

A STUDY OF THE WRITTEN ENGLISH
OF SOME EGYPTIAN STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSITY
OF ALEXANDRIA WITH SUGGESTIONS FOR
IMPROVEMENT IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

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A B S T R A C T

The main purpose behind this study is to provide information that can be utilised in the improvement of the teaching of English to university students in Egypt, especially to those specialising in English in the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education. Written data was collected from approximately 10% of the total number of entrants to all the faculties in the University of Alexandria in October 1974. Further data was collected in October 1975 and October 1976 from the same two groups of students specialising in English in the Faculties of Arts and of Education, in an attempt at a developmental study alongside the afore-mentioned cross-sectional one.

The aim of the cross-sectional study is to pinpoint areas of difficulty found in the written language of the university entrant. An attempt is made at finding out if these areas are the same or different in the language of the non-specialist and the specialist in Stage I of the developmental study. This gives an indication as to the state of the language of the university entrant in general, and whether students who are accepted for specialisation in English are better equipped to do so than the non-specialists. The developmental study will point to errors which tend to persist in the specialist's English at different stages of language acquisition. If errors persist after three years of university English, these will present difficulties for the non-specialist as well. It is hoped that the results of the developmental study will enable teachers and textbook writers to know what to expect, and thus make a better selection and gradation of teaching material at each level, as well as to adjust existing teaching methods to suit the particular nature of the problem areas.

The data is analysed for grammatical and lexical deviations from Standard British English. Typical errors are isolated, classified, described and explained. A frequency count is compiled from the figures of the various errors. The basic assumption is that after investigating the causes of the problem encountered by these students, this can give an indication as to the learning problems of Egyptian foreign language learners, the learning processes they employ, and the assumptions they make as regards various English constructions. On this basis suggestions are made toward a better teaching method. The method used for the analysis is that of Error Analysis, with Contrastive Analysis used at the explanatory stage when necessary. Since these students hardly reach a stage of complete free writing at the end of their secondary school, we have limited ourselves to the level of the sentence and its parts. Only in the last stage of the developmental study a note on organisation and style was found necessary. We are here concerned with written language only and the phonological level has been excluded.

As in the case of linguistic investigations in general, this study is limited by the fact that it uses a corpus and only one kind of test, that of free production. The outcome of the analysis is proportionate to the amount of information we have about the learners. It is hoped that a sufficiently large number and variety of errors are included, to provide material for a qualitative analysis.

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C H A P T E R I

External Factors Affecting the Teaching and Learning
of English as a Foreign Language in Egypt

In any foreign language learning situation there are two very broad factors which account for the rate of success or failure at which a target language is learned. These are a) non-linguistic factors and b) linguistic factors. As regards linguistic factors many scholars ⁽¹⁾ have established for example, how a learner's native language affects his learning of a target language and how the characteristics of the target language can make it easier or more difficult for a learner to master that language. This however is the subject of the main bulk of this study and details follow in later chapters.

Non-linguistic factors are important because they provide information as to how learners are taught the target language, what textbooks are used, the nature of their mother-tongue, and several other variables that are important in a study of the kind we are about to undertake. Most important, these factors show the cause of the problem that is about to be tackled. To help put this study in its proper perspective this chapter will deal with external non-linguistic factors that point the way to the existence of the language problem found in Egypt where English is concerned.

Catford (1964) ⁽²⁾ lists the highly variable external non-linguistic factors accurately:

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- (1) Fries (1945), Lado (1964), Rivers (1964), Strevens (1965), only to mention a few
- (2) Catford, J.C. "The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language", in Quirk, R., & Smith, A.D. (eds). The Teaching of English, O.U.P., 1964, pp. 141-142

- "a) the geographical situation, political affiliations, and economic conditions of the country where the teaching is carried on.
- b) the internal linguistic situation in that country (for example is there one or more than one national language ? Is the national language a 'world language' or a purely local one ? Is there a large number of regional or minority languages ? What uses are made of the particular L₂ we are interested in ?)
- c) the student's age, intelligence, educational and cultural background, motivation, etc.
- d) the teachers' training, experience, cultural background etc.
- e) characteristics of L₂
- f) characteristics of L₁ and especially differences between L₁ and L₂. "

This part will deal with Catford's first four points. After defining the existing problem to be investigated, Chapter II will deal with the scope of the study, the theoretical considerations and the approach taken, and the description of the data.

The Linguistic Situation

Arabic is the national and official language in Egypt. It exists everywhere in the Arab world in two different forms or varieties, 'classical' and 'colloquial' or the "High form" and the "Low form". Before we proceed any further a word about the terms 'classical', 'standard' and 'colloquial' is necessary, because, where two varieties of a language exist side by side throughout a community, each has a definite role to play. It is a situation of Diglossia. Arabic diglossia seems to reach as far back as our knowledge of Arabic goes.⁽¹⁾ Arabic has a

(1) See Ferguson, C.A. "Diglossia", Word, Vol 15, 1964 pp. 325-340

name for both the 'high' and the 'low' forms 'al-fuSHa' and 'il-'a:mmiya' respectively. Proper classical Arabic is the language of the Qurʾān and of Pre-Islamic poetry. It has a large and rich vocabulary and compact concise syntactical structures. This variety will not be dealt with as it is not used except by the few scholars and 'ulama' of Al-Azhar.

Sharply contrasted with the 'low forms' or the many varieties used throughout the Arabic speaking world is a variety of language used as the normal vehicle for all written communication. Many labels have been used for this variety such as 'classical Arabic',⁽¹⁾ 'literary Arabic', and 'written Arabic'. But none of these labels is entirely satisfactory. It has been called 'classical', though some of its manifestations are difficult to fit into any normal acceptance of that term;⁽²⁾ 'literary' is inappropriate because again many of its manifestations such as newspaper advertisement for instance, have nothing to do with literature. 'Written' is out of place because it is frequently used as a medium for spoken communication, as in formal speeches and in radio broadcasts aimed at the whole Arab world. Therefore in default of a more satisfactory term we shall call this variety Standard Arabic or S.A. throughout this study, though even this leads to difficulty when one looks at the language historically and not solely in the light of current circumstances.

The 'low form' or colloquial variety differs from area to area in the Arab world. In this study, by the term 'colloquial' we mean the localised Egyptian variety employed in the speech of everyday life i.e. only one of the many spoken Arabic varieties used in the Arab bloc. The colloquial varieties have been termed 'Arabic dialects'. They form a continuous spectrum of variation, from Morocco to Iraq, within which one variety

(1) This is used by Ferguson in his afore-mentioned article.

(2) Ferguson gives a detailed account in his article 'Diglossia' pp. 332-336

shades off almost imperceptibly into the adjoining one. One can generally say that almost all of these dialects are mutually intelligible.

Classical Arabic is the heritage of all the Arab world. Standard Arabic⁽¹⁾ is uniform throughout all the Arabic speaking countries. The colloquial varieties are commonly looked upon as "very difficult" for foreigners, and Standard Arabic as "very difficult" for foreigners and native speakers alike.

Arabic is the medium of instruction at all levels and stages in state schools. The difference between standard and colloquial Arabic adds to the difficulties of education where language learning is concerned. In learning to read and write Standard Arabic, an Egyptian pupil must learn not only a complex set of visual and motor skills, but also new lexical items and different syntactical structures as the colloquial tends to eliminate such Standard Arabic features as the use of inflectional endings on nouns and verbs. Accuracy in written Standard Arabic takes an effort to achieve.

'Domains of Language Distribution'⁽²⁾

One of the most important features of diglossia is the specialisation of function for each of the two varieties of the same language. In one set of situations only Standard Arabic is appropriate and in another only the colloquial, with the two sets overlapping only very slightly. The importance

(1) There is a kind of spoken Standard Arabic much used in certain cross dialectical situations which has a highly classical vocabulary with few or no inflectional endings, with certain features of classical syntax but with a fundamentally colloquial base in morphology and syntax, and a generous mixture of colloquial vocabulary.

(2) The expression is taken from Fishman, J.A., 'Bilingualism (with and without Diglossia), Diglossia (with and without Bilingualism)', Journal of Social Issues, Vol 23, Nr. 2. 1967, pp. 29-38

of using the right variety in the right situation can hardly be over-estimated. An outsider who is fluent in the colloquial variety and uses it in a formal speech is an object of ridicule. A native speaker of Arabic who uses the Standard Arabic variety in a conversational situation or in an informal activity such as shopping, is equally an object of ridicule.

Standard Arabic

The chief use of Standard Arabic is for writing of all sorts; books, pedagogical materials, periodicals, administration, street signs, train tickets, official records, film sub-titles etc. Newspaper editorials, news stories and captions on pictures are also in S.A. as well as most personal letters. Poetry almost always uses Standard Arabic. The circumstances in which Standard Arabic is spoken are limited. Its widest use is in radio and television broadcasts and formal public speeches. The Egyptian Parliament and mosque sermons are conducted in Standard Arabic. Some university lectures are conducted in Standard Arabic but the situation in formal education is complicated. While lectures are given in Standard Arabic, drills, explanation, and section meetings may be in large part conducted in the colloquial variety especially in the natural sciences as opposed to the humanities.

Colloquial Arabic

Colloquial Arabic is the exclusive language of conversation with family, friends, colleagues etc. Instructions to waiters, workmen, clerks, are in colloquial. In any situation no matter how formal, when people actively communicate with one another, this colloquial variety is used. Adults invariably use

colloquial in speaking to children and children use it in speaking to one another. As a result, the colloquial is invariably learned by children in what may be regarded as the normal way of learning one's mother tongue. Standard Arabic is heard by children on the radio and T.V. but the actual learning of Standard Arabic is accomplished by the means of formal education. This difference in method of acquisition is very important, for the speaker is at home in colloquial to a degree he almost never achieves in Standard Arabic.

The circumstances in which colloquial instead of Standard Arabic is written are few. One use of written colloquial is for humour, political cartoon captions and printed jokes. Radio and T.V. "soap operas" are also written in colloquial. A fair amount of colloquial poetry appears in newspapers and periodicals, but these are too occasional to be interpreted as a general trend. Folk literature is written in colloquial and appreciated for what it is.

Prestige

Arabic speakers regard Standard Arabic as superior to the colloquial. If they say that 'so and so' doesn't know Arabic, this normally means he doesn't know Standard Arabic although he may be a fluent speaker of the colloquial. Arabs declare that it would be good if the colloquial should cease to exist and that Standard Arabic be used for both speaking and writing. But no serious effort is being made anywhere to realise this ideal and parents continue to speak colloquial to their children. The prestige accorded Standard and classical Arabic is in part due to its religious significance. It is the language of the Qur'a:n and as such is widely believed to constitute the actual words of God. It therefore represents

an a priori standard of perfection and any deviation from it can only be for the worse. One must not forget the sizeable body of literature in classical and Standard Arabic which is very old and is held in high esteem by the speech community. Contemporary literary products in Standard Arabic are felt to be part of this already existing literature.

On the other hand, colloquial Arabic is looked upon not as a separate entity but as a corruption of Standard Arabic. It is "incorrect" and "has no rules". This is a misconception, for colloquial Arabic has definite grammatical patterns as any language. The Egyptian never studies his native colloquial speech, and in studying Standard Arabic he observes that the colloquial contradicts many of the 'rules'. These deviations are stigmatised as errors and not as a difference of structure in two different varieties of speech.

Both Standard and colloquial Arabic have to be considered when the analysis of the written English of students is undertaken in this study. Errors could be due to any one, or both varieties, especially where language transfer and mother-tongue interference is concerned.

The Role of English in Egyptian Society

English is undoubtedly the main foreign language taught and used in Egypt today. But it is not used as a medium of communication among the general public. Where tourists and foreign experts are to be found it is commonly employed. It may normally be heard in airports, the hotels, the railway stations in Cairo and Alexandria, the sporting clubs and the cinemas. The commercial cinema presents a majority of films in English with Arabic and French sub-titles. American and

British programmes are shown daily on T.V. Cairo Radio's daily European Service puts out five hours a day in English. Because few visitors to Egypt have mastered colloquial Arabic, Egyptians are somewhat conditioned to speak foreign languages and they do so with some facility. Most Egyptians who have received secondary education can make themselves understood in either English or French. In the spheres of international trade, English is the major foreign language. The letter-heads of Egyptian business firms tend to be printed in Arabic and English, and so are notices to the public on main roads. In the technological world of electronics, computers and telecommunications, there is an increasing number of Egyptian staff with a good grasp of technical English; they are able to read and work in the language but find difficulty in using it for everyday affairs.

The Need for English

The functional and cultural utility of the English language cannot be under-valued in any country aiming at development and progress; the use of the English language as a means of communication between individuals, between communities and, indeed, between nations is of the greatest importance in considering the field of human relations. The ability to use English efficiently is an asset in every walk of life. Industrialists, technologists and scientists are increasingly aware of the value of this asset. A skilled technician who cannot read prospectuses and instructions on machines in English is of little value to any firm.

Egypt is moving towards universal education instead of education for a small middle class elite which was fluent in English. The Egyptian Minister of Education stated⁽¹⁾ that the

(1) Conference of Inspectors and Senior Masters of English, U.A.R. Ministry of Education, Cairo, 3-5 March 1970
(In Arabic)

vital role English plays in the country's five year development plans, affects the economical, social and educational state of the nation. He stressed the use of the experience of other countries in the field of foreign language teaching in order to raise the standard of English in Egypt.

The study of English has never been undervalued in Egyptian school curricula and comes only second to the study of the national language. For all faculties of Egyptian universities English is considered a prerequisite. At university, English textbooks are used side by side with Arabic ones for both undergraduate and postgraduate courses. In the case of students holding government scholarships to study abroad, there is an unquenchable demand for postgraduate places in universities in English speaking countries.

Although Arabic may be widely used for educational, commercial, diplomatic and religious purposes, it is not a fully international language. The need to assimilate scientific advance and maintain international contacts outside the Arab world leads to widespread recognition of the need for English as a language of wider communication. There are, therefore, obvious advantages for Egypt if its graduates are fluent speakers and readers of English.

General Reasons for the Failure of Attainment of a Good Standard in English

The reasons for the failure to attain a good standard in English at the school level and in the universities are manifold and they arise from:

- A. problems that affect the whole country generally
- B. specific problems to do with the educational system itself
- C. problems of a linguistic nature.

A. 1) Expansion and the Quantity-Quality Problem

Egypt and Egyptian education are in a phase of reform and change at the present time. A great deal of effective work is being done where education is concerned, but the achievements are obscured because of a vast educational expansion programme.⁽¹⁾ Large classes have been a feature of Egyptian education in the last two decades, a natural result of universal free education at all stages, and the awakening of all classes of the population (which has now reached 37 million) to the urgent need for education. The increase in numbers is particularly acute among students at secondary and tertiary levels, and in consequence the educational system is unable to provide adequate English learning programmes. This is a grave setback in a country where many textbooks are in English. Inevitably the strain of numbers began to tell on academic standards and this has brought about a sharp quality-quantity debate.

2) Teacher Shortage

More serious, however, than large classes is the shortage of teachers of English. There are approximately 9,000⁽²⁾ teachers of English at the preparatory and secondary

(1) Binyon, Michael, "Cairo's Intellectual Pre-eminence in the Arab World", T.E.S., 29.10.1971

(2) ETIC ARCHIVES, File 962 - EGYPT

stages. The supply of teachers is very much under strength, particularly in some of the rural zones where only about half the teachers required for English are in post. It is, however, very difficult to make reliable estimates of numbers because of the seconding of large numbers of Egyptian teachers to Libya, Saudi Arabia, the Gulf States and elsewhere. Attempts are being made to persuade large numbers of secondary school leavers of the right type to join Faculties of Education in order to qualify as teachers of English, as, at the moment, Teachers' Colleges graduate a relatively small percentage of the number required each year. The balance is drawn from graduates of English departments in the Faculties of Arts. But in recent years these graduates have been attracted in increasingly large numbers to more lucrative jobs.

3) Unqualified Teachers

The teacher shortage is being temporarily met by teachers of other school subjects who are given a very brief training course. These are mainly employed at the preparatory stage when pupils start English courses and need highly trained qualified teachers. With degrees in such subjects as history, geography or librarianship, they cannot help pupils study English effectively. This has definitely affected the standard of English at school level. Their pupils are a hastily prepared poorly instructed end-product.

4) Political and Historical Reasons

Up till about three decades ago Egypt boasted of the fact that its educated men and women were well conversant with foreign languages, especially English and French. After World War II, the enthusiasm for teaching languages lessened

tremendously and students were allowed to join universities with a very low passing grade. The result was a great drop in standards. Had not the tradition of English as a first foreign language been deeply-rooted, the language would have been done away with after the tripartite invasion and the Suez fiasco in 1956; nationalist feelings were ablaze and attempts were made to replace it by German and Italian, but the shortage of staff qualified to teach those languages helped English to remain the main foreign language to be taught. After the Suez crisis, foreign schools were nationalised, and the English speaking staff was replaced by Egyptian teachers, who, in spite of their being well qualified academically, did not manage to keep the former high standard of English because they lacked training. The university lost great linguistic potential when it lost the expatriate teachers, and it received students from secondary schools with no command of English. A vicious circle resulted. Badly taught students at university became incompetent teachers of preparatory and secondary schools, and in turn they produced a new generation of students for the university, with no command of the language.

