the Covid-19, the university supply for us free data.	Now during () Covid-19, the university <u>provides</u> with us free data.	√	√ √	√ √
		There was many activities in the campus.	There <u>were</u> many activities <u>on</u> campus.		√	√ √
142		Students they was doing things that was not acceptable during that time.	Students <u>were</u> doing <u>unacceptable things</u> <u>at</u> that time.		√	√ √
143		Varsity life is good if you a pass academic work.	Varsity life is good if you <u>are performing well in your academic</u> work.	√		√√√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
144		Some of the students where not serious of the acardemic work.	Some students <u>are</u> not serious <u>with</u> <u>their</u> <u>academic</u> work.		√√	√√√
145		They did'not even attend class and that not good but the expect to pass at the end of the semester.	They <u>do not</u> even attend <u>classes</u> and expect to pass at the end of the semester.	√	√	√√
146		I will not go out to groove or drink alcohol because I will infect by the virus.	I will not go out to groove or drink alcohol because I will <u>be infected</u> by the virus.	√ √		
147	S29	The first thing that was on my mind was how I'm going to make friends because am shy.	The first thing that was on my mind was how <u>I was</u> going to make friends because <u>I am a shy person</u> .	√√√		√
148		I was able to focus on my studies in first semester.	I was able to focus on <u>my studies</u> <u>during the</u> first semester.	√		
149		You do things that you never thought you will do them.	You do things that you never thought you will do.		√	
150		School work it too much, same kids get depression like myself.	School work <u>is</u> too much, <u>some students</u> <u>get depression.</u> <u>like me</u>			√ √ √
151		Make sure that you make right desions about your life.	Make sure that you make right <u>decisions</u> about your life.			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
152	S30	University has many different things that grab the attention of students.	<u>A</u> university has many different things that grab the <u>attention</u> of students.	√		√
153		You can dance and drink the hole night.	You can dance and drink <u>for</u> the <u>whole</u> night.	√		√
154		There is no parents who can guide you by telling you about going out or not.	There <u>are</u> no parents who can guide you by telling you <u>whether to go</u> out or not.		√	√
155		You don't even ask permission to anyone else.	You don't even ask <u>for</u> permission <u>from</u> anyone else.	√		√
156		You have also have an opportunity to change course if you want compared to high school where you don't change.	You <u>are also allowed to change</u> courses <u>if you so wish unlike at</u> high school.	√		
157		You choose what your heart desire.	You choose what your heart <u>desires</u> .	√		
158		You choose whether you want to right a tests or not.	You choose whether you want to <u>write a test</u> or not.	√	√√	√
159		There is no pricipal who can tell you that this hairstyle is prohibited at school.	There is no <u>principal</u> who can tell you that this hairstyle is prohibited at school.			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
160		University is place of peace.	University is <u>a</u> place of peace.	√		
161		Avoid wasting your time to things that are not nessesary.	Avoid wasting your time <u>on</u> things that are not <u>necessary</u> .			√√
162	S31	University is a place where students goes to after obtaining grade 12.	University is a place where <u>students go</u> after <u>passing</u> grade 12.		√√	√
163		The purpose of going to university it to accomplish you dreams or goal.	The purpose of going to <u>a</u> university it to accomplish <u>your</u> dreams or <u>goals</u> .	√		√
164		You have to meet new lectures, make new friends and get used to the place.	You () meet new <u>lecturers</u> , make new friends and get used to the place.		√	√
165		Some students are here for education where as others are here to entertein themselves and others.	Some students are here for education <u>whereas</u> others are here to <u>entertain</u> themselves and others.			√√
166		University life is difficult espeacly if you are from a poor background.	University life is difficult <u>especially</u> if you are from a poor background.			√
		There is no teachers or principal who will tell you to come to class each and everyday.	There <u>are</u> no teachers or principal who will tell you to come to class <u>every day</u> .			√√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
167		At university, lectures don't care about you.	At university, <u>lecturers</u> don't care about you.			√
168	S32	There are different opinions/ thinkings from people about univesity life.	There are different opinions/ <u>views</u> about <u>university</u> life.		√√	√√
169		Some can say univesity is tough because there is a lot of peer pressure.	Some say <u>university</u> is tough because there is a lot of peer pressure.		√	√
170		But some says it is easy to maintain life in a <u>univesity</u> .	But some say it is easy to maintain life in a <u>university</u> .		√	√
171		In most univesities there is a lot of peer pressure, so for one to overcome such challenges need to be smart.	In most <u>universities</u> , there is a lot of peer pressure, so for one to overcome such challenges, <u>one needs</u> to be smart.	√ √		√
172		Univesity life is intresting because there are a lot of entertainments.	<u>University</u> life is <u>interesting</u> because <u>of a wide variety of entertainment</u> .		√	√√√
173	S33	We had a break-in and most of my gagets were stolen.	We had a break-in and most of my <u>gadgets</u> were stolen.		√	
	S34	Here at university we as students we come from different places and we have different lifestyle.	<u>As university students</u> , we come from different places and have different lifestyles.	√√	√	

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
174		A student will have to be responsible for all actions he/she take.	A student has to be responsible for all the actions <u>that</u> he/she <u>takes</u> .	√ √ √		
175		A student must be a responsible as there are many negative things that can destroy life in varsity.	A student must be () responsible as there are many <u>negative</u> things that can destroy <u>one's</u> life <u>at</u> varsity.	√ √		√ √ √
176		By meeting new people you'be getting to know more about differe cultures and other people ways of live.	By meeting new people <u>you'll be</u> getting to know more about <u>different</u> cultures and other <u>people's</u> ways of <u>life</u> .	√√		√√√
177		I think that varsity help a person to get on in life.	I think that varsity <u>helps</u> a person to get on in life.	√		
178	S35	University life its very interesting.	University life <u>is</u> very interesting.			√
179		University life its very different from high school life because the is no comporal punishment.	University life <u>is</u> very different from high school life because <u>there</u> is no <u>corporal</u> punishment.			√ √ √
180		Some parent can be very strict at their children.	Some <u>parents</u> can be very strict <u>to</u> their children.	√		√
181		When it comes to the issue of accademics not every one is geting what they are here for because many are still use to comporal punishment.	When it comes to <u>academic issues</u> , not <u>everyone</u> is <u>getting</u> what they are here for because many are still <u>used</u> to <u>corporal</u> punishment.	√ √		√ √ √