Conditions in schools do not help. They are not conducive to language learning, with gross overcrowding and inadequate facilities being the rule rather than the exception. It is manifest that something radical needs to be done to improve the quality of English, which has, if anything, deteriorated over the past decade or so.

B. 1) English Within the Educational System

Since English is the first foreign language taught in Egypt, a brief review of the educational system and the place of English in that system is necessary. It is only through formal education that English is acquired by Egyptians.

English is taught in Egypt mainly in:

- 1 - Government preparatory, secondary and technical schools
- 2 - Private English-medium schools
- 3 - Teacher Training Institutes and Colleges
- 4 - University departments of English and of Education
- 5 - All other faculties of Egyptian universities as a subject on the curriculum at least for the first year if not for more.

2) Administration of Education

The Ministry of Education and Higher Education is the responsible body. The country is divided into zones each under a Director of Education who is responsible for his area and controls a large team of inspectors. Each of the zones has a senior Inspector of English and supporting secondary and preparatory School Inspectors. These zonal inspectors implement the policy of the Ministry with regard to textbooks, preparation of syllabuses etc. The Dean of the English Inspectorate and his advisory committee of Inspectors-General determine the general shape of the teaching of English although they rely on the co-operation of the Under-Secretaries of State in achieving action. One textbook a subject is agreed upon and is distributed from the centre. All schools including fee-paying non-Arabic medium schools follow the state syllabuses. The system is, therefore, highly centralised and little freedom is left to the headmasters or the staff of each school in deciding any of the major issues. This is particularly so where the setting and marking of public examinations are concerned.

3) English at School Level
Primary

State education is free at all stages and compulsory at the primary level. This is a six year stage starting when pupils are six years of age. English is not taught at primary level. It is estimated that 30% of children who complete the Primary School Certificate stage do not enter preparatory and secondary schools.⁽¹⁾

Secondary

Secondary education is divided into two phases.

a - Preparatory

This is a three year course when pupils are approximately twelve years old. It culminates in the General Preparatory School Leaving Certificate. English is introduced as a first or second foreign language in the first grade of the Preparatory level. The two foreign languages most commonly taught are English and French. Most parents and pupils choose English as the first foreign language. There are five periods of English a week at the preparatory stage which amount to about three hours of effective teaching.⁽²⁾ Pupils who fail to qualify for the academic general secondary school join technical secondary schools where English is also taught. The rather late introduction of English at school (12 years) certainly affects the pupils' competence.

b - Secondary

This is a three year course from the age of fifteen. At this stage there are general academic and technical

(1) Education in Egypt, ETIC ARCHIVES, File 962, EGYPT, 1972

(2) English Language Teaching Profile, 1976, ETIC ARCHIVES, File 962 - EGYPT

schools. The general secondary schools provide an academic pre-university course with a common curriculum for all pupils in the first year. There are six periods of English a week in the first year of this stage. In the second year (fifth year of English), classes divide into literary and scientific sections, with seven and six periods a week respectively. In the third year the literary section has seven and the scientific section five periods of English a week. Pupils who take English as a second language have fewer periods. The course culminates in the General School Certificate of Education (Thanawiya 'a:mma) which entitles the holder to apply for admission to any one of the Egyptian universities. A pass in English is a requirement for university entrance for holders of this certificate.

4) Private English Language Schools

English is a medium of instruction at all stages in thirteen former foreign schools which are now administered by the National Institutes of Education, a semi-official cooperative. These schools are fee-paying and continue to be influential, as their pupils include the sons and daughters of Ministers and high ranking officials. In these English-medium schools, an Advanced English paper may be taken in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate. For the successful candidate, this will give a small number of bonus marks in the aggregate total required for university entry. These schools are found in the cities and larger towns. They follow the state curriculum and its official examinations. Subjects dealing with national and religious matters are taught in Arabic but everything else is taught in English. All their students, regardless of their different nationalities, must pass a final

examination in Arabic. At secondary level in these schools students must study English literature in their advanced English course. At all stages they are not promoted unless they sit and pass both the state school syllabus and the advanced English course.

The standards and educational background in English of Egyptian school leavers differs therefore according to the type of school pupils have attended. It ranges from a general fluency in speaking and reading along with a certain mastery of the written language in the English language medium school pupils, to the understanding only of simple texts, the writing of simple sentences and little skill in reading and writing in the state school pupil. This is inevitable, for while the pupil of the foreign language school starts to learn English in the nursery, the state school pupil starts at the age of twelve. In the foreign language school, science, mathematics, biology and other subjects are studied in English while in the state school English is only one subject on the time-table.

A drawback that is shared by both the state school and foreign language school pupil is that extensive reading outside the classroom is practically non-existent. Both types of pupil, although they are encouraged to read in English, find that they have too many subjects to cope with and therefore do very little or no extra-curricular reading. Yet the language medium school pupil is at an advantage because his books are all foreign, in unabridged form, and are written by foreign writers. The state school books are often abridged and sometimes written by Egyptians.

The Aim of Teaching English at Preparatory Level

This is stated by the Ministry as:⁽¹⁾ "to enable the pupils to acquire a reasonable command of the basic structures of the language". The Aural/Oral Approach is recommended. The principles underlying it are:

- 1) Language should be introduced as speech and therefore a study of the sound system is primary.
- 2) As language is habit and skill, repetition is most essential. Effective imitation of a good teacher depends on listening and repetition.
- 3) Units of sound groups are made into larger units according to certain patterns.
- 4) Language should be introduced in meaningful structures. Through pattern practice, newly introduced structures will be consolidated and good habits will be formed.
- 5) Oral reading comes next. Writing should be deferred until reading is tolerably good.
- 6) Only in the third year of the preparatory stage is silent reading, dictation, written exercises, and the writing of simple paragraphs introduced.

The emphasis of the Ministry is on active student participation and the use of multiple examples rather than formal grammatical rules. The four language skills are to be introduced in that order:

- 1) Understanding of structures when they are heard.
- 2) Reproducing and using structures in speech.
- 3) Reading and understanding written English.
- 4) Writing acceptable English.

(1) Revised Syllabuses for Preparatory Schools, UAR Ministry of Education Publication, 1968-1969, (in Arabic)

The Main Aims of Teaching English at Secondary Level

The Ministry's specific aims of teaching English at this level are ⁽¹⁾ to help pupils achieve an increasing mastery of the four language skills. It is expected of a secondary school leaver to be able to express himself satisfactorily in both the spoken and written forms, and to be able to read with understanding - with little or no assistance - the average textbooks or reference books usually assigned for college undergraduates. He must be able to understand the language of native speakers of English with whom he may come into business or personal contact.

On the educational side, the Ministry of Education's methodological priorities are explicit: an audio lingual method is recommended; speech is the primary mode of linguistic expression and oral-aural control should precede reading and writing. However at classroom level, such a policy is often deleted or by-passed, the teacher stressing reading and writing and relying upon abstract grammatical exposition.

The Syllabus and Textbooks at Preparatory Level

At the preparatory stage standardised books are provided for all state schools by the Ministry of Education. Thus the specially written textbooks 'Living English' Books I, II and III ⁽²⁾ are used in all preparatory schools. They are based on the Aural-Oral approach and compiled by three Egyptians trained in the teaching of English as a foreign language with the help of American trained linguists. There are teachers' notes to

(1) Revised Syllabuses for Secondary Schools, Ministry of Education Publication, Cairo, 1966, (in Arabic)

(2) Abdalla, G., Aboul-Fetouh, H., Gamal, S. (eds) Living English, Books I, II and III General Organisation for Government Printing Offices, Cairo, First printed 1967

supplement the textbooks which include a phonemic transcription of the texts for the guidance of teachers. In the English language medium schools there is a wider freedom of choice of books. Many different textbooks and courses are in use.

Appendix I includes a list of books recommended for use in state schools and in foreign language medium schools in Egypt as well as a wide list of class library books.⁽¹⁾ (One certainly notices the difference in syllabus between the state school and the English language medium school at this stage.) It also includes a typical lesson from the Living English Series, Book III.

The Syllabus and Textbooks at the Secondary Stage

The reform introduced into the preparatory schools about nine or ten years ago has gradually been introduced into the secondary schools. The highly revised 'Living English' Series Books IV to VI⁽²⁾ were, up until very lately, still at the experimental stage and were being tried out in a limited number of secondary schools.

The School Radio project for preparatory and secondary schools has led to the production of taped material and teachers' notes which supplement these official textbooks. Appendix II gives a list of the books used in the three years of the secondary stage plus a list of the books of the 'High Level' English course which is followed by the English language medium schools as well as the state syllabus. Changes in some of the readers tend to be made after they have been in use for about three years. On reading this appendix one notices that there is

(1) ETIC Archives, File 9 620X - EGYPT - SYLLABUSES

(2) Helmy, S. & Gamal, S. (eds) Living English, Books IV, V and VI, General Organisation for the Government Printing Offices, Cairo 1970

(In fact, only Book IV was ever used in Secondary Schools. Books V and VI were never used.)

an emphasis on the teaching of English for special purposes in the second and third years of the secondary course where materials are used to assist the Science Section in employing English for science. Almost all the books used belong to the Longmans series. All pupils in state schools can take the 'High Level' examination if they feel they are capable of doing so, but they rarely do.

Problems in the Educational System Affecting English at School Level

1) Teaching Methods

Egyptian students have very good study and work habits but very little initiative. At school they go through a heavy and rigid programme of classroom work but they are not encouraged to think for themselves and make use of their knowledge. Therefore, the teaching method the students are used to is one which tends towards rote memorisation.

"...the problem is rooted in Arabic and Islamic practice in the age of decadence when reliance on memory and learning by rote, adherence to existing texts and respect for authoritative opinion became established at lower or higher levels of education. Once the original Arab oral tradition was superseded by fixed written material, the teacher's function became more of a restrained transmitter and commentator and less of a resourceful adaptor and innovator." (1)

This traditional mode of learning is incompatible with most modern methods of learning instruction which emphasise the development of communication skills and individual learning.

(1) Tibawi, A.L., Islamic Education: Its Traditions and Modernisation into the Arab National Systems, Luzac & Co. Ltd, London, 1972, p. 112

But this method has been accentuated by the examination system.

In the past Egyptian schools were influenced by the British literary tradition. During the 1950's the prescribed reader, generally a simplified text of a great work, was the central point of a teaching programme. Detailed questions were set and the book had to be fully covered both in the linguistic and literary senses. The West method then used laid more stress on reading than speaking the language. Gradually, misapplication of this method was doing damage both to the acquisition of speech and the mastery of language structure. The teaching of basic grammar steadily deteriorated. At this juncture and in the 1960's, the oral-aural approach was adopted because of a belief in the value of this approach to mastery of the oral skill and improvement of the reading and writing skills. In 1970 a shift of emphasis was made towards reading the prescribed reader extensively for the enjoyment of the story. The specially written textbooks, 'Living English' Books I to VI, present dialogues or passages for reading and study, followed by language work. However, a report on the Pilot Project of the Alexandria Language Unit 1966-1970⁽¹⁾ states that:

"...the evidence of the importance of grading and control of material, the enormous motivation value of interest and enjoyment, the necessity of guiding composition, were not utilised by the writers of the 'Living English' Series."

Meanwhile, teaching techniques remained more or less the same. The teachers, many of whom were graduates appointed without any preparation for teaching, had recourse to the traditional 'method' of teaching via reading and explaining to a class which did not take an active part in the learning process. The difficulty of the textbooks was sometimes the pretext for

(1) ETIC Archives, File 962 - EGYPT

much use of Arabic in lessons, with the result that pupils found it difficult to sustain a conversation in English. Nor did they show any worthwhile gain in reading and writing. Incompetent teachers had dismissed grammar almost completely, on the grounds that grammatical terms and definitions are of little practical value; but they gave their pupils no systematic training in functional grammar instead. Teachers were also faced with a very heavily loaded syllabus which they were expected to finish. Besides the fact that a written syllabus discourages initiative and creates a strain between teacher and pupil, the teachers compressed texts into abridged notes and solved problems for their pupils through dictated notes. This spoon-feeding assumes that the only aim of teaching English is to prepare students for examinations.

2) The Examination System

The examination system helps to stifle the incentive to learn any foreign language. In the past the system allowed pupils to pass from grade to grade and from stage to stage without having the minimum pass mark in the foreign language. The result was that pupils tended to accord English less importance. This led to apathy on the part of many pupils, and heterogeneous language classes were an obstacle to progress. But ever since November 1968, the new examination regulations imposed a 40% pass mark on all pupils in preparatory and secondary schools. By the regulations, no pupil is allowed to pass if he fails in any subject in his Secondary Education Certificate Examination.

There is a slowness to revise the examinations and the way they are set. They remain essentially and substantially traditional essay-type papers.⁽¹⁾ They only test the pupil's memory

(1) Appendix III shows a typical examination paper given to Secondary III Literary Section. It is taken out of Basta, F., New Complete Companion, Al Motahida Press, Cairo, 1972, a book written to help students prepare for their examinations

and his knowledge of facts about English, but not his use of the language or his understanding of it. No oral examination is given to secondary school leavers. The change to objective-type questions is taking place but very slowly.

The official report on the results of Public Examinations (1974/1975), December 1975, ⁽¹⁾ shows that an analysis of examination questions made by Under secretaries, the National Centre for Educational Research with the aid of foreign experts, proved that the questions set measured rote memorisation at the expense of critical and scientific thinking, although some of the questions were of the Advanced Level Standard in Britain. In looking at the 'High Level' papers in English and other languages, some students (19 of them), achieved full marks in language - a phenomenon not likely in such a subject. This shows that a serious revision of the questions set and the assessments made is necessary.

Motivation: at the School Level

The over-riding motivation to study English in Egyptian schools is therefore connected with the final examination. This is a general motivation which applies to all subjects. However, the strength of the motivation is not equal in the case of all subjects. Mathematics and the sciences are considered to be important subjects in terms of national development and consequently the final examination marks are weighted in their favour. The pupils' main interest is understandably endeavouring to score high marks in mathematics and science subjects with a view to improving their examination aggregate at the end of the

(1) Report on the Results of Public Examinations for the Academic Year 1974/1975, A.R.E. Ministry of Education, Office of the Minister of Education, December 1975 (in Arabic)

secondary course. Taking a 'High Level' paper in English yields only marginally more marks in the aggregate and does not serve even as an examination-type motivation. The irony in this situation is that English remains the medium of instruction within the university faculties of the different sciences.⁽¹⁾

Admission to the Universities and Motivation

The system of admission to the universities has serious drawbacks where student motivation is concerned. The results of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate are the basis of admission. The applicants fill in their choice of more than one faculty or field of study in order of preference. They are then allotted to the various faculties in order of merit. Special consideration is given to the subjects most related to the faculties of their preference. The highest grades are given priority and the lowest grades are denied admission when the number fixed for acceptance in each faculty is reached. The serious drawback is that this system directs students to faculties of their second or third choice if the faculty of their first choice becomes full of competitors with superior grades. Students therefore join faculties not because they want to, but for want of a better, since some faculties are fairly liberal in their admission policies. Worst of all they join Faculties of Education and are "resigned" to becoming teachers only if their aggregate does not permit them to join other faculties which have more prestige.

There is an obsessive desire in young people of every class of society for higher education. In a country where higher education is free and where almost anyone who wants to earn enough

(1) See Bending, H.B., "Motivation in an Examination Geared System", ELT, Vol. 30, July 1976, pp 315-320

to live on must have a university degree, any study is better than no study at all. Hence students do not leave faculties if they find themselves allotted to them even if they have no interest there. Rather, they look for a department of the faculty which would give them a degree that would enable them to make the most money. English opens up profitable careers in business, tourism, broadcasting, translation, teaching, etc. Therefore, the student of the Faculty of Arts or of Education's first choice is the department of English although his command of the language is poor and he has no knowledge of British culture. He is therefore a mediocre student of language and literature as he has no interest there. Students are merely in quest of a degree, which has now become the passport to economic and social advancement. This is the only motivation to learn and persevere in learning a foreign language whether for its own sake or to teach it.

The Role of English at University Level

English is used as a study language in university departments of medicine, pharmacology, dentistry, engineering and science. In most of these faculties one can say that English is a medium of instruction. The quality of this instructional English becomes increasingly inferior and inevitably includes considerable explanation in Arabic. This is because, although students are expected to have at least a reading knowledge of English when they join university, unsatisfactory schooling makes their language inadequate for study purposes. The tendency towards giving instruction in Arabic at the tertiary level is supported by the belief that the use of the vernacular results in more effective learning.

English textbooks are used side by side with Arabic ones for both undergraduate and postgraduate courses. Within the

last few years Egypt has sponsored translation programmes. Nevertheless there is a serious shortage of suitable textbooks in Arabic with the result that the use of English as a medium of instruction is still widely found at the universities. It is likely that Arabic will gradually become the medium of instruction in all departments, because although eighty per cent of the Egyptian staff are trained in Britain⁽¹⁾ and have a very good colloquial and technical command of English, they are over forty and soon will reach retirement age. The new generation of undergraduates, who will become the next generation of university teachers does not possess such a command of the language.