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
182		If they are not punishe or followed they end up dodging classes, miss tests, the don't submit their assignment in time so it leads them to failing at the end.	If they are not <u>punished</u> or <u>followed-up</u> , they end up dodging classes, <u>missing</u> tests, <u>not submitting</u> their <u>assignments</u> in time, so it leads them to failing at the end.	√√√√√		√
183		When they were at home their parent use to give them porket money every day.	When they were at home, their <u>parents</u> used to give them <u>pocket</u> money every day.	√		√
184		In short, university life it very good, it just needs somebody who is able to discipline him/herself.	In short, university life <u>is</u> very good, it just needs one to discipline <u>oneself</u> .			√√
185	S36	When students went to university they immediatly change their behaviour depending on the type of people they met.	When students <u>go</u> to university they immediatly change their behaviour depending on the type of people they <u>meet</u> .			√√
186		Students when they reach university stage they start to use alcohol and drugs because of peer pressure.	<u>When students reach university stage</u> , they start to <u>abuse</u> alcohol and drugs because of peer pressure.		√√	
187		In university one have to be sober minded because you have to qualify for exams.	<u>At</u> university, one <u>needs</u> to be sober minded because <u>one needs</u> to qualify for exams.			√√√√
188	S37	Many student got scared to live away.	<u>Many students</u> get scared <u>when they have</u> to live away <u>from home for the first time</u> .	√		√√
189		Some student are worried due to transaction from school to college.	<u>Some students</u> are worried <u>because of the transition</u> from school to college.	√		√√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
190		When you in varsity, you have to control yourself.	When you <u>are</u> in varsity, you have to control yourself.	√		
191		Being in varsity it is kinda a relief, not told what to do.	Being in varsity <u>is a relief, when you</u> are not told what to do.	√√	√	
192	S38	Not all people enters the gate of the university but the serious, capable, hardworking and intelligent ones does.	Not all <u>prospective students are admitted at</u> university, but only the serious, capable, hardworking and intelligent ones <u>are</u> .			√√
193		Many people gets too much freedom as their parents are not around.	Many people <u>get</u> too much freedom as their parents are not around.		√	
194		Some of us we don't study, but we expect to pass.	Some of us () don't study, but () expect to pass.		√√	
195		Many of us we want soft life.	Many of us () want soft life.		√	
196	S39	As a student you don't even know how to impress a lecture with your writing because nothing is ever good enough and they would comment on your script with a red pen.	As a student, you don't even know how to impress a <u>lecturer</u> with your <u>writing</u> because nothing is ever good enough and they would comment on your script with a red pen.			√√
197		Some lectures need to boost our confidence.	Some <u>lecturers</u> need to boost our confidence.			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
198		Making friends is one of the difficulties I came across in varsity.	Making friends is one of the difficulties I came across in <u>varsity</u> .			√
199	S40	The advantages of university life is:	The advantages of university life <u>are</u> :			√
200		At the university you have to choose friends wisely.	At () university, you have to choose friends wisely.		√	
201	S41	University life affect students in different ways.	University life <u>affects</u> students in different ways.	√		
202		It allows you to buy your own clothes and be on the same level of other students.	It allows you to buy your own clothes and be on the same level <u>as</u> other students.			√
203		When you become a drunkard at university chance of you to be affected by STD's is very high.	<u>If you become a drunkard, your chances of contracting STD's become high.</u>			√√
204		University life become normal when you do whatever make you happy.	<u>University</u> life <u>becomes</u> normal when you do whatever <u>makes</u> you happy.	√√		√
205		Student must have time to enjoy and time to read books.	<u>Students</u> must have <u>leisure time</u> and <u>study time</u> .	√		√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
206	S42	There is no pressure coming from parents telling us what to do and what to do not do.	There is no pressure from () parents () on what to do and <u>not to do</u> .		√√√	
207		We even get money coming from our sponsors every month for food allowance.	We <u>receive monthly allowance for food</u> from our sponsors.			√√
208		Life in university is simple but even though it is simple it want a student who is wise because if you are not wise you can end up getting involve in many bad things.	<u>Even though university life is simple</u> , it <u>requires</u> a student who is wise <u>enough to refrain from getting involved</u> in many bad things.	√√	√√	√
209		University life teach us a student on how to be independent.	University life <u>teaches us as</u> student to be independent.	√		√
210	S43	This where a person start a new life.	This <u>is</u> where a person start a new life.	√ √		
211		Being a university student is hard, especially when you are an a first year student because there is no one who will support you.	Being a university student is hard, especially when you are () a first year student because there is no one who will support you.		√	√
212		You might get friends or peers who influences you to do bad things such as partying, bunking school....	You might get friends or peers who <u>may influence</u> you to do bad things as partying, bunking school....	√	√	
213		A person must be or become a hard work.....	A person must be or become a <u>hard worker</u>			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
214		If you are not an a hard worker you will fail.	If you are not () a hard worker you will fail.		√	
215		Being an university student sometimes it is good.	Being a university student is <u>sometimes good</u> .	√		√
216		At university you spent more time with peers and only see parents during holidays.	At university, you <u>spend</u> more time with peers and only see <u>your</u> parents during holidays.	√ √		√
217		Also at university there's political parties which lead students.	Also, at university <u>there are</u> political parties which lead students.		√	
218	S44	We are shy and scared to interect with other people from different background, culture, norms, experiences and personality.	We are shy and scared to <u>interact</u> with other people from different <u>backgrounds, cultures,</u> norms, experiences and <u>personalities</u> .	√ √ √	√	
219		Becoming friends with students from different provinces allow us to understand and accept one another.	Becoming friends with students from different provinces <u>allows</u> us to understand and accept one another.	√		
220		When my friend try to influence me to do something I don't believe in or comfortable with, am smart enough to say no.	When my friend <u>tries</u> to influence me to do something <u>that</u> I don't believe in or <u>not comfortable</u> with, <u>I</u> am smart enough to say no.	√ √ √ √		√
221		The lectures are like our parents in this place.	The <u>lecturers</u> are like our parents in this place.			√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
222	S45	This life of university is the most hardest life I've ever experienced.	<u>University life</u> is the () hardest life I've ever experienced.		√	√
223		I was expecting wasn't the life I got.	I <u>wasn't</u> expecting the life I got.		√	
224	S46	Many people think its easy living the university life.	Many people think <u>it's easy to live</u> the university life.	√		
225		If you dont watch out you might just end up finding yourself doing a 3 year degree in five years.	If you <u>don't</u> watch out, you might just end up finding yourself doing a 3-year degree in five years.	√ √		
226		... not just that its tough...	... not just that <u>it's</u> tough...	√		
227		Remember you have no one guiding you here its only you and you have to think of...	Remember you have no one guiding you here <u>its</u> only you and you have to think of...			
228	S47	University life requires fighters and conquers.	University life requires fighters and <u>conquerors</u> .		√	√
229		You just have to be self-displined and determined in order to make it.	You just have to be <u>self-disciplined</u> and determined () to make it.		√	√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
230	S48	It is different in many way.	It is different in many <u>ways</u> .	√		
		As a first-year student, my life have changed in many ways like how I intereact with people.	As a first-year student, my life changed in many ways like how I <u>interact</u> with people.			√
231		There is a lot of different people from many different cultures.	There <u>are</u> <u>many</u> different people from () different cultures.	√	√	√
232		My university life has taught me how to live with different people.	() University life has taught me how to live with different people.		√	
233	S49	I've realize the most of the students here are busy with whatever they want to do.	I've <u>realized</u> <u>that</u> () most of the students here are busy with whatever they want to do.	√	√	
234		I'm the one who decides whether to carry on studying or to spend the rest of my day relaxing.	I'm the one who <u>decide</u> whether to carry on studying or <u>spending</u> the rest of my day relaxing.	√		
235		We all need friends and families to support us during tough time.	We all need friends and families to support us during tough <u>times</u> .	√		
236	S50	At university we come across with different life.	At university, we come across () different <u>lifestyles</u> .	√	√	√

No.	Code	Erroneous clause	Reconstructed version	Type of error		
				Omission	Addition	Misformation
237		Some days we use online classes and some of us they don't have good phones and enough data to attend the classes.	<u>On</u> some days, we <u>attend</u> online classes and some of us () <u>do not</u> have good phones and enough data to attend the classes.		√ √	√
238		When the lecturer take a register he /she take the names of students who log.	When the lecturer <u>takes the</u> register, he /she <u>takes only</u> the names of students who <u>have logged in</u> .	√ √		√ √
239		The issue of attending and writing online give us problems.	The issue of attending <u>online classes</u> and writing online tests <u>gives us</u> problems.	√ √ √		
240		Some lecturers are very strict to us.	Some lecturers are very strict <u>on</u> us.			√

Appendix B: Home language of the participants

Case Summaries^a

	Case Number	Gender	Age	Home Language
1	1	Male	19	Sepedi
2	2	Male	19	isiNdebele
3	3	Male	19	isiNdebele
4	4	Male	20	Tshivenda
5	5	Male	20	Tshivenda
6	6	Male	20	Xitsonga
7	7	Male	20	Xitsonga
8	8	Male	20	Sepedi
9	9	Male	20	isiZulu
10	10	Male	20	isiZulu
11	11	Male	21	Tshivenda
12	12	Male	21	Xitsonga
13	13	Male	21	Xitsonga
14	14	Male	21	Sepedi
15	15	Male	21	siSwati
16	16	Male	21	siSwati
17	17	Male	21	isiZulu
18	18	Male	22	Sepedi
19	19	Male	22	Sepedi
20	20	Male	23	Tshivenda
21	21	Male	23	Sepedi
22	22	Male	24	Tshivenda
23	23	Female	18	Tshivenda
24	24	Female	18	Xitsonga
25	25	Female	18	Sepedi
26	26	Female	18	siSwati
27	27	Female	19	Tshivenda
28	28	Female	19	Tshivenda
29	29	Female	19	Tshivenda
30	30	Female	19	Sepedi
31	31	Female	19	Sepedi

32		32	Female	19	isiNdebele
33		33	Female	20	Tshivenda
34		34	Female	20	Tshivenda
35		35	Female	20	Tshivenda
36		36	Female	20	Tshivenda
37		37	Female	20	Xitsonga
38		38	Female	20	Sepedi
39		39	Female	20	Sepedi
40		40	Female	20	Sepedi
41		41	Female	20	Sepedi
42		42	Female	20	Siswati
43		43	Female	21	Tshivenda
44		44	Female	21	Tshivenda
45		45	Female	21	Sepedi
46		46	Female	21	Sepedi
47		47	Female	21	Sepedi
48		48	Female	21	isiNdebele
49		49	Female	21	SiSwati
50		50	Female	26	Xitsonga
Total	N		50	50	50

a. Limited to first 100 cases.

Appendix C: Consent Letter

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

UNIVEN Informed Consent

Appendix B

LETTER OF INFORMATION

Title of the Research Study:

Aspects of Written English Language Errors Made by Level-One Students in a South African University

Principal Investigator/s/ researcher:

Demana Ndishunwani Vincent, Master's in English Language Teaching

Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s:

Prof E.K Klu, PhD; Dr MJ Maluleke, PhD; Dr PK Kaburise PhD

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:

The aim of the study is to analyse the English structural errors in a corpus of essays written by level-one students at a South African University to help improve the academic literacy levels of the students in question.