Standard of Students' English in the Scientific/Technological Faculties: (Non-Specialists)

The poor standard of English of most of these students has caused great concern to top university authorities.⁽²⁾ The students have a fair "passive" knowledge of the language but are unable to communicate orally with ease, comprehend technical passages with precision, take notes, or follow ideas through efficiently, whether in written or spoken form.

Teaching Material

Staff and students are dissatisfied with the teaching material. Attempts are made to cyclostyle suitable material for use by students who use English for studying the sciences, but most of this work tends to be grammatically unsystematic and probably pays too much attention to lists of technical

(1) Binyon, M., "Cairo's Intellectual Pre-Eminence in the Arab World", T.E.S., 29.10.1971

(2) ETIC ARCHIVES - File 962 - EGYPT, "English Improvement Course for Staff and Students of Medicine" - held at Alexandria University, 1973.

vocabulary. At the university stage generally there is a serious shortage of English books. Syllabuses often have to be modified to make use of the books which happen to be on the market during the current academic year. Even if the right material was available special training of teachers of E.S.P. to use this material is necessary.

The Department of English, Faculty of Arts: (Specialists)

English is the sole medium of instruction in the departments of English in the faculties of Arts. There the tradition is heavily literary. Though courses called "Linguistics" and "Phonetics" are undertaken generally in the first and second years of a four year degree course, there is confusion as to whether these are 'improvement' courses or theoretical academic courses. The increasingly large number of Egyptians returning from abroad with degrees in linguistics have been able to bring about some, but little change in the literary requirements for a first degree course in English.

The department of English is concerned with the studying of the English language and its literature as an end in itself. The stress is on the study of literature, and ideally, students who join should have a reasonable command of English beforehand. Since, however, this is not the case, students are given an intensive course in the language in the first two years to enable them to understand the language of literature. Unfortunately what is done does not seem to be sufficient to improve the students' command of the language and their receptive and productive skills. Recently at the University of Alexandria in 1975 the four year course was split after the second year into:

a - a general course for students who wish to obtain a general degree in language and literature

b - an honour's degree course where students can specialise either in Language and Linguistics or in Literature

This, however, seems to be effective only on paper since no students have high enough marks to join either of the honours courses.

What has in effect proved successful is the starting of an M.A. course in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in 1976. Young university teachers have responded and enrolled.

The aim of the English Department of the Faculty of Arts is to extend the students' resources by expanding their experience and developing their imaginative capacity and faculty of critical thinking. The candidates, therefore, must have the ability to understand connotative language, to imagine scenes and events they read about, to sympathise with characters and understand and evaluate their motives. They should be interested in understanding the literary student's role in relation to the practical value of literature (and a foreign literature at that) for different facets of social life and for themselves as individuals. If after graduation they wish to teach, a one year course at the Faculty of Education is available to qualify them to teach English.

The Department of English, Faculty of Education (Specialists)

The department of English in the Faculty of Education is different. It is concerned with educating and training teachers of English for preparatory and secondary schools. Methodology and other pedagogic subjects are taught in Arabic. However, English is most important and throughout the four years of study the students have an intensive English language

course. Unfortunately, the literary tradition continues to be strong in the faculty of Education, although teachers are a group of learners with special needs, and concentration should be on the study of language and the teaching of English as a foreign language. One, however, should realise that their command of English should be good enough to teach English and that they ought to understand the connotative language of literature in order to teach English texts to their pupils. Language-wise the students of this department need a great deal of concentrated effort as they are generally weaker than the students of the Arts Faculty.

Since the candidates accepted in departments of English are to be specialists of English they are chosen from amongst the school leaver population that has studied in the literary section and has had more weekly hours of English in their course. Care is taken that their marks in the Secondary School Leaving Examination in English should not be less than forty-five out of sixty.

The Need for Research

There is no doubt that the factors influencing the teaching and learning of English described can cause numerous deviations in the language of the Egyptian learner. The late introduction of English, the unqualified teachers, the teaching methods, and the sequencing of teaching material in the set books affect the learners' competence. There are in addition the purely human factors. Chomsky⁽¹⁾ and his school in their arguments as to the differences between competence and performance, insist that a learner's performance does not reflect his competence. In any situation the learner is subject to linguistically uncontrollable features such as tiredness, strain (especially under examination conditions), hurry in speaking, embarrassment,

(1) Chomsky, N., (1965), pp. 3-4

and most of all memory limitations. Over and above this, the learner, in his attempt to communicate when he has not yet fully mastered the tools for communication, substitutes his own working rules for the rules of the foreign language and thus creates deviations in his endeavour to get things right. Consequently when the learner leaves the secondary school, the aim of the English programme stated by the Ministry⁽¹⁾ comes nowhere near achievement.

The problem of English language learning and teaching seems to come to a head when school leavers join the universities. The writer of this thesis, herself an assistant-lecturer in the department of English, Faculty of Arts, has had experience of the torment of both the teachers and the students, especially in the first two years at the university. It was, therefore, decided that instead of waiting for a number of years for radical changes to be made at school level, as well as in all other areas that affect the learning and teaching of English, it was better to try and find some way that could enlighten us as to the state of the English language of the school leaver. Then, if areas of difficulty could be pin-pointed, especially those that persist after two years of university training in English, the teachers could know what to expect, find better remedial teaching methods and materials, and thus help students go through their university years with some ease.

(1) Supra p. 24

C H A P T E R I I

PLAN, AIMS AND THE DATA

The problem and its causes having been defined, what remains is what to do about it, and how to go about the investigation. Clearly two things have to be known:

- 1) the state of the school leavers' knowledge of English when they are about to join the university, and
- 2) after university training in English, what areas of difficulty still tend to persist and present problems for the learners.

The study, therefore, has to take two shapes, one cross-sectional and one longitudinal or developmental. The cross-sectional study would deal with a cross-section of the population of entrants to a university, and the developmental would follow up one or two sets of students over a number of years.

The Aim of the Cross-sectional Study

The aim of the cross-sectional study is to examine the English of the entrants to the various faculties and find out what the areas of lexical and syntactical difficulties in their language are. However, pin-pointing areas of difficulty is not enough. It is interesting to:

- 1) pin-point areas of difficulty common to the specialists of English and the non-specialists
- 2) find out if the specialists have less or more areas of difficulty than the non-specialists

- 3) to see if the areas of difficulty are different, the same, or more or less the same in kind in the language of both.

This will give an indication as to the state of the language of the university entrant in general and also whether the students who want to specialise in English have a better command of the language and are better equipped to specialise or not.

The Aim of the Developmental Study

Data collected from different stages of achievement can show what types of errors tend to persist at later stages. This enables teachers to plan more effectively than if they had a list of errors made at one stage of language acquisition.

Scope of this Study

The study is mainly concerned with the lexical and structural deviations from the British Standard of English used by Egyptian students.

To study the learners' errors, a corpus of written language produced by these learners is analysed. In the analysis, typical errors are isolated, classified, and described and their frequency stated. The final stage is the explanation of errors and of the frequencies of different errors. The basic assumption after classification, description, and explanation is that this can give an indication as to the learning problems of the Egyptian foreign language learner, and hopefully, the learning processes he employs. Suggestions will be made for improvement of the teaching of English.

Choice of one University for the Sample

All universities in Egypt are under the supervision of the Higher Council for Universities. This is a representative body of all the universities themselves. Where admission, the granting of degrees and success or failure in subjects are concerned, the Council implements one policy. In order to teach at any one of the universities, the Council sees to it that teachers have a certain standard and particular qualifications. The Council also sets up a committee in each subject to see that all B.A., B.Sc., M.A., M.Sc. and Ph.D. degrees are of the same standard in all universities.

The Council allots students from different schools all over the country to universities according to their aggregate and irrespective of their place of residence. This provides every one of the universities with students from different parts of the country.

To bring the research into manageable proportions concentration will be on the student population of one out of the six universities in Egypt. (Since then, universities in Egypt have increased to eight.) The choice rested on the University of Alexandria for the following reasons:

- 1) As regards student intake Alexandria University is one of the largest in Egypt coming second only to the University of Cairo⁽¹⁾
- 2) It is the second oldest university in Egypt (not counting the one thousand year old Al-Azhar University)

(1) In 1973/74, the following were the numbers of students at the universities:

<u>Cairo University:</u>	64,606	students
<u>Alexandria University:</u>	49,234	"
<u>Ain Shams University:</u>	38,200	"
<u>Assiut University:</u>	13,177	"
<u>Al-Azhar University:</u>	16,852	

(In 1976/77 the number in Alexandria University is 65,049 students)

The Europa Yearbook: The Middle East and North Africa 1973/74, Europa Publications Ltd., 20th Edition, London 1974, and 23rd Edition, London, 1976/77

- 3) Like the University of Cairo, this university has great prestige
- 4) Both Cairo and Alexandria Universities accept students with the higher aggregates in their faculties and departments
- 5) It is a state and not a private university

In the University of Alexandria there are six 'scientific' faculties, namely Engineering, Science, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacology and Agriculture, and four 'literary' faculties, Commerce, Law, Arts and Education. We shall exclude here the various Higher Institutes like the Higher Institute of Nursing and others which belong to the university. Except for the faculty of Agriculture, all students in almost all departments of these faculties study English. In the faculties of Arts and of Education, there are two Departments of English which take in the 'creme de la creme' of the students where English is concerned, and train them to become specialists of English. All other faculties and all other departments of the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education treat their students as non-specialists of English. The specialists mostly come from the 'literary' section of the secondary schools and should have a minimum mark of 45 out of 60 in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination in English.⁽¹⁾ The non-specialists mostly come from the 'scientific' sections of the secondary schools (except those who join other departments of the 'literary' faculties) and have to have a pass mark in English in their Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination. The minimum pass mark is usually 40%.

(1) This condition is 'unofficial' in the sense that it is set by the Department of English in each university and not by the university itself. The departments do not accept anyone whose mark is below 42 out of 60 under any circumstances. However, high marks in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination do not necessarily mean a good standard of English as we see from Appendix 4 which shows students' marks in the latter examination compared with their marks in the entry test to the department in 1975/1976).

In some of the scientific faculties the period of study is five academic years instead of the usual four. These are the faculties of Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacology and Engineering.⁽¹⁾ Here the first year is called "Preparatory Engineering" or "Preparatory Medicine" and it is followed by first year etc. For our purpose, this year will be referred to as 'first year' for all faculties as it is the first year of university English for all students. The non-specialists in general do two to three hours a week of English. The specialists do eight hours of English a week for four years.⁽²⁾

It was decided that data would be collected for analysis from students of the first year in all the faculties of the university at the start of the academic year before they receive any university language instruction. However, for the developmental study, one had to be limited by the situation itself. After the first year, almost all faculties and departments of faculties that are not specialising in English, cease English instruction.⁽³⁾ The only students who get a training in English over a number of years are the students of the Faculty of Arts and the Faculty of Education. The longitudinal study has therefore to be carried out on the same two sets of students of the two English departments. Data would

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- (1) For a better and expanded explanation of the university system see Boktor, A., (1963), and Qubain, F. (1966)
- (2) See Appendices 5, 6 and 7 for exact number of English hours in each faculty
- (3) Not all the faculties study English after the first year. In the faculties of Medicine, Engineering and Dentistry, English is studied for one year. In the faculties of Science and Pharmacology, English Terminology relevant to the specialisation is studied for a further year. In the Faculty of Law, English is studied for two years and in the Faculty of Commerce, Commercial Terminology in English is studied for two years. Departments of the Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education differ. Some, like the Geography Department, study English only at the level of Higher Degrees; others do only one year of study, while the French Department does four years of English.

be collected at the start of the first academic year before they receive any university instruction in English. Data would again be collected at the start of the two following years.

The choice of the students of the departments of English in the Faculties of Arts and of Education for a longitudinal study is justified for several reasons. First, the students of the faculty of Education are to be the future teachers of English in the preparatory and secondary schools. Most graduates of the faculty of Arts also teach English in schools because of the acute shortage of teachers of English in Egypt. These students need help in English irrespective of what they are to do with the language in the future, as it is their field of specialisation. If their English is improved there is hope for a future generation of learners of English in Egypt. Secondly, whatever errors will tend to persist in the data of the specialists after two years of intensive English, will surely point to areas of difficulty for the non-specialists as well. Teachers can therefore know where the most difficult language items lie and concentrate on them in the one year courses available for the non-specialists. Textbook writers can take them into account while preparing and grading material both for the specialist and the non-specialist.

Ideally in the developmental study, our analysis should cover the language of this same set of students, tracing their development through their preparatory and secondary school education and the tertiary level. But that would mean ten years of work and evidently we do not have that time at our disposal.

Before collecting data and analysing it, it is necessary to look at the theories of linguistics and applied linguistics so that one may define the approach to be followed in the analysis.

The Present Situation

Since the 1940's, Linguistics has seen the development of several models of grammatical analysis which have been applied to the description of a number of languages. In America we saw Well's Immediate Constituent Analysis, Pike's Tagmemic Grammar, Lamb's Stratificational Grammar, Chomsky's Transformational-Generative Grammar and Fillmore's Case Grammar. In Britain, Halliday put forward his Scale and Category Grammar.

These numerous descriptions often reflect very different conceptions of the system of language and of the strategies of language acquisition. The two models which dominate both general linguistics and its application to language teaching are the structuralist grammars and the transformational-generative grammars. Language teachers, used to traditional grammars, find themselves in a difficult situation when they see that instead of having a single grammar of English, they now have numerous descriptive grammars. Frustrated by linguistic theories and descriptions which their inadequate training prevents them from understanding and evaluating, they end up by contenting themselves with their own experience and prescriptions for teaching, borrowed from this or that source.

Controversy on the application of linguistics to language teaching seems to widen the gap between linguists and teachers. Teachers hope that the linguist or applied linguist will find a solution for their teaching problems, but they find that a linguistic analysis cannot be transformed immediately into a pedagogical technique. It is true there is no established model for the relationship which holds between linguistic theory, the description of a language and language teaching itself. One however, can explore representative ideas and current applications, so that progress in language instruction may be achieved.

Theoretical Considerations

In the field of Applied Linguistics one can take one of two approaches in attempting a study like the one we intend to embark on. Either one examines the current state of linguistic theory and then proposes restatements of existing formal descriptions based on one such theory, or one starts from particular problems of explanation and learning which have come up in the process of language instruction, and seeks clarification and explanations from a range of formal descriptions and psycholinguistic experimentation. If one adopts the first approach, one falls into a trap and is blown in a variety of directions by shifts in the theoretical wind. If, on the other hand, one adopts the classroom and problem-centred approach, one tends to sink into eclecticism. But adopting a problem-centred approach and being eclectic has an advantage. It gives one, at least, the chance of making a principled choice between the offerings of formal grammars and their explanations, in the light of specific learning problems which belong to particular learners.

What is essential for one seeking to improve language instruction, is an awareness of the applied potential of formal descriptions and the theoretical bases upon which they are constructed. For example, one cannot assume that because major theoretical objections to structuralism can be raised, this necessarily invalidates structural descriptions for language teaching. Also, one must not assume, because transformational-generative grammar has a more complex and formal description, and because it makes a distinction between surface and deep structure in an utterance, that it is adequately equipped to help fully in a language teaching situation. For one, it only describes the competence of a native speaker for generating an infinity of grammatical sentences and leaves out of account the description of performance, i.e. the actual realisation of competence in communicative situations. It neglects

communicative competence. It restricts itself in general to the description of sentences and does not provide information on the structure of paragraphs or dialogues. If teaching and teaching materials are to lead the learner to knowledge of a language, the basis of a pedagogical grammar must be concerned with the rules of language use as well as with rules of grammaticality and the well-formedness of sentences. It is therefore our conviction that the language teacher has to be essentially eclectic in the choice of a grammatical model if he is to do his work well.

Each school of linguistic theory has peculiar merits that can be used for different aspects of data analysis. Some grammatical deviations are better described in the terminology of one grammatical model than the others. An example will make the point clear. Where the systematic construction of complex sentences is concerned, transformational generative theory is more adequately equipped with the "process terminology" that is required, if we are to gain any insight into the psycholinguistic problems that a learner has to overcome when he makes an error. A look at the way different grammars treat relativisation indicates this. Halliday's Scale and Category Grammar has not been precise about the structural form of the relative clause. Phrase structure grammars adequately cover the surface matrix of the English relative clause⁽¹⁾ but leave out among other things, the relevant information, that in English the relative particles take the forms "who/which" etc. because they are real pronouns, and as such combine the properties of a clause marker with those of the noun they represent. This point alone can account for many deviations in the learner's English where relativisation is concerned. Chomsky's T.G. on the other hand supplies the information necessary to get an insight into the learning process involving relativisation. If Chomsky himself

(1) For example Pike's Tagmemic Analysis

does not give a rule for relativisation, some of his followers⁽¹⁾ developed his ideas of embedding, into interesting material for learners. Example: On the basis of T.G., Schwab shows the systematic use of generalised transformations governing the introduction of relative constructions.

Eliot dated a Thai girl,
He had met her at the dean's reception
(T-rel). He had met whom at the dean's reception,
Whom he had met at the dean's reception.
Eliot dated the Thai girl whom he had met at the dean's
reception.

Sometimes the rules are given in a more abstract form.⁽²⁾

Transformational-generative grammar can also characterise notions of grammaticality and semi-grammaticality which are indispensable for foreign language teaching particularly where error analysis is concerned. By allowing one to determine whether a sentence results from the correct application of a system of rules one has taught, it can also indicate the number and type of violated or omitted rules. One can thus describe the degree and nature of student error and be provided with an instrument for comprehension and correction of these errors. This can provide an evaluation of the students' knowledge as well as data for studying his learning strategies.

On the other hand, recent research in linguistics and language learning seems to indicate that erroneous transfer occurs more at the level of surface structure than that of deep structure, and that similarities and differences of surface structure may be more relevant to error analysis than examining deep structure relations.

Chomsky's transformational generative theory⁽³⁾ assumes that various formal and substantive universals are intrinsic

(1) Schwab, W. (1976), p.67

(2) Eschliman, Jones and Burkett, (1968), p. 41

(3) Chomsky, N. (1965), p. 53

properties of the language acquisition system in the human being. These universals form the basis of the deep structure component. Lakoff⁽¹⁾ suggests that the speaker is unconsciously aware that these universals are universal, but that we need not talk about them unless they are of use in explaining language-specific facts. Jakobovits⁽²⁾ confirms his belief in Lakoff's suggestion. Carol Chomsky⁽³⁾ (1969) provides facts about the acquisition of syntactic structures in children between the ages of five and ten, that could be interpreted to show that language universals, or the components of deep structure, are learned at an earlier period of the language acquisition process, and in a different way than the language specific facts that form the structural changes of the surface structure. Because of this, it is preferable in this study if a surface structure grammar is used for the bulk of the analysis. Where the identification and classification of errors is concerned a surface structure grammar is adequate enough. However, when it comes to the description of errors, one has to bear in mind the inadequacies of a phrase structure grammar,⁽⁴⁾ and fall back on the more sophisticated model of a deep structure grammar like Chomsky's or Fillmore's to render a more detailed description. Whereas description of errors is largely a linguistic activity, explanation is the field of psycholinguistics. It is concerned with accounting for why and how errors come about.

In conclusion, this study adopts a problem-centred approach. Its recourse to linguistic theory and descriptive grammar in the analysis of the data is eclectic. It uses both a phrase structure grammar and a deep structure grammar for the classification and explanation of students' errors respectively.

(1) Lakoff, R., (1969), P. 139

(2) Jakobovits, L., (1969), p. 55

(3) Chomsky, C., (1969)

(4) See Postal, (1967), p. 72

Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis (C.A. and E.A.)

In the past, to learn through mistakes and errors was not thought desirable. Errors were thought to be due to wilful failure or inattention on the part of the learner. This implied that teachers controlled the language learning process and little account was taken of the learner himself and his learning strategies. Consequently works on the teaching of modern languages dealt cursorily with the question of errors and their correction. In the field of methodology there have been two schools of thought in respect of learners' errors. One school maintained that if we were to achieve a perfect teaching method, errors would never be committed in the first place. The second school believed that one should concentrate on techniques for eradicating errors after they had occurred. Behind this was the philosophy that errors will occur in spite of our best efforts as we live in an imperfect world. Both these schools have the same theoretical standpoint about language and language learning, psychologically behaviourist and linguistically taxonomic. Their application to language teaching is known as the audio-lingual method. Language teachers were urged to adopt audio-lingual procedures which, they were assured, were based on sound psychological principles of learning.

With the emergence of the notion of language as a system, there arose the question that second language acquisition could be viewed as the juxtaposition of two systems. This could lead to a new super system which combined features of both systems (Fries and Pike, 1949), or to intersystemic interference (Weinreich, 1953). The notion of interference between two systems was particularly interesting since it appeared to account for the problems of second language learning. Linguists therefore applied their studies to the teaching of foreign languages in the form of Contrastive Analysis. Lado (1957) presents the following propositions:

- "a. In the comparisons between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning.
- b. The most effective language teaching materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.
- c. The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real learning problems are and can better provide for teaching them."⁽¹⁾

Many before and after him have the same strong belief in the value of contrastive analysis for pedagogic improvement (Fries (1945), Rivers (1964), Strevens (1965)). While we cannot underestimate the value of contrastive analysis and we are not doubting the basic fact that mother-tongue interference is an important cause of errors, yet recent research proves that contrastive analysis cannot be the only basis for foreign language instruction. Contrastive analysis predicts errors by comparing the linguistic systems of the native language and the target language. Out of this comes an inventory of the areas of difficulty which the learner would encounter. Teachers however, have not always been very impressed by this contribution from the linguist, because they are more concerned with how to deal with the areas of difficulty, than with the simple identification of them.

In the area of negative transfer from the mother-tongue, C.A. proved and still proves useful. There are, for example, numerous cases of Arab speakers using the simple past tense in English when the present perfect should be employed. This is the direct result of negative transfer from Arabic. The perfective forms of Arabic verbs are actually equivalent to two different forms in English as follows:

(1) Lado, R., (1957) pp. 1-8

safru bi-Tayya:ra	they travelled by plane they have travelled by plane
?arit-iggurna:l	she read the newspaper she has read the newspaper

On the basis of this knowledge it is possible to search for adequate pedagogic materials which might facilitate the teaching of these differences in English.

On the other hand, many of the areas of difficulty contrastive analysis predicts do not necessarily present any difficulties in a language learning situation; e.g. in the case of Arabic speaking students, Contrastive Analysis would predict that they would make the following error:

Ate the man the apple

because in Arabic the deep structural representation of the logico-grammatical categories known as Verb (V), Subject(S) and Object (O) are represented in the surface structure as V S O in their linear ordering; in English the ordering sequences are S V O. Yet, to our knowledge, no Arabic speaking student has made such an error.

Mother-tongue interference is not the only source of error. Research by George (1971) and Lance (1969) show that approximately one third of the deviant sentences of second language learners could be attributed to transfer from native language. Therefore, at best, contrastive analysis can only predict some, but not all of the difficulties of the learner. C.A. should therefore be used to explain difficulties which have already been observed rather than to predict such difficulties. It is very helpful as part of the explanatory stage in Error Analysis.

Error Analysis

It is evident that errors are traceable to L_1 and other than L_1 sources. When C.A. became inadequate to describe all errors, pedagogists turned to Error Analysis. E.A. has been used for a very long time by all teachers to provide feedback on what the learner has internalised and as a teaching aid. But what is important is not the turning to the examination of the actual performance of the learner, but the new shift in focus which took place when looking at the errors. The teacher is no longer seen as the controller of the language learning process. The learner himself is seen as the generator of the grammar of his sentences in the target language. The emphasis is not on what is taught but what is learned and how it is learned. Since the learner is progressively changing his L_2 performance to bring it more into line with that of the native speaker of L_2 , errors and the instability of the state of his L_2 are seen as necessary and desired factors. In psychology, the shift was from a behaviourist to a cognitive theory of learning. With the acceptance of the hypothesis that a human infant is born with an innate pre-disposition to acquire language (language acquisition device), and that he must be exposed to language for the acquisition process to start, interest was renewed in finding out more about methods of language acquisition. A distinction was made between acquisition of the mother-tongue and the learning of a second language (Lambert 1966). Carroll (1966) suggested that second language learning could benefit from a study of mother-tongue acquisition. Although the learning of the mother tongue is inevitable, that of the second language is not; however, this does not tell us anything about the processes that take place in the learning of both first and second languages. Corder (1967)⁽¹⁾ proposes a hypothesis that some, at least, of the strategies adopted by the learner of a second language are substantially the same as those by which a first language is acquired. He argues

(1) Corder (1967), p.22 (in Richards 1974)

that when a young child learning his mother tongue makes an error, it is not regarded as such but rather as a normal child-like communication which gives evidence of the state of his linguistic development at that moment. He suggests that we should treat learners' errors in the same way. Strevens (1969) proposes that if a regular pattern of errors could be observed in the performance of all learners in a given situation, and if a learner were seen to progress through this pattern, his errors could be evidence of success and achievement in learning. So, the learner's powers of hypothesis formation as he moves towards a competence sufficient for his communicative needs in the target language, become important for providing information as to the language learning process itself. While the learner's correct sentences do not necessarily give evidence of the rules he is using or the hypothesis he is testing, his errors suggest the strategies he employs to work out the rules of the new language and the rules he has developed at given stages. In the analysis of the learners' performance it is the errors of groups that are important since syllabuses are designed for groups and not individuals. The errors are a result of incomplete competence in the L₂ reflected in the performance. E.A. aims at systematically describing and explaining these errors. This provides knowledge as to the learners' competence as well as information to be used in constructing materials. The interest in this field of learners' language at a given point, is reflected in a growing terminology which includes "idiosyncratic dialects" (Corder 1971), "interlanguage" (Selinker 1972) and "approximative systems" (Nemser 1971).

In looking at errors, a careful distinction is made between mistakes, which are defined as random errors in performance due to physical states and/or memory lapses etc., and of which the speaker is immediately aware, and systematic errors which reflect a defect in linguistic competence (Corder 1967). It is only the latter kind of error that is important. Moreover,

errors have a kind of systematicity. Learners often appear inconsistent in their production of error. They alternate between getting something wrong and getting it right. This is because a learner goes through three stages in learning a language:

- a) the presystemic stage: he is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the L₂ and his errors are random. He cannot correct his sentences if asked to do so
- b) the systemic stage: his errors are regular; he has discovered a rule and is operating it although it is the wrong one. He cannot correct his error but is able to give account of the rule he is operating
- c) the postsystemic stage: he produces correct forms but inconsistently. This is the practice stage of learning a particular bit of language. The learner can correct his error and give an account of the rule he is using.

Corder (1967) even proposes the hypothesis that a learner establishes his own "built in syllabus" which may be more effective than our instructional one. Through E.A. a degree of match between the two syllabuses can be made. We can then allow the learner's strategies to determine our syllabus and dictate our practice in teaching. This, however, is a difficult hypothesis to prove. In the absence of a generally accepted theory of how people learn foreign languages (or first languages), explanation of errors is largely speculative; and to find out about "built in syllabuses" we need a great deal of explanation. Both linguistics and psychology are still in a state of flux. But this must not discourage us from making attempts in order to find out the levels of gravity of errors and the links that can be drawn between these and performance improvement. We are not suggesting that we expect syllabus design to orientate itself exclusively around error based progression. The number of variables likely to affect the learners' performance is too

great to be summarised in any one approach. We are only saying that an analysis of the kind may help, even if its result is only the posing of questions.

Since the aim of both C.A. and E.A. is to reveal learners' difficulties, it is useful to start by observing difficulties in a corpus of oral or written production through error analysis, in order to see what areas need more exhaustive study. We can then formulate hypotheses about errors not present in the corpus, on the basis of contrastive analysis. Care should be taken to include information about the learners which could be relevant in explaining occurrence of errors and differences in their frequency.⁽¹⁾ The frequency of errors should be stated with reference to the number of possible errors. Once we have a taxonomy of errors, we may look for their source in different areas. The areas most common are mother tongue interference, intralingual interference, learning strategies, transfer of training, inadequate teaching materials, teaching methods, age, and sociolinguistic factors.⁽²⁾ Only in this way can one reveal what difficulties are independent of the learning experience and individual characteristics of the learner.

We can never achieve a full explanation of learners' errors by E.A. alone. There are limitations in the very fact of using a corpus. Corpora cannot be expected to provide complete coverage of possible errors. The lower frequency of an error does not necessarily point to the relative ease of a point in question, but simply that it has occurred only in some and not in all of the data. Types and frequencies of error may be related to the type of test used, and hence will not reflect learning problems in general. In composition tests, for example, choice of words and construction is controlled by the learner,

(1) See Chapter I for external factors influencing the teaching and learning of English in Egypt.

(2) For an explanation of these terms see Richards and Sampson (1974) in Richards (1974), pp. 3-18

and the non-use of a construction may be a sign that he finds it more difficult to use than constructions which are used correctly.

In this study we shall use both E.A. and C.A., in analysing data so as to give a fuller classification and explanation of errors.

Choice of the 'Test'.⁽¹⁾

Since this research is of an exploratory nature, the idea of a diagnostic test was kept in mind i.e. the main aim from collecting and analysing the data was not to try and evaluate performance in English after a given course, but rather:

- 1) to try and assess the basic level of competency in English of the students
- 2) to enable the researcher to identify specific areas of weakness and difficulty so that a plan for the most appropriate teaching programme may be made possible.

The kind of 'test' required therefore has to show the students' actual performance in the language and not their knowledge about it. A test of writing ability in the form of a composition would sample the students' active vocabulary (the knowledge of the meaning of words and word groups that they are able to use in speaking and writing) and their ability to manipulate grammatical structures. Most important, it would give an indication as to their ability to communicate in the foreign language and to use it effectively for a particular purpose and with a particular audience in mind.

(1) The word 'test' is here put in inverted commas as it is too strong a word for merely the collection of data of written compositions. It is in no way connected with any evaluation but since we are undertaking an analysis of writing ability, we use it for want of a better term.

The chief objection to composition tests is generally on grounds of subjectivity and unreliability. These terms are used however to refer to scoring of tests. Since we are not interested in allotting scores in this test but merely in identifying areas of difficulty they are not of great significance here. As far as subjectivity is concerned it cannot be totally eliminated. The topics chosen for the compositions are constructed subjectively by the tester for one, as well as the choice of how to test the students. As for reliability, certain factors have been observed to ensure it:

- 1) the extent of the quantity of data used was ensured to be large enough
- 2) the administration of the test was carried out under the same conditions at the same time approximately to the students
- 3) the test instructions were made clear to all groups.

It was decided to ask the testees to write a composition rather than an essay because 1) the writing of a composition is a task which only involves the student in manipulating words in grammatically correct sentences and in linking those sentences to form a piece of continuous writing which communicates the writer's thoughts and ideas on a certain topic, and 2) an essay on the other hand involves creativity and originality as well as the production of grammatically correct sentences as it is intended to inform and entertain. It would be too ambitious and unrealistic to expect that from a foreign language learner.

The Choice of the Written Mode

The written mode was decided upon not at random but for various reasons. Reading and investigation as to the weakest point in Egyptian students' English, and as to the medium they are most likely to employ in their careers proved that:

- 1) Students who join any faculty of any university will ultimately depend far more on reading and writing than on listening and speaking.(1)
- 2) A report⁽²⁾ on a questionnaire sent out to junior and senior staff members of sixteen departments of various faculties to obtain views and comments on the importance of English, and to discover what they felt were the problems of the English programmes, stated that students on the whole had less trouble with understanding and most trouble with actually producing spoken and written English.
- 3) In the inaugural speech of the Conference of Inspectors and Senior Masters of English (3) the English language Advisor stated that composition writing is known to be a great stumbling block in the way of the majority of Egyptian school pupils.
- 4) In the same conference, the Report⁽³⁾ of Committee Nr.2, 'On Composition Writing' states:
"The worst and most unfruitful torment in the school instruction of the present time is the use of written exercise in the foreign language. This applies more to our schools than anywhere else. Every teacher knows that all his unremitting toil achieves a pitifully inadequate result. The same old errors persist and the crop of mistakes is as thick as ever. Even the bright pupils who manage to shake off a fair proportion, are liable to relapse into the errors which they first committed.(4)
- 5) For the last eight years or so the complaint generally made by the staff of English Departments is about the poor standard of the students' English especially where the productive skills of speaking and writing are concerned. The departments usually hold a sort of written composition type test at the start of every academic year to evaluate the entrants' written English before they are accepted. It is noticed that even students who obtain very high marks in the Secondary School Leaving Examination in English score low marks by the departments' standards.

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- (1) Report on the Pilot Project of the Alexandria Language Unit 1966-1970, ETIC Library ARCHIVES - File 962 - Egypt
 - (2) Thompson, L. Report on English in Scientific/Technical Departments of the University of Alexandria, June 1975 (unpublished)
 - (3) Doss, L. Inaugural Speech, Conference of Inspectors and Senior Masters of English, Cairo, March 1970 ETIC ARCHIVES File 962 - Egypt
 - (4) A Field Problem: Written Practice in our Schools, Unavailing Drudgery, Inspectorate of English, Tanta Directorate, 1970 (in ETIC ARCHIVES - File 962 - Egypt)

Three points were kept in mind. 1) Writing is an indispensable phase of any language learning. 2) It is the last skill acquired in the learning process and should be preceded by an ability to listen, speak and read. 3) Writing, even in one's native language, is a much more difficult task than either speaking or reading. This is why the written mode has been chosen as reflecting the real standard of the students' command of the language.

It is often taken for granted that speaking a foreign language is more important than writing it. But the vital and most attainable goals of language learning are certain aspects of both the written and the spoken mode of language communication. It is much easier to survive in a speaking situation without resorting to one's knowledge of vocabulary and structure. But once external props are removed - such as gestures, the context from which one guesses a great deal, the listener who could supply missing items unconsciously - one is forced to concentrate upon providing the adequate words and correct structure for communicating something in the foreign language.⁽¹⁾ In considering Chomsky's argument about competence not reflecting performance because of strain and hurriedness in the speaker, we have tried to get around it by choosing only written data for analysis, and we took care that the bulk, but by no means all, the written material was produced in fairly relaxed conditions free from effects of strain or hurry. To the best of our ability we tried to collect data in the learner's performance which reflects his basic competence.

The Composition Topics

The topics were carefully chosen realistic topics motivating the student to write and ensuring that he has some-

(1) See Sharwood-Smith, M. 'A Note on Writing Versus Speech', ELT, Vol. XXXI, Nr. I, October 1976, pp. 17-19

thing to say and a purpose for saying it. The titles gave the testees some guidance as to what was expected of them: for example, instead of giving them a poor title which fails to direct their ideas in this form "A day at the Beach", it was given in this form:

"You are in Alexandria spending a fortnight's holiday at the beach. When you arrived in the city you found out that all the inexpensive hotels were fully booked and that you could only find a room in the very expensive hotels by the beach. Finally you managed to get nice lodgings not too far from the sea-side. Write a letter to your parents telling them of what happened to you and how you spent your first enjoyable day at the beach."

In this way sufficient information was conveyed by the rubric in order to provide a realistic and helpful basis for the composition. The following are the topics used in both studies.

The Cross-Sectional Study

October 1974: The following topics were given to the first year in all the Faculties.

- 1) A personal letter to the family describing a day at the beach.
- 2) The first day at the University.
- 3) Friends are easy to make but difficult to keep.
- 4) Travel broadens the mind.
- 5) What we need in our country is a more technical education.
- 6) A tourist asks you what you think are typical traditions and customs in Egypt. Explain them to him.

The Developmental Study

October 1975: Second Year Arts (English)
Second Year Education (English)

- 1) Describe a road accident that you have witnessed.
- 2) Choose one of the urgent problems at the present time (unemployment, poverty, corruption, overpopulation) and give the factors which you think have contributed to its existence or hampered its solution.
- 3) Danger past, God forgotten.
- 4) Impressions of colour.
- 5) Your future as you visualise it.
- 6) Lying, one of our social pleasures.

October 1976: Third Year Arts (English)

Third Year Education (English)

- 1) Living Alone.
- 2) The World without Colour.
- 3) Traffic and road accidents.
- 4) Comparison between School days and University days.
- 5) On Meeting one's Countrymen Abroad.
- 6) The biggest problem facing our country is..... (1)

It will be noticed that the topics, or some of them, are similar in the developmental study. This was done to find out how the student would treat the topics in the different stages and if errors will recur with the same lexical items they are likely to use.

Observing Homogeneity in the Data:

So that the corpus would be as homogeneous as possible, we ensured that the groups of students to whom the test was administered had the following main characteristics:

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- (1) The topics were presented to the students in the form they are seen in, in Appendices 8-10

- 1) All are native speakers of Arabic.
- 2) All have studied English at school for at least six years.
- 3) All have followed the syllabus and courses of the academic general secondary schools which normally provide the universities with their population.
- 4) All have obtained pass marks in English in their Secondary School Leaving Examination.
- 5) All have been exposed to a worldwide variety of English, intelligible to all educated Egyptians as well as to foreigners.
- 6) Doublers of any year as well as external students were not included anywhere in the sample.⁽¹⁾

Administration of the 'Test':

To the best of our knowledge the 'test' was administered in fairly relaxed conditions. The instructions were made clear to all groups. The topics were typewritten clearly.

In October 1974, the composition topics for the cross-sectional study were given to the following groups.

- a) The whole intake of the first year in the Faculties of Engineering, Science, Medicine, Pharmacology, Dentistry, Commerce and Law.
- b) The intake of the first year in the departments of the Faculty of Arts that study English including the department of English.
- c) The intake of the first year in the departments of the Faculty of Education that study English, including the department of English.

The researcher herself went to each group during their English hours and gave the test in the appropriate Faculty so that the

(1) Faculties other than scientific faculties accept external students in some of their departments. In 1974/75 there were 969 external students in the Faculty of Arts and 2442 external students in the Faculty of Commerce.

students would feel at ease in their own surroundings. The total time given the students to write a composition, excluding the time taken for explanations and collection of papers, was 45 minutes. The teacher of each group was present. To put students at their ease, they were told that this was not a test but part of a personal research and that in no way would they be affected by marking or analysis of their work. They were asked to put their names and appropriate school on the paper as this was needed for the quantification part of the data analysis.⁽¹⁾ Sufficient time was allowed for explanation and collection of papers. We can say therefore that the test was carried out at the same time and under the same conditions.

After collection of this data an analysis was carried out and a comparison made between the language of the specialists and the non-specialists (1974/1975).

In October 1975, the topics for the specialists were given to the two sets of students of the departments of English in the Faculties of Arts and Education. They were now at the start of their second year of English. In October 1976 the topics for the two same sets of students were administered at the start of their third year. By then these students were familiar with the researcher, and had no tension at all.

Quantity of Data

The amount of data collected from the non-specialists in 1974 was very large indeed, far outnumbering the data collected from the two departments of English. This is because whereas in the two English departments we are dealing with the intake of the first year of one department out of several, in the other faculties and other departments of the Faculties of Arts and Education, we are dealing with the intake of the first year of

(1) This was done so that the number of students who come from English language medium schools would be known

all departments. To bring the data into manageable proportions, it was decided that whereas all the data collected from the specialists would be analysed, analysis would be carried out only on a fair proportion of the data collected from the non-specialists. The proportion was decided by the number of students in the first year in each faculty. e.g. If in the Faculty of Medicine there are 1000 students in the first year, then 10% of these would be analysed. This 10% would be chosen at random.

The following Table shows the number of entrants in each faculty in the first year in 1974/1975, ⁽¹⁾ the number of scripts collected from each faculty, and the 10% proportion chosen at random for analysis. Numbers are only those of fulltime internal students. The number of entrants to the Faculties of Arts and of Education do not include the number of entrants to the departments of English (See Table II).

TABLE I

	NAME OF FACULTY	NO.OF ENTRANTS IN 1974/1975	NO.OF SCRIPTS COLLECTED	10% OF SCRIPTS CHOSEN FOR DATA
1	ENGINEERING	1100	732	110
2	SCIENCE	806	613	81
3	PHARMACOLOGY	420	289	42
4	MEDICINE AND DENTISTRY	1170	967	117
5	COMMERCE	2502	1907	250
6	LAW	3000	1207	300
7	ARTS	699	563	70
8	EDUCATION	551	382	55

(1) These total numbers were obtained privately from each faculty file.

Table II shows the number of entrants to the English departments in the Faculties of Arts and Education in 1974/1975 and how these two same sets of students decreased over a period of three years because of failures

TABLE II

FACULTY	YEAR	NO.OF ENTRANTS IN DEPT. OF ENG.	NO. OF SCRIPTS COLLECTED	NO.OF SCRIPTS ANALYSED
ARTS	1974/1975 (FIRST YEAR)	78	55	55
	1975/1976 (SECOND YEAR)	47	40	40
	1976/1977 (THIRD YEAR)	41	37	37
EDUCATION	1974/1975 (FIRST YEAR)	59	43	43
	1975/1976 (SECOND YEAR)	29	29	29
	1976/1977 (THIRD YEAR)	25	25	25

Table III shows the proportion of English language medium school students found in the data in the different faculties in the cross-sectional study.

TABLE III

FACULTY	NO.OF SCRIPTS IN THE DATA	NO OF STUDENTS FROM F.L.SCHOOLS	PERCENTAGE
ENGINEERING	110	12	10.9%
SCIENCE	81	8	9.9%
PHARMACOLOGY	42	6	14.3%
MEDICINE AND DENTISTRY	117	17	14.5%
COMMERCE	250	16	6.4%
LAW	300	16	5.3%
ARTS	70	7	10.0%
EDUCATION	55	4	7.3%

Table IV shows the proportion of English language medium school students in the two departments of English in the developmental study over a number of three years. The names and type of school on the scripts showed which students failed and what type of school they came from.

TABLE IV

FACULTY	YEAR	NO.OF SCRIPTS IN DATA	NO.OF STUDENTS FROM F.L. SCHOOLS	PERCENTAGE
ARTS	1974/1975	55	20	36.4%
	1975/1976	40	18	45.0%
	1976/1977	37	16	43.2%
EDUCATION	1974/1975	43	7	16.3%
	1975/1976	29	7	24.1%
	1976/1977	25	7	28.0%

Procedure in the Analysis

The written production of the learner can be divided into two main categories: 1) non-deviant and 2) deviant. It is with deviancy and degrees of deviancy that we are concerned.⁽¹⁾ First, all grammatically deviant forms will be isolated and classified. Errors will be discussed under a number of grammatical sub-headings. For example, the sub-heading "The Noun Phrase" will in its turn be split into other sub-headings

(1) The learner's sentences which are correct cannot be ignored in the analysis. They must also be considered if only for the clarification and occurrence of certain errors (See Corder 1971).

such as "Use of Singular Head with Plural Modifier", "Wrong Use of Noun as Adjective", "Wrong Inflection of Uncountable Nouns", etc. Under each of these latter sub-headings will be cited a few typical errors which will be representative. They will be fully described and explained. At the end of the discussion of the errors cited in the section, we shall note all the instances of the particular error-type in first, the cross-sectional and then the developmental study. For example:

Error Y occurs 100 times in the cross-sectional study
75 times in Stage I of the developmental study
50 times in Stage II of the developmental study etc.

At this point, while comparing the number of errors under each sub-heading in the data of the non-specialists with that of the specialists in Stage I, account must be taken of the proportion of errors to the number of words in each data. Since we are quantifying errors, the number of words and sentences in the data might be as important as the number of scripts. It is therefore worthwhile to state the number of words in the data of each stage in case they are needed for our statistics. Before administering the test we thought that in 45 minutes, the non-specialist could easily produce 300 words. In fact we discovered they produced an average of 200 words each only. We accepted that 200 words could be produced therefore without the non-specialist student getting tired or worried about time running out. The 1025 scripts of the non-specialists gave us 205,000 words for analysis. The specialists in Stage I produced an average of 400 words each in 45 minutes. The 98 scripts therefore gave us 39,200 words for analysis. The data of all the cross-sectional study is 244,600 words approximately.

In Stages II and III of the developmental study, students produced around 700 words each in 45 minutes. Wanting to keep the number of words approximately the same in the language data for each stage in the developmental study, we applied the following procedure. We took each essay script that was more than 600 words, counted 600 words, continued to the end of the

sentence containing the 600th word and drew a double line across the page. The language above the double line constituted the examinable data. This method has the advantage of eliminating slips of the pen and mistakes that could arise from rushing to finish off the composition before time came to an end, which would make performance not reflect the competence of the student.

In Stage II there are 69 scripts each consisting of 600 words bringing up the total to 41,400 words. In Stage III there are 62 scripts totalling 37,200 words. Roughly we can say that data examined in each stage of the developmental study consisted of about 40,000 words. The bulk of all the data examined in both studies consists of 323,000 words.⁽¹⁾

A frequency count will be compiled from the figures of the various errors. The table will show which errors are the commonest and the rate at which the different errors are dropped. From the discussion of various errors we shall derive information as to which errors are due to mother-tongue interference, which are developmental and which cannot be explained by us. The frequency count will then be related to suggestions for the improvement of teaching English to the various groups.

One problem in stating the frequency of errors is that of counting recurrent errors. If an error occurs with the same lexical item it is counted as a single error; two or more infringements of the same grammatical rule are counted separately if they recur with different lexical items.

(1) We have counted the data of Stage I only once as part of the developmental study in this total number

Sometimes there are sentences that contain two or more errors

Example: Infact it is good idea

This contains:

- a) a graphological deviation in the use of prepositions
- b) omission of the article

In cases like these, we shall consider the graphological deviation of the preposition under the section "The Prepositional Phrase" and the omission of article under the sub-heading "The Article". This will help sustain consistency in the different parts of the discussion and unity in each section. Each of the errors will in the end be counted and discussed in the appropriate section.

Sometimes it is difficult to decide which grammatical rule has been violated in a given sentence and which section it should be discussed under.

Example: I did not enjoy the food ate in that country. This could be considered as a) a subject omission error, or b) an error in the verb. If we count it as two errors we shall be counting the same error twice. This will show the learner's language as containing more errors than it actually does. We have decided that in order to reflect accurately the quality of the learner's language in so far as deviations from English are concerned, we shall arbitrarily assign the error to one type of rule only.

Spelling and Punctuation

Since spelling mistakes are mainly developmental and are amended with experience in the language and memory work we shall not deal with them. As for punctuation, it is as often a matter of style as of rules, and there is freedom in the use of commas and semi-colons. We shall therefore ignore minor deviations from expected usage. However, where the omission of inverted commas creates grammatical deviations such as in reported speech

we think it necessary to make significant references. The significant uses of full stops after statements and the use of question marks after questions will be considered important.

Social and Cultural Information

Sometimes to judge whether a sentence is correct in its context one has to comment on social and cultural concepts particular to the Arab world and to Egypt. In order to understand the psychological processes underlying certain linguistic structures, we have included social and cultural information. This necessity has been brought to our attention by Oller⁽¹⁾ who points out that negative transfer occurs at three levels of language functioning, mainly mechanical skills, semantic sensitivity and communicative competence. At these levels lexical deviations will also occur especially those items which can be found both in Arabic and English but which denote slightly different concepts in each.

Textbooks

In our explanation of errors we need to refer to the textbooks used in schools and at the university. An error may occur because the area of English of which it is part, is not properly handled by the textbook. The textbooks used in schools are already given in Appendices I and II. Appendices 11 to 13 show the textbooks used at the university in the different faculties and the different years

(1) Oller (1971), UCLA WORKPAPERS

Goal

One final point remains. English in Egypt is studied as a foreign language in a formal setting. In such a setting the goal is always to acquire an overseas standard form of English. All differences between the learner's use of English and standard English are signs of incomplete learning and are thus transitional and/or undesirable. There is no place for a local variety of English like in a second language situation where some deviancies are acceptable.

On the terms 'Mistake' and 'Error'

We have decided to call 'error', any construction which is glaringly erroneous such as those of the violation of concord for example. Slips of the pen are to be termed 'mistakes'.

Limitations of the Study

This study by its very nature is limited. It is only by recognising its limitations that we may hope for a certain validity. Firstly, it is limited by the very fact of using a corpus. The same limitations apply to the use of a corpus in error analysis as in the case of linguistic investigations in general. We never know when a corpus is large enough. And we do not expect corpora to provide a complete coverage of possible errors.

Secondly, we cannot claim that the occurrence^r or non-occurrence of errors and the differences in the frequency of errors are completely determined by error analysis, since the learner's learning experience is related to his language

behaviour. Moreover the difficulties experienced by different learners may vary according to age, period of study etc. The outcome of the analysis is therefore proportionate to the amount of information we have about the learners. Information may be lacking by the very fact that we are using only one kind of test, that of free production. In such a test it can be very difficult to generalise about learners' problems by observing errors. Duskova (1969)⁽¹⁾ reports that a quarter of the errors collected for investigation "defied all attempts at classification, being unique in character, non-recurrent, and not readily traceable to their sources.....unless some system can be discovered in them, they are of little value even in the case of the learner who commits them."

Thirdly, the information gained from E.A. and C.A. cannot be applied immediately to the construction of teaching materials and the planning of courses. We need studies of the effect of different types of errors on the efficiency of communication first. That is why only suggestions will be made for the improvement of the teaching of English.

Finally, by the very fact that the sample is taken from one university, and only a percentage of students of this university at that, the results and their application are limited. The study makes no claim to completeness since it is not intended as a statistical count, but merely as a tentative probe which might suggest points for further investigation. It is hoped nevertheless that a sufficiently large number and variety of errors are included to provide material for a qualitative analysis.

(1) Duskova, L. "On Sources of Errors in Foreign Language Learning", IRAL, No. 7, 1969, pp. 11-36

C H A P T E R I I I

THE NOUN PHRASE

Introduction

Before embarking on the analysis a clarification of certain points is helpful. Since we are going to describe deviant or erroneous sentences in the data, it is convenient to state what is meant by 'a sentence'. More than two hundred definitions are available. Traditional grammarians defined sentences by way of 'thought content'. Teachers taught students (and still do) that a sentence must give a 'complete meaning'.⁽¹⁾ This definition does not get us very far however. We need an answer to the question 'Just what groups of English words express complete thoughts?' Other definitions give attention to the marks of end punctuation and to the capital letters with which the conventions of writing dictate that we begin and end sentences. A sentence therefore starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark, according to the context. More frequently, the efforts to define a sentence turn to attempts to indicate the constituents of a sentence, i.e. a sentence must have a subject and a predicate. But these statements fail, not only when they assume that every utterance having these two constituents can be accepted as a sentence, but also when they assume that unless an utterance contains both subject and predicate, it is not a sentence. We have perfectly acceptable utterances such as

'Come over' or 'Wait a minute'
which apparently do not contain a subject and predicate.

Later linguists dissatisfied with the definitions that are based on meaning and 'complete thoughts', tried to define sentences through formal criteria. Bloomfield⁽²⁾ defines a

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- (1) Fries (1952), p.9, points out that all common school grammars give this definition which antedates Priscean.
- (2) Bloomfield, L., (1926), "A Set of Postulates for the Science of Language", Language, Vol. II, p.156

sentence as

".....a construction (or form) which, in the given utterance, is not part of any larger construction."

Fries,⁽¹⁾ accepting Bloomfield's definition, adds to it:

"A sentence is a single free utterance, minimum or expanded, i.e. that it is "free" in the sense that it is not included in any larger structure by means of any grammatical device."

In the light of modern linguistic description however, none of these definitions seem quite satisfactory. Being concerned only with the examination of written language, the best way would be for us to define the sentence according to graphological criteria. A sentence (S) will therefore be any concatenation of words that is marked off by graphic marks to indicate that it is independent. It must begin with a capital letter or, if it begins with a small letter, there should be a clear full stop at the end of the previous sentence.⁽²⁾ It must also end with a sentence final-punctuation mark, that is, either a full stop, or a question mark, or an exclamation mark. The sentence must be structurally independent. Independent grammatical structures in one language are different from independent grammatical structures in another language. Chomsky (1957) states that structural autonomy in languages differ. e.g. In Arabic there are two kinds of sentence structures, the so called 'nominal sentence' and the 'verbal sentence'. The 'nominal sentence' represents the simplest form of an Arabic sentence. It always starts with a noun. It may consist of two words each of which does not express a 'complete thought' if it stands alone. Yet it is made up of subject and predicate and is a complete sentence.

al-waladu gami:lu = The boy is beautiful

The subject is a noun and the predicate may be an adjective, a

(1) Fries, C., (1952), p.25

(2) In this case the punctuation error will be counted as an error showing the learner's failure to use capital letters correctly.

noun, an adverb, or a prepositional phrase. Literally this sentence is translated as

'The boy beautiful'

In English one does not say 'the boy beautiful'. The verb to be must be added. In Arabic, the verb to be in the present tense is not expressed. It is rather understood. A 'verbal sentence' on the other hand always starts with a verb.

e.g. la'iba 'umar fi-l-Hadiqati
Omar played in the garden

This is translated literally as

'Played Omar in the garden'

Here we notice that whereas in English the logico-grammatical categories of 'subject-verb-object' are presented as SVO, in Arabic they are presented as VSO. Therefore transfer of notions of autonomy from one language to another can cause errors.

Another problem that linguists seem to disagree upon is how to differentiate between a 'sentence' and a 'clause'. Although modern descriptions of language begin with the primary unit of Sentence (S) they immediately describe it in terms of Clauses (Cl). A great deal of academic discomfort has been generated concerning this. Sweet⁽¹⁾ calls the clause 'a dependent sentence'. Fries⁽²⁾ calls the clause 'an included sentence'. Attempts were made by Hill⁽³⁾ to effect the distinction between Sentence and Clause phonologically on the segmental and the supra-segmental level, but this did not make matters very clear. The distinction between 'Sentence' and 'Clause' has not therefore been agreed upon. In order to state general rules about the construction of sentences, it is constantly necessary to refer to smaller units than the sentence itself, which make up the Sentence. Sentences are either simple, (i.e. containing one clause) or complex, (i.e. containing more than one clause) or compound. Since sentences are described in terms of clauses, we shall discuss the 'Sentence' and the

(1) Sweet, H., (1891), Part 1, Paragraph 469

(2) Fries, C., (1952), Chapter XI

(3) Hill, A.A., (1958), p.336

'Clause' under 'Clause Level' only. We shall deal first with phrase level errors and then with the clause level errors.

Arabic and English (L₁ and L₂)

To put into perspective exactly what we are dealing with, a short very general note about the L₁ and L₂ is appropriate. It may safely be said that structurally speaking, Arabic and English are almost antipodal to each other, the former being a highly synthetic or inflectional language, whereas the latter is highly analytic or isolating. Arabic is a branch of the Semitic family of languages. Semitic tongues are linguistically characterised by their basic triliteral roots and by an inflectional role of the vowels. The morphology of Arabic is built up on a system of triconsonantal 'roots'. A word, no matter what part of speech it belongs to, is fundamentally conceived of as derivable from a 'root' consisting of consonants only. In the great majority of cases the root is three consonants, though there is a handful of nouns having only two consonants (e.g. yad = hand), and a certain number of four consonant roots. By filling out the root consonants with vowels and sometimes additional consonants which are not part of the root, one can derive a great variety of forms. The consonants 'k - t - b -' convey the general idea of 'writing'. We can therefore get

<u>kataba</u>	=	he wrote
<u>yuka:tibu</u>	=	to correspond
<u>kita:b</u>	=	book
<u>ka:tib</u>	=	writer
<u>maktab</u>	=	desk
<u>maktaba</u>	=	library
<u>kita:ba</u>	=	writing
<u>kataba</u>	=	clerks

In order to describe the actually occurring word formations, it is customary to use the consonants 'f - ' - l' as ciphers typifying the root consonants, and hence we say, for example, that

kita:b = book
qita:l = battle
qiba:l = mountains

are all of the pattern fi'a:l. In English, the 'roots' of a word appear in syllabic form, i.e. with both consonant and vowel. The vowels in Arabic are basically formative devices for derivational purposes and functions.

There is no infinitive form such as the English to write in Arabic from which one could say the different forms of the verb are derived. Each verb is derived from the 'maSdar', literally the 'source', and this is a kind of verbal noun or verbal abstract. This special type of noun expresses the underlying concept of a verb, abstracted from all the ideas of time, theme etc, which are implicit in the verb.

e.g. garraba = he experienced
tagruba - experience (verbal abstract)

But the 'maSdar' or verbal abstract is not used as the base on which other verbal forms are built. Instead, the three radicals of the root with the formative vowel pattern of the third person singular of the perfect form (called al-ma:Di), are used as the base on which the other forms are built. Thus

kataba = he wrote
garraba = he experienced

correspond for technical purposes to the English infinitive 'to write' etc. This form is described as the 'base' form of the verb and it turns out that it is the First Form of the triliteral verb. The kernel of an idea is nearly always expressed as a simple verb root in Arabic, while the majority of verb derivations stem from the triliteral root.

The average Egyptian student learning English seldom suffers real interference from this triconsonantal pattern in his native language. The genderless and caseless noun paradigms, as well as the almost regular verb conjugations in English, at first

glance strike him as being relatively 'simple'. Because he is accustomed to "irregularities" in Arabic he is not seriously troubled by the so-called 'irregular plurals' in English:

e.g. ox/oxen - mouse/mice

He quickly learns to handle the basic -s suffix for forming plurals. However problems arise on the syntactic level and the morphological level because of this idea that English is 'simpler' than Arabic. The errors that the learner tends to make are due to over-generalisation.

Naturally, no description of a language can avoid the use of a grammatical terminology. This is always a difficult problem particularly when one is dealing with a non-European language, for which the conventional European terminology is usually quite unsuitable. So far as Arabic is concerned, almost all its linguistic phenomena fall into categories which do not correspond happily to European grammatical categories, and the use of conventional European terminology is consequently liable to mislead. There is a set of Arabic grammatical terms evolved by Arab grammarians for the exact description of their language but we shall not burden the reader with strange sounding words here. We shall rather keep them to a minimum and make use of them only when necessary. Generally we shall use Beeston's⁽¹⁾ terms to refer to the Arabic grammatical categories as they are self explanatory in the sense of being easily remembered once the initial definition has been read.

Word Classes In Arabic

The establishment of word-classes for any language can be undertaken on a morphological or functional basis, or both. For Arabic it is necessary to take account of both. e.g. Verbs are principally identifiable as such by their morphological shape, since the functions which they embody can be performed by words

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), pp. 6-9

other than verbs; on the other hand the identification of words as adjectives is possible only on a functional basis since their morphological structure is in no way distinctive. Arabic recognises three word-classes, mainly Nouns, Verbs and Particles. Verbs and Nouns are words which group into sets exhibiting morphological variations which have either semantic or syntactic value. Particles, which include prepositions, functionals of co-ordination, subordination and modification (emphasis, negation etc) have a morphologically stable shape. Arab grammarians treat the Adjective as a sub-class of the Noun. The explanation for this is simple. Linguists hold that every statement contains a 'theme' about which the statement is made, and a 'predicate' or communication about the 'theme'. This has pragmatical usefulness for Arabic inasmuch that any speech segment which is potentially capable of functioning as a 'theme' belongs to the functional class to which Beeston⁽¹⁾ applies the designation 'entity term'. The 'entity term' may be a single word, or a word plus amplificatory items. Words classifiable as 'entity terms' subdivide into substantives, pronouns, and demonstratives. Since substantives and adjectives are distinguishable only by function and not by morphological shape, it may be impossible when quoting a word out of context to assert that it is either one or the other, this being determinable only by the syntactic context.

e.g. 'a:dil = just, a just man

It is impossible without a sentence context to determine whether 'a:dil represents the English adjective 'just' or the substantive 'a just man'. Beeston⁽²⁾ uses the expression 'noun' to cover both the substantive and the adjective, as a very large number of nouns function either as substantives or adjectives. Although some nouns function exclusively as substantives no noun functions exclusively as adjective. Still, modern Arab grammarians differ in their opinion about adjectives. Abdel Malek⁽³⁾ in a study of Egyptian colloquial Arabic treats the adjective as a separate form

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1970), p. 34

(2) Beeston, Ibid, p. 34

(3) Abdel-Malek, Z., (1972), p.34

class. Nasr⁽¹⁾ on the other hand calls adjectives 'qualities'. He believes that Arabic has no adjectives. He calls a particular item a 'quality' because it has characteristics usually associated with adjectives such as Comparison for example. However he recognises the characteristics 'qualities' share with nouns in Arabic, such as inflection for Number, Case and Gender, and association with the definite article. The adjective in Arabic can function as either a qualifier or as a predicate. Yet it is not always possible to give a linguistically adequate definition of the Arabic adjective in purely functional terms. All that can be said is that the adjective is a single word which can function as a qualifier to a noun. In this case it adapts itself to the noun it qualifies in two ways. Firstly it takes the -a(t) ending when the qualified noun is grammatically feminine.

e.g. sa:'a Tawi:la = a long hour.

Secondly when it qualifies a noun which is defined in any way, it must itself have the article and be defined. Otherwise adjectives are classed as nouns when they occur in phrases consisting of an annexed noun + qualifying entity term. Pronouns and demonstratives are considered as types of nouns for they exhibit morphemic indications of gender, number and 'definition' versus 'indefinition'. Nouns and demonstratives also have, to a partial extent, morphemic marking of their syntactic function in relation to the total sentence; in pronouns this marking is effected by the choice of one out of several sets of pronoun items.

Word Classes in English

English recognises four major word-classes mainly Nouns, Adjectives, Adverbs and Main Verbs. The minor word-classes are Auxiliary Verbs, Determiners, Pronouns, Prepositions, Conjunctions and Interjections. The members of the minor word-classes are

(1) Nasr, R., (1967), p.107

called 'closed system items'. The sets of items are 'closed' in the sense that they cannot normally be extended by creating new members. The major word-classes, called 'open-classes', can be indefinitely extended. It is quite common in English for words belonging to different word-classes to have the same written or spoken form. e.g. 'love' is both a verb and a noun depending on how the word is used. From the point of view of function, both English and Arabic recognise Nominals, Adverbials, Verbals and Adjectivals (i.e. forms functioning as nouns, adverbs, verbs and adjectives). Syntactically speaking an Arabic sentence whether it be a 'nominal sentence' or a 'verbal sentence' is composed of a subject and a predicate. This is exactly like English sentences. We must always bear in mind Chomsky's notion of sentence autonomy mentioned earlier to recognise 'dependent' and 'independent' forms of sentences in different languages.

Transliteration:

The rendering of Arabic in Latin script involves problems more acute than are normal in the case of most other non-Latin scripts. The primary need of assigning Latin alphabet equivalents to the Arabic phonemes has never been decisively met. The transliteration of Arabic much of which will begin to appear on the following pages needs clarification. For convenience sake, and in order to facilitate typing, a simplified version of the normal transliteration of Arabic has been adopted. This version employs only the letters and other symbols that are found on an ordinary English typewriter as the following table of approximations will illustrate, (See Page 83). Items are joined together in the conventions of the script, but structurally separate words are hyphenated, e.g. a hyphen separates the base and certain affixes. It must be remembered that there are no capital letters in Arabic and capital letters used in the script indicate sounds not found in English.

The system chosen here has several shortcomings. It does not meet requirements for juncture for example. However we shall always add the hamza = ʔ at the beginning of the word so as not to obscure the difference between an initial hamza, which is stable and functional, and other hamz which occur in post-pausal position. Where the error stems from colloquial Arabic it will be specifically stated. Otherwise the words 'Arabic' or 'SA' will mean 'Standard Arabic'. We have refrained from calling the data an 'inter-language' or an 'idiosyncratic dialect' etc., because these terms are too theoretical for the practical study we are doing. The educated Egyptian student will simply be called 'the learner'. We shall start by considering the separate units that can enter sentence structure and then discuss them in combination.

Vowels, Semi-Vowels etc.			Consonants		
Arabic Sound	English Sound	Arabic Transliteration	Arabic Sound	English Sound	Arabic Transliteration
ا	long a	a:	ب	b	b
و	long u	u:	ت	t	t
ی	long i	i:	ث	th(ink)	th
ـِ	short a	a	ج	gara(age)	j or g ⁽¹⁾
ـُ	short u	u	ح	Non-existent	H
ـِ	short i	i	خ	"	kh
اَ	aw	?aw	ر	d	d
أى	ay	?ay	ز	th(at)	dh
شدة	double letter	2 letters	ر	r	r
همزة	Glottal Stop	?	ز	z	z
و	w	w	س	s	s
ی	y	y	ش	sh	sh
			ص	Non-existent	S
			ض	"	D
			ط	"	T
			ظ	"	DH
			ع	"	'
			غ	"	gh
			ف	f	f
			ق	Non-existent	q
			ك	k	k
			ل	l	l
			م	m	m
			ن	n	n
			ه	h	h

(1) In Egyptian Arabic /j/ is usually pronounced /g/ even in S.A.

Phrase Level Errors

The Noun Phrase in English

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the special characteristics of one of the separate units which can enter sentence structure as an element, mainly the noun phrase. We shall examine nouns, pronouns and the errors in the basic structure of the noun phrase, and deal specifically with morphological errors such as omission of plural endings, the lack of agreement between nouns and their corresponding pronouns, the predeterminers, determiners and postdeterminers etc.

The noun phrase in English is that element in the sentence which typically functions as subject, object and complement. In its structure it can range from the simple to the indefinitely complex. This is because subordinate clauses, and sometimes sentences themselves, can readily be subordinated within noun phrase structure. Consider the following simple and fairly complex noun phrases.

- 1) The book is on the shelf
- 2) The big book on the shelf which you were looking for yesterday but couldn't find because you were in such a hurry is the most precious one

In (1), the noun phrase subject has the simplest structure consisting only of the definite article and the head. In (2) we have premodification and very complex postmodification of the noun phrase functioning as subject. To recognise the structure of the component parts of (2) and describe them, we need to know:

- 1) The head around which the other components cluster and which dictates concord and for the most part other kinds of congruence with the rest of the sentence
- 2) The premodification which comprises all the items placed before the head, notably adjectives, nouns and determiners
- 3) The postmodification comprising all items placed after the head - mainly prepositional phrases, non-finite clauses and relative clauses

We must be aware of both semantic and grammatical constraints in the use of these last three components.

Noun Classes in English

Nouns in English are either Proper or Common, Count or Uncount. The distinction according to countability into count and uncount is basic. Yet the language makes it possible to look upon some objects from the point of view of both count and uncount, as in:

I want) a cake, two cakes, several cakes
 } some cake, another piece of cake

There are many nouns with such dual membership. Often they have considerable difference in meaning in the two classes. Cutting across the grammatical count/uncount distinction we have a semantic division into concrete (material) and abstract (immaterial) nouns, though concrete nouns are mainly count, and abstract mainly uncount.

It is important both for semantic and grammatical reasons, to distinguish between sub-classes of nouns. Nouns can form plurals and take articles but this is not true of all nouns. Proper nouns do not have the full range of determiners and lack article contrast. Count nouns take definite and non-definite articles and admit the plural form. An uncount noun does not have a plural form, takes a zero article as well as a definite article and an indefinite quantifier. Nouns that have a dual membership depend on the context for the forms they admit.

The sub-classification of nouns into count and uncount, proper and common, concrete and abstract is essential as these notions spread over the whole of the NP structure and affect the choice of predeterminers, determiners and postdeterminers. The pronouns that substitute for the head are gender sensitive and are inflected for Case. Thus one misunderstanding or confusion of a certain feature in the NP could lead the learner to a long string of errors with serious consequences where his written language is concerned.

Nouns in Arabic

Nouns in Arabic are of six kinds:

- a) The substantive called al-ʔism, a noun which admits of being united with a descriptive epithet or adjective
- b) The Adjective called al-Sifah which is a quality or descriptive epithet
- c) The noun of number called ʔism-l-'addad or Numeral Adjective
- d) The Demonstrative Pronoun called ʔism-l-ʔisha:rah, a noun by which some object is pointed out
- e) The Relative Pronoun or al-ʔism-l-mawSu:l, a noun that is united (with a relative clause) as opposed to the relative clause itself.
- f) The Personal Pronoun or al-Dami:r the word by which something is concealed as opposed to that which is apparent, i.e. the substantive to which the pronoun refers.

The Substantive and Adjective

These nouns are divisible in respect of their origin into two classes, solid nouns and derivatives. Solid nouns are all substantives:

e.g. ragul = man

The derivative nouns may be substantives or adjectives. They are either derived from verbs such as miftaH = key, from fataHa = to open, or derived from nouns such as ʔinsa:niy = human, from ʔinsa:n = a human being. Nouns derived from verbs can be infinitives or participles. They function as nouns and adjectives and include the noun of action, the noun of kind or manner, nouns of place, nouns of time and nouns of instrument. Nouns derived from other nouns include nouns denoting the individual, the place where anything is found in abundance, nouns that express vessels and nouns referring to relation or reference. The latter are a particular class of derivative adjectives. They also include the abstract nouns of quality and the diminutive. The nouns derived from participles are really verbal adjectives used as substantives.

The concept of common and proper nouns is found in Arabic but it is connected to the concept of 'definition' and 'indefinition'. A noun in Arabic can be a noun of 'single application' or a noun of multiple application'.⁽¹⁾ An Arabic noun of multiple application can have placed before it an element 'al' conventionally termed 'the article', and a noun with the article is said to be 'defined'. The article has two distinct functions:

- a) it may indicate that the individual entity intended is known to the hearer, either because it has been previously mentioned, or by the factors of the situation in which the statement is made. In this case it corresponds to 'the' in English.
- b) it may indicate that the noun is to be taken as applying to any and every individual of the category named or to the category as a whole. In this case English usage fluctuates between 'a' and 'the' and absence of both:
 - 1) a king bears responsibilities.
 - 2) the elephant never forgets.
 - 3) Man is mortal.

In all these cases Arabic uses the article.

An undefined noun of multiple application does not have the article in front of it, and implies some unspecified individual or individuals of the category named, the identity of which is not previously known to the hearer as in 'I caught a fish'. Undefined nouns of multiple application can be 'common' denoting either a concrete object e.g. faras = horse, or an abstract idea e.g. 'ilm = knowledge. The same may be applied to adjectives

e.g. ra:kib = riding

mafhu:m = understood

Nouns of single application are by their nature defined irrespective of whether or not they conventionally have the article. Nouns of single application are assumed to be applicable only to one precisely identifiable individual entity e.g. Cairo.

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), pp. 6-7

Proper nouns include the noun of single application. They also include:

- a) proper names applicable to every individual of a whole kind, e.g. 'Puss' for the cat.
- b) proper names applicable to one individual of a kind only e.g. names of men, women, camels, etc.

Names can be either of one word e.g. nabi:l = a man's name, or compounded with ?abu: = father, or ?um = mother. Thus ?um kulthu:m = a woman's name. The compound may be predicative, mixed, or even a substantive governing another in the genitive.

Gender

In respect of gender, Arabic nouns are divisible into two classes:

- a) those which are only masculine
- b) those which are only feminine

Gender in Arabic is grammatical and not natural or real. There are a few instances of common gender, i.e. the potentiality of treating the word as masculine or feminine at the speaker's discretion. Male persons are always grammatically masculine, females feminine, but non-persons may be either, and the only certain way of determining the gender of a substantive describing a non-person is by the nature of a pronoun which refers to it. There is no neuter gender in Arabic. Nouns may be masculine or feminine but not necessarily either male or female. A majority of feminine nouns have the -a(t) ending, a morpheme so widely characteristic of feminines that Arab grammarians call it the 'feminine marker'. However the differentiation between masculine and feminine is neither exclusively one of meaning nor exclusively one of form. A noun that is feminine may be ascertained either by its 'signification' or its form:

e.g. 'arous = bride

is feminine by 'signification' while dhikra = memory is feminine by form as it ends in the form '?alif maksura'. Some feminine

nouns such as ?um = mother do not have the traditional -a(t) ending and are feminine of course, while some masculine nouns denoting male persons have the -a(t) ending such as khalifa = caliph. A masculine substantive denoting a non-person, unless it has an internal plural pattern, must use the external feminine plural marker

e.g. ba:s = ba:sa:t (buses)

Furthermore there are a few nouns denoting things which are grammatically feminine although devoid of the -a(t) ending

e.g. Harb = war
dar = house.

A few nouns may be treated either as masculine or feminine

e.g. Ha:l = state
Ha:lat ?aHwa:l

Nouns functioning adjectivally have the same morphemic markers of Gender and Number as those functioning substantively. Collective nouns are either masculine or feminine and are usually abstract.

Number

In Arabic, nouns like verbs, have three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. There are two kinds of plural in Arabic. The one which has only a single form is called the 'sound plural' and that which has various forms is called the 'broken plural'. Whereas in English the concept of number is made up of 'one' (i.e. the singular) and 'more than one' (i.e. the plural),⁽¹⁾ in Arabic the concept is that of 'one', an unmarked singular, 'two', the marked dual, and 'several or more than two', the marked plural. In Arabic gender and number are important because they relate not only, indeed not so much to the form of individual nouns, adjectives, verbs etc., as to their agreement when occurring together. The importance is seen notably in respect of verbs, pronouns and demonstratives.

(1) There are traces of the dual in English found in words like 'both', 'either' and 'the other' etc.

1a. Incorrect Inflection of Uncountable Nouns

- 1a1) All the laboratories need more equipments.
- 1a2) I covered the walls with coloured papers.
- 1a3) Travel gives man a great deal of experiences.
- 1a4) Cattles grazed in the fields.
- 1a5) The riches of the Arab countries must help other Arab countries which are poor (rich people).
- 1a6) When I was in Europe I worked different works.
- 1a7) Many informations are necessary for this project.
- 1a8) To develop, a country needs different educations.
- 1a9) Researches take place all over the country.
- 1a10) He returned to his headquarter.
- 1a11) There are many noises in the streets.
- 1a12) They have the same characters and interests.

Cross-sectional Study	=	298
Stage I	=	24
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

In language learning both the native child and the foreign language learner use a developmental process of speech reduction (the telegraphic stage). But at a point they diverge, and whilst the native child expands his reduced system to correspond with the accepted adult system of his speech community, the foreign learner, with varying degrees of adjustment, continues to operate it as a reduced system. The reduction of the L_2 to a simpler system seems to be best effected through generalisations which are often restricted in nature, and carry within them potential errors through over-application. Some errors in the noun phrase are the product of the over application of the generalisation that nouns in English are either Count or Uncount; that count nouns are used both in the singular and the plural; that the singular form is preceded by the non-definite article

'a', and the plural is marked by plural morphemes. Uncount nouns have no plural form, nor are they marked by 'a'. Many members of the class "Noun" neatly conform to this generalisation. However specific contexts require that certain count nouns be sub-categorised as uncount. The heavy pressure of these nouns as count occurrences makes error inevitable.

The errors in this sub-section are due to the learner's subsuming 'uncount' nouns under the category 'count', and so the nouns are pluralised to express a plural sense. The difficulty lies in that the count/uncount distinction in English is not clear cut. Firstly there are many English nouns which could belong to both categories of 'count' and 'uncount'. This dual membership confuses the learner immensely especially if he is taught that uncountable nouns are not inflected for the plural. Secondly there are invariable singular nouns and invariable plural nouns both denoting the plural. Thirdly some uncount nouns can be inflected for the plural and in this case a considerable difference in meaning occurs. As a majority of noun occurrences for number in the surface structure of English are regularly governed by this count/uncount generalisation, the economy seeking learner readily adopts a strategy of adding the plural for all occurrences, at best excluding a few nouns which have been given the status of 'exception' through a particular teaching strategy. With this generalisation crystallised as a rule, the learner multiplies his experience on its basis with, on the whole, good communication results. Sometimes Arabic facilitates the categorisation of some of the nouns in the category 'count' rather than 'uncount' as in the case of work and research. What is more important is that once they are categorised, their occurrence in the learner's English is governed by this generalisation. Subsumed under the category count, the nouns 'work', 'equipment', 'information' and 'paper' take plural morphemes. Although it is possible that these errors may be due to interference from Arabic one finds it hard to explain an error

like *educations where the pull of the mother-tongue should have forecast the singular form. The learner is therefore not operating merely in terms of mother-tongue equivalents. The interference seems to arise from the complexity of English which forces the learner to lessen his load of sub-categorisation. Apart from a tendency for concrete nouns to be count and abstract nouns to be uncount in English, there is no obvious logical reason for the assignment of various English nouns to the count or uncount noun class.

English sub-categorisation of nouns seems to function on two levels:

- 1) a concrete dimension whereby if you cannot itemise the constituents of a whole, then the noun is considered uncountable.
- 2) a functional dimension ~~where~~ the common purpose served by all members of the class may then be considered as an uncountable noun.
e.g. research - furniture

The learner finds it difficult to perceive a set of items used in supplying a laboratory with its necessities as uncountable. This is the reason he inflects equipment in (1a1). The word equipment in Arabic is either ?aghizah or mu'idda:t, both plural nouns from the singular count nouns giha:z and 'uddah respectively. When the learner sees a number of items constituting a whole, he finds the composition significant and proceeds to make it a count noun. The English speaker finds its unified function significant and views it as a single whole. Although in Arabic the concept of uncountability does include a group of single items functioning as a unit as the English concept includes, the 'uncountable nouns' are always marked for the plural and generally have no singular:

e.g. ?a:qtha:th = furniture

There are other words that can express furniture in Arabic apart from ?a:qtha:th, but these never have a singular:

e.g. mafrusha:t }
farsh } = furniture

In (1a2) and (1a3) paper and experience are singular invariable nouns. If they are inflected for the plural their referent changes. Papers means newspapers or notes or essays and thus coloured papers could mean 'newspapers printed in colour and not in black and white'. One cannot have coloured essays or notes however. Experiences means 'different kinds of experience and not only one event that affects one's life'; experience on the other hand means 'knowledge resulting from observation of facts and events in life'. In (1a4) and (1a5) the nouns are plural invariable nouns. Cattle cannot be inflected for plurality because it is an unmarked plural noun. Rich on the other hand is a personal adjectival head meaning 'those who are rich'. Adjectival heads do not inflect for number or for the genitive because by their very nature they have generic reference and therefore take plural concord. Hence the rich cannot denote 'one person' because it is already plural. The learner is helped in making this error by his mother-tongue. Arabic like English uses personal adjectivals to function as noun heads. However, whereas in Arabic the head appears marked for the plural, in English it appears as an unmarked singular:

e.g. al-?aghniya:? = the rich

The existence of the forms inflected for the plural where paper and experience are concerned denoting different meanings helps to confuse the learner. There are however no forms of cattle and rich that are inflected for the plural. Since however, in English, the general rule is that singular nouns form their plurals by addition of the morpheme -s (and the learner has been taught this rule), the heavy pressure of most plural nouns ending in -s accounts for the learner's adding it to uncountable nouns.

In other instances the situation becomes even more confusing. Work in English is an invariable singular noun in form but plural in denotation. In Arabic 'amal derives from the maSdar (the source) of the verb. It can be inflected for the plural without change in referent. But when it is put in the plural, not only

is the notion of 'more than two' implied but also the notion of 'several kinds of'. In Arabic, the undefined status of a noun accompanies a heightening of the numerical contrast between singular and plural. Singular 'amal versus plural ?'ama:l marks not only the contrast between a job and some jobs respectively, but also the contrast between one job and several jobs. The word several is not only a quantifier but implies the idea of several types of jobs in certain contexts as in the one the learner has used in (1a6). In English both count and uncount nouns are subject to gradability in two respects: 1) quality and 2) quantity. The quality aspect is expressed by the words kind or sort. In Arabic the quality aspect is already expressed in the plural of the noun. The learner therefore feels that he does not have to repeat the words 'kind of' in his sentence. This is further enhanced by his use of the premodifying adjective different which again implies 'different kinds of'. So by using a construction made up of 'adjective + noun' instead of a premodification structure consisting of 'expression of quality + of + uncount noun', the learner makes an error.

Another source of confusion for the learner is that whereas some nouns are invariable plurals in English their Arabic equivalents are invariable singulars and vice versa. Again some uncount nouns in English are count nouns in Arabic and are inflected for the plural. Therefore in certain areas the two languages classify different nouns differently. Information in (1a7) is an uncount noun marked for the plural and has no singular form in Arabic. The learner inflects information for the plural because its denotation is plural. Education in (1a8) is an uncount noun which is singular in Arabic and has no plural form. The distractor that makes the learner inflect it for the plural is the adjective different which premodifies it. The adjective implies 'different types of education' and therefore the learner adds the plural morpheme because of the implied plurality. On the other hand, the equivalent of research in (1a9) is a count noun in Arabic which can be pluralised. The learner pluralises the English noun because of the notion of plurality implied. The arbitrariness in sub-categorisation in English

coupled with L₁ interference lays open a big trap for the learner to fall into. The fact that Arabic and English differ in their sub-categorisation of nouns plus the distracting factor represented in the notion of plurality which is always present behind uncountable nouns, makes the learner fall into the trap. An interesting point to make is that although 'knowledge' and 'information' are very close in meaning,⁽¹⁾ the learner has not in any instance inflected 'knowledge' for the plural. Perhaps this is because the equivalent noun in Arabic is also an uncount noun which is never inflected for the plural. Mother-tongue influence does not act as a distractor here and neither does the notion of plurality, although the noun is in an unmarked singular form.

Because pluralisation in Arabic is apparently more complicated than in English, teachers tend to give the learner the idea that in English to form plurals one simply adds '-s' or '-es' to the noun. They conscientiously point out that there are exceptions whereby one adds '-en' to the noun and where the word itself changes,

e.g. mouse/mice, child/children.

Textbooks tend to present the situation in this simple form as well. If the learner is lucky, his teacher will tell him that the plurals of uncountable nouns do exist. But in most cases, the blackboard is divided into two with count nouns grouped on one side with their plurals, and uncount nouns on the other. The learner is warned that 'milk', 'wheat', 'water' etc. never take a plural. With this kind of lesson behind him, the learner easily misunderstands the count/uncount distinction in English. When he meets the plurals of apparently uncountable nouns, he is baffled and concludes that his teachers are not 'the best'; he is still very careful about adding an '-s' to uncount nouns. The teachers never or rarely point out that some uncount nouns do take the plural but that their referent changes. Quarters in (1a10) does not mean "more than one quarter" but "a habitat for soldiers". The learner must be made aware that in English

(1) The Oxford-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage gives the following definitions: information = ma'luma:t, (p.600) knowledge = 'ilm (p.653)

1) the plural of a countable noun means more than one of the same item and 2) the plural of an uncountable noun implies plurality as well as a change in referent. The homonymy apparent between such words as quarter and quarters is merely superficial. Although the roots of the two items may have something in common, semantically they are two different words. No word *'headquarter' exists in English. It is therefore logical to teach the learner that in English there are:

- 1) singular noun forms that have no structurally plural form.
- 2) plural noun forms that have no singular and if they have a singular form, that form is different from its uncountable homonym.

No approach, aural/oral or whatever will teach the learner that two homonyms are not necessarily semantically synonymous if this is not pointed out and drilled by the teacher. It is particularly in the pointing out of the relationship between form and meaning that textbooks leave much to be desired and most of the learner's errors stem from this relationship or the misunderstanding of it. Consider noise in (1a11). The learner wants to say 'there is an undesired din in the street' and not 'different kinds of loud sounds'. Although noise can be inflected for the plural, it is not correct in this context. The same argument applies to character in (1a12). The learner means 'two friends should have the same personality'. Characters could mean anything, from 'inscribed letters' to 'imaginary persons created by novelists', depending on the context. It is obvious that the teachers have not done their job well where pluralisation is concerned.

We deduce from this section that when the learner is writing to convey a plural sense, he has to sub-categorise nouns into count and uncount. In the face of his experience with certain nouns as 'count' and 'uncount', and also in terms of the teaching strategies, this sub-categorisation is particularly difficult. In his struggle to learn, interference is caused

from other items and forms in English, and Arabic adds its share. At certain points one cannot quite separate errors as those that are traceable to Arabic, and those traceable to English. Errors seem to be caused by a cross-association of both L_1 and L_2 .

1b. The Use of an -ing Noun instead of an Abstract Noun

- 1b1) His father died before his borning (birth)
- 1b2) If materialism and corruption are not there it would make our living happy. (life)
- 1b3) Our producing will increase and the money will go to the people and not to the war. (production)
- 1b4) All this is the specialising of the technological men and not the engineers. (specialisation)

Cross-sectional Study	=	221
Stage I	=	19
Stage II	=	11
Stage III	=	7

1c. The Use of an Abstract Noun instead of the Bare Infinitive

- 1c1) To success in war we need many arms and money.
(to succeed)
- 1c2) It is our duty to service our country to-day
(to serve)
- 1c3) We need help from the big countries to development
our project (to develop)

Cross-sectional Study	=	127
Stage I	=	11
Stage II	=	9
Stage III	=	8

Discussion and Explanation

A highly important feature of English is that one part of speech could share features with another. Between the pure noun paintings in

- a) We found some paintings.

and the pure verb Painted in

- b) Brown Painted his daughter.

there is a gradient which merits careful study.⁽¹⁾ The complexity of the different -ing expressions as we move along the gradient from the pure noun to the most verbal end is a source of confusion and difficulty for the learner.

In structures like

- c) Some paintings of Brown's
d) Brown's paintings of his daughter. (i.e. paintings owned by Brown depicting his daughter but painted by someone else).
e) Brown's paintings of his daughter. (i.e. they depict his daughter and were painted by him),

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ tell us that we could replace the item paintings by the nouns pictures or photographs; it is thus a regular concrete count noun related to the verb paint only by word-formation. This type of noun is called a deverbal noun. However the same item, painting, in

- f) The painting of Brown is as skilful as that of Gainsborough. (i.e. Brown's 1) finished product, 2) technique of painting or 3) action of painting),

is an abstract mass noun of the kind that can be formed from any verb by adding -ing, and inserting of before the NP that

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.133

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p.134

corresponds to either subject or object. This is called a verbal noun. We notice that although such a noun may have three different meanings, it cannot be replaced by the items picture or photograph. In (g) however:

- g) Brown's deftly painting his daughter is a delight to watch (i.e. 1) action of painting or 2) it is a delight to watch while Brown deftly paints his daughter).

we have the NP his daughter directly following the item painting just as though it was the object of a finite VP of the kind found in sentences like

- h) He is painting his daughter.

Traditionally this mixture of nominal and verbal characteristics has been given the name gerund. In (i) on the other hand,

- i) I watched Brown painting his daughter. (i.e. 1) I watched Brown as he painted his daughter or 2) I watched the process of Brown ('s) painting his daughter),

the use of painting has been distinguished as that of the 'present participle'. This traditional distinction is made irrespective of whether the structure in which the -ing item occurs is operating in the nominal function in which gerunds also operate, or in the adverbial function of (j) below, where gerunds cannot operate:

- j) Painting his daughter, Brown noticed that his hand was shaking (i.e. while he was painting).

Moreover where no premodifier appears the traditional view held painting to be a gerund in structures like

- k) Painting a child is difficult,

where the item is in a structure functioning nominally; but again it was considered a participle if the same structure functioned adverbially as in

- l) Painting a child, I quite forgot the time.

No such categorical distinction however was made between

- m) To paint a child is pleasant

and

- n) To paint a child, I bought a new canvas.

where the item to paint was traditionally regarded as an 'infinitive' in both.

The complexity of forms in -ing where form and function is concerned is enhanced by the fact that in some cases the infinitive can be used instead of an -ing form without any change of meaning or function. The -ing form is usually a gerund, the verbal and nominal characteristics of which confuse the learner as to whether the form is a verb or a noun.

Arabic seems to enhance the confusion of the learner in this already complex area. In Arabic, nouns derived from verbs can be infinitives or participles, which function as nouns and adjectives. Nouns derived from participles are verbal adjectives used as substantives. The infinitive is usually considered as a non-finite form of the VP in English. Although the non-finite forms in Arabic and English appear to be similar, the similarities are only superficial. It is necessary to dispel the misconceptions that arise from these surface similarities as they can lead the learner to the errors found in sections (1b) and (1c). In English the main difference between a finite and a non finite verb form is that the finite verb is one that requires a subject and can take it from the list I, you, she, he, it and they. All other forms of the verb are non-finite. In Arabic, every form of the verb must have a subject, either explicit or understood. Even the third person singular masculine of the al-ma:Di form, which has no personal prefixes or suffixes, must have a subject whenever it is used in a sentence. This being the case, there

can be no 'infinitive form' in Arabic. What occurs in places where the English infinitive would occur is either

1) al-maṢdar

or a verbal noun, or

2) a structure made up of a particle ʔan (called al-maṢdariyya) + the muDa:ri' form of the verb.

This structure is in fact a clause, as all verbs must have a subject. The maṢdar is a kind of abstract verbal noun. This special type of abstract noun expresses the underlying concept of a verb abstracted from all the ideas of time, theme etc, which are implicit in the verb:

e.g. dhahaba = he went
dhiha:b = (the concept of) going

The infinitive as an abstract verbal noun in Arabic is actually a substantive and thus can be used with any of the substantive's functions:

lima:dha-l-buka:ʔ = Why this weeping
safku-d-dima:ʔi muHarram = Shedding of blood is forbidden.

Because of its nominal character, the infinitive may take its complements as do other nouns. On the other hand, the infinitive remains a verbal noun and may thus take some of its complements as the verb does. Arabic makes very frequent use of the infinitive governed by a preposition in order to express ideas that in English require the use of the gerund.

Arabic does not distinguish between a gerund and an abstract noun. Both functions are rendered by al-maṢdar. Therefore, where either an English infinitive form or an English gerund or an English abstract noun occur, Arabic uses one form - the abstract verbal noun - al-maṢdar. English and Arabic verbs which

correspond semantically need not have the same tendency as to the use of a gerund or an infinitive. The maSdar is very like the English gerund where the gerund is felt to preserve some of the characteristics of its origin, i.e. the verb. Thus both the English gerund and the Arabic maSdar can be:

a) modified by adverbials

After carefully wrapping the clothes.....

ba'da laffi-l-mala:bisi bi-'ina:ya

b) Each can have a subject me/us..... my/your..... or a noun in the genitive; the Arabic maSdar takes the noun in the genitive

I do not like your smoking cigarettes

la:-?uHibbu tadkhinaka-s-saga:?ir

c) Each can take an object

It is no use your beating the boy

la: fa:?idata min Darbika-l-walad

d) Each can stand without subject or object as well, in which case it functions as a full fledged noun.

Smoking is harmful

al-tadkhinu muDirr

Because the Arabic maSdar and the English gerund can function as nouns, and because Arabic makes no difference between a gerund and an abstract noun, the learner tends to use the gerund as a noun where an abstract noun should be used (1b). Again he sometimes follows the infinitival to in his sentences by an English abstract noun rather than the infinitive (1c). This is because the infinitive, the gerund and the abstract nouns are all rendered by one form in Arabic. In rendering the maSdar (which has nominal as well as verbal characteristics) in English, the learner confuses its verbal qualities at one point (1b) and its nominal qualities at another (1c). He firmly believes that the maSdar is a noun because he produces the determiner the before it as in

The travelling is broadens our mind

He also believes it is a verb as he inflects it like the English gerund by adding the -ing morpheme. This confusion is caused by:

- 1) the complexity of -ing expressions in English
- 2) the fact that Arabic has one form, the abstract verbal noun, for the English Gerund, infinitive and abstract noun.
- 3) Because an infinitive is rendered by al maSdar and the abstract noun is rendered by al-maSdar the learner adds an English abstract noun after the infinitival to instead of the bare infinitive in places where the infinitive should function as subject object or adjunct.

2 Errors in the Use of Quantifiers.

- 2a) He died after few days.
- 2b) I had few money.
- 2c) Some of people say.....
- 2d) After some times we got bored.
- 2e) We want to see the sites, and every places which are interesting.
- 2f) In Egypt we have made many progress.
- 2g) He has to have much sons and daughters.
- 2h) We can get much informations in this way.
- 2i) In Egypt we have many of universities.
- 2j) We need all money for this.
- 2k) We can see another industries.
- 2l) In the Faculty there are another departments but.....
- 2m) In this way we can understand each others.
- 2n) We need more of technical education.
- 2o) The most of people are hypocrites.

Cross-sectional Study	=	567
Stage I	=	52
Stage II	=	21
Stage III	=	8

Discussion and Explanation

One major point of difficulty for the learner is that in English, because the countable/uncountable dichotomy, originally the basic property of the noun-head, spreads over the whole of the NP construction, it requires the application of selectional rules of agreement to quantifiers as well as to other grammatical categories in the NP. A countable noun can have quantifiers such as a few and many:

e.g. 'a few oranges'

'many oranges'

An uncountable noun has a different set of quantifiers:

e.g. 'much trouble resulted'

'less trouble was expected'

or, an uncountable noun may require a quantifier-phrase such as

'a great deal of trouble'

Some quantifiers are neutral and can be used with either a count or an uncount noun.

e.g. 'all the books were stolen'

'half the meat was eaten'

To make the situation even more complicated from the point of view of the learner, quantifiers are closely connected to 'Number' which is again the property of the whole NP in English. The Number of the noun-head affects the choice of quantifiers. Quantifiers and other determiners further carry within them the notion of 'definiteness' and 'indefiniteness',.

↑ At this point semantics and syntax are very closely woven together, and make things very difficult for the learner.

Quantifiers are either determiners or pronouns denoting quantity or amount. The similarity in their denotation confuses the learner as to their form and their function. Of the quantifiers which are determiners some like all function as predeterminers, others like some function as central determiners,

and yet others like many function as postdeterminers. The English language maintains the contrast between few and a few, 'little' and 'a little'. They are closed-system quantifiers in one function and pronouns in another. As quantifiers few and a few occur with plural count nouns, while little and a little occur with uncount nouns. A few and a little cannot be analysed as consisting of the 'non-definite article + quantifier' since 'a' does not occur with plural count and uncount nouns. There is a semantic difference between few and little, and a few and a little. The former quantifiers are negative while the latter are more positive or, at least, neutral terms. Leech⁽¹⁾ gives the meaning of a few as "a small amount" and of few as "not a large amount". English may maintain the contrast between the two, but for the learner thinking in terms of the generalisation productive of good results, the contrast is not significant, especially that he finds the division of nouns into count and uncount difficult. To him they both mean the same thing (we must admit that Leech's meanings are not very enlightening here), and both denote degrees of quantity. Even if a few means 'a little more in quantity' than few in Leech's scale of amount (p.151), one hardly expects the learner to notice that unless he is exposed to the language for a long period of time.

Jain⁽²⁾ suggests that as a comes to be associated with count nouns in the singular implying 'one', the generalisation eliminates a in front of such words as 'hundred', 'few' and 'little', into which numerically or in terms of bulk, the meaning of more than one is so distinctly woven.

In Arabic the equivalent of a few, few, little and a little is one term qali:l, sometimes followed by the preposition min to mean a little of, a bit of. The fact that Arabic has only one word to denote both quantifiers few and a few helps to cancel the difference between them in use. Thus the learner produces the error in (2a).

(1) Leech, G., (1975), pp. 48, 51 and 280.

(2) Jain, M., (1974) in Richards, J. p.193

In (2b) the learner has chosen the wrong quantifier, a few, one used with count nouns, rather than a little which is used with uncount nouns. The learner fails to realise that count nouns have a different set of quantifiers from uncount nouns. Had he translated from Arabic he would not have made an error, as qali :lun min literally means a little bit of. This error unambiguously demonstrates that it is the product of the learner's effort to learn English on its own terms, and not through equivalents in the mother-tongue.

One cannot help thinking on the other hand that the use or misuse of a, whether standing alone or in combination with a quantifier such as little or few, may be due to the difference in the concept of definition and indefiniteness between Arabic and English.

Definition in Arabic

In Arabic lack of ambiguity characterises substantives which are applicable only to a single unique entity such as 'Cairo' for example. The unambiguous quality is what is referred to as definition; all such words are 'defined' by their own nature. Another kind of substantive is applicable to any one or more individual members of a category, such as 'town'. Where the context is such that it establishes without ambiguity the individuality of the substantive within its category, English uses the article 'the' as in 'in the evening we reached the town'. The statement is only intelligible if the hearer can identify from the context what particular town is meant. In Arabic this particularised definition is expressed by the definite article al = the.

In a second type of situation the precise identity of the substantive is irrelevant within its category inasmuch as the speaker is interested in assigning the entity to its category not in individualising it. The English nondefinite article 'a' is in this case used to contrast with 'some' in the plural.

e.g. We reached a town
We reached some towns

In Arabic a substantive of this kind is an unmarked term contrasting with the term marked by the definite article al described above.

e.g. balad = a town
bila:d = some towns

The Arabic marked morpheme is therefore referred to as the article since it contrasts with zero and not with the non-definite article.

Irrelevancy of individualisation may also arise from the speaker's intending his utterance to apply to every individual or group, in the category. English marks this situation by singular 'a' contrasting with plural zero.

e.g. A town is always large
Towns are always large

In Arabic this situation is marked by the article. The Arabic article therefore has two distinct functions: the particularising one, and the generalising one just described. Whereas the English contrast between 'a' and 'the' is a contrast in the relevancy of individualisation, the Arabic contrast between the article and zero marking is one of unambiguousness versus ambiguousness. Definition for Arabic is the quality of lacking ambiguousness, whether that be occasioned by the inherent nature of the entity term, or by the use of the article in either of its functional values. Sometimes undefined status accompanies a heightening of the contrast between singular and plural:

e.g. (1) balad
versus
(2) bila:d

may mark not only the contrast between

(1) a town
and
(2) some towns

but also the contrast between

(1) one town

versus

(2) several towns

If a substantive is envisaged as a category embracing a multiplicity of members, in English it takes 'a' or 'the' and in Arabic zero marking or the article. If a substantive is envisaged as an indivisible entity, it has zero marking in English but in Arabic it is marked by the generalising article. An adjective which amplifies a defined substantive must itself be marked by the article.

Nouns in Arabic may be defined in a number of ways other than the article or zero marking.

(1) By the addition of a pronominal suffix

e.g. bana:t = daughters

bana:tu = his daughters

(2) by close association with a following noun which is itself defined

e.g. babu-l-bayti = the door of the house

(3) by association with the vocative particle ya

e.g. ya 'umar = Umar

A noun must not bear more than one defining characteristic:

e.g. bana:tu = his daughters

cannot have an article as well, because of the presence of the pronominal suffix U.

The fact that a does not exist in Arabic as an article makes the learner have no frame of reference to turn to. A being non-definite differs in English to the generalising al in Arabic in many cases. The learner may therefore use a erroneously.

A factor that affects the choice of quantifiers like many, much, more, most etc. is a particular structure in the Arabic NP called 'the construct' by Arabists. Beeston refers to it as the 'annexion structure'. In so far as a single word is inadequate to describe an entity term which the speaker has

in mind, it can be amplified by one or more of the following in Arabic:

- a) an adjective
- b) another entity term (noun, pronoun or demonstrative)
- c) a prepositional phrase
- d) an amplifying adjectival clause structure

The link between a noun and an entity term which amplifies it is termed by Arab grammarians al-ʔiDafah = annexion, and the noun thus amplified is called al-muDa:f = annexed. The determining noun is called al muDa:f-ʔilayh = that to which annexation is made. It must be stressed that the 'annexed' term is the amplified one and not the amplifying one. In order to comprehend the annexion structure, it is best to regard it as parallel to the English form in which two nouns are juxtaposed:

e.g. village doctor⁽¹⁾ = Tabibu-l-qarya

The only difference is that the noun which actually defines the entity (i.e. doctor) comes first in Arabic. The semantic implications are open in Arabic and in English, (village doctor = one who works in a village), but in Arabic the annexion subsumes English 'genitive' structures such as

a village's doctor = Tabibu-l-qarya.

The two terms in Arabic are in very close juncture and cannot be separated, whereas in the English genitive structure they can.

e.g. the village's new doctor

Thus an adjective which qualifies an annexed noun must be placed after the qualifying term. Furthermore, in Arabic it is the amplifying term whose definitional status yields the definitional status of the whole phrase; consequently an annexed substantive will not itself have the article. The phrase⁽²⁾

'the tusk of an elephant' = sin-l-fi:l

has in Arabic no element of definition because it is regarded as

(1) Example taken from Beeston, A.F.L., (1970) p.45

(2) As above, p. 46

equivalent to

'an elephant tusk'

If the qualifying term is an undefined noun of multiple application, then the phrase as a whole, and the annexed noun, is grammatically undefined; if it is a noun of multiple application made defined by the article, or a noun of single application, or a defined entity term of any other kind, then the phrase as a whole, and the annexed noun, is defined. Hence

baytu-l-wazi:r = the minister's house or the house
of the minister.

baytu-wazi:r = a minister's house or the house of a
minister

Therefore a single mark of definition or indefiniteness serves to mark the definitional status of the whole phrase. It follows that an English construction like

'a house of the minister'

cannot be represented by an annexion structure in Arabic but instead by the use of a preposition

baytu-min-buyuti-l-wazi:r

The annexion structure can be replaced by a prepositional phrase with min or li, from and to respectively. Li is used when the qualifying term represents either the direct object of the verbal idea, or a possessor of the qualified noun (i.e. an entity which can be said to 'have' it in the widest range of senses); min is used when the qualifying term represents either the theme pronoun of a verbal idea, or an entity of which the qualified noun is a part. Hence we have:

a) substitution of a direct object

Hubi-laha = my love of her

b) substitution of possessor

?akhun-li-l-?amir = a brother of the prince

c) substitution for a theme pronoun

?'tiqa:dan-mini = a belief held by me

d) part-whole relationship between the terms

gumla-min-?aSdiQa:?i-l-malik = a group of the king's
friends

This, as we shall see later in Chapter V, accounts for some errors made by the learner where the prepositions from, for and to are concerned.

The semantic polyvalency of the annexion structure expresses a great deal of the forms that make up the parts of the NP in English such as the determiners, the quantifiers, the pre-modifying adjectives, the defined as well as the undefined nouns. The range of error occurrence under the influence of Arabic is very vast in this area. This is seen in error (2c). In English, some and any can have both determiner and nominal function and take the 'of' construction. In Arabic ideas such as those of 'the whole', 'the part' and 'the like' which one usually designates by adjectives, prepositions, determiners or compound words are expressed by substantives taking the primary substantives to which they are attached in the genitive. Thus ba'Da = a part, a portion, some, is used with the genitive of a plural or a collective noun to signify some one or more, a certain one, some one and one.

e.g. fi ba'D-l-?aya:m = on some days

ba'D is sometimes used with the genitive to mean a part of:

e.g. ba'D-n-nass = some people, some of the people.

ba'D is a noun of anomalous use. It connotes