Outline of the Procedures :

The study participants will be given an essay writing task of at least one page on the following topic: 'University life'. They will be given forty minutes to complete the task in a lecture hall to ensure that the data is highly authentic as they will be writing in a controlled environment with limited time. Moreover, the participants will not be allowed to refer to a dictionary or any other source during writing process. Afterwards, the essays will be collected to fulfill the data analysis process.

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant:

There will be no risks or discomfort to the participants as they will be required to write an essay on a given topic.

Benefits:

The benefit may be indirect in that the research findings may enable the researcher to come up with remedial strategies to curtail the current situation of students' Academic language from deteriorating into a patois.

Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study:

Participants reserve unconditional or absolute right of withdrawal at any time and without giving any reason. Thus, at any time in the conduct of a research project, if a participant decides for any reason that she/he would like to stop participation, decision will be respected. Stopping their participation will not prejudice their receiving service in any context. In case of any possible withdrawal that may lead the participant's health at risk, the researcher may provide detailed information to ensure full understanding of the consequences of this decision. The researcher then takes the necessary steps to get further assistance for the participant wishing to leave the study.

Remuneration:

There is no benefit to be accrued by the participant in the form of money or materials.

Costs of the Study:

There are no costs that the participants are expected to cover as a result of their participation in the study.

Confidentiality:

The records of participants in this study will be marked using symbols or numbers for anonymity and be placed under lock and key so that data will not be linked to the participant's name and illegitimate people. Identity will not be revealed when the study is reported or published.

Research-related Injury:

No injury is anticipated as the research participants will be given only forty minutes to complete the written task in a lecture hall.

Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

(Supervisor and details) Please contact the student researcher Demana NV on (073 991 2237), my supervisor Prof EK Klu on (072 495 4664) or the University Research Ethics Committee Secretariat on 015 962 9058. Complaints can be reported to the Director: Research and Innovation, Prof GE Ekosse on 015 962 8313 or Georges Ivo.Ekosse@univen.ac.za

General:

Potential participants must be assured that participation is voluntary and the approximate number of participants to be included should be disclosed. A copy of the information letter should be issued to participants. The information letter and consent form must be translated and provided in the primary spoken language of the research population

CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, (*Demana Ndishunwani Vincent*), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: __,
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (*Participant Letter of Information*) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerized system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant Date Time Signature

I,
.....

(Demana Ndishunwani Vincent) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Full Name of Researcher



Demana N Vincent 07/09/2021

..... Date..... Signature.....

Full Name of Witness (If applicable)

..... Date Signature.....

Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable)

..... Date..... Signature.....

Appendix D: Ethical Clearance Certificate

ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

NAME OF RESEARCHER/INVESTIGATOR:
Mr V Demana

STUDENT NO:
9424056

PROJECT TITLE: **Aspects of Written English Language Errors Made by Level-One Students in a South African University.**

ETHICAL CLEARANCE NO: **FSHSS/21/EML/01/1215**

SUPERVISORS/ CO-RESEARCHERS/ CO-INVESTIGATORS

NAME	INSTITUTION & DEPARTMENT	ROLE
Prof EK Klu	University of Venda	Supervisor
Dr MJ Mialuleke	University of Venda	Co - Supervisor
Dr F Kobufse	University of Venda	Co - Supervisor
Mr V Demana	University of Venda	Investigator - Student

Type: **Doctoral Research**
Risk: **Straightforward research without ethical problems (Category 1)**
Approval Period: **December 2021 – December 2024**

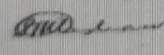
The Research Ethics Social Sciences Committee (RESSC) hereby approves your project as indicated above.

General Conditions
While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principal investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the REC:
 - Annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project; and upon completion of the project.
 - Within 48hrs in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
 - Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the REC. Would there be deviation from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date; a new application must be made to the REC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility, the REC retains the right to:
 - Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
 - To ask further questions; Seek additional information; Require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - Withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - Any unethical principles or provisions of the project are revealed or suspected.
 - It becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the REC or that information has been false or misrepresented.
 - The required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately.
 - New institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

ISSUED BY:
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA, RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
Date Considered: **November 2021**

Name of the RESSC Chairperson of the Committee: **Prof Takalani Mashau**

Signature: 

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR
RESEARCH AND INNOVATION
2021 -12- 15
Private Bag X5050
Thohoyandou 0950

UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
Private Bag X5050, Thohoyandou, Limpopo, South Africa
Tel: +27 15 126 1000 or +27 15 126 1001 Fax: +27 15 126 1002
"A quality of life journey to excellence, with shared responsibility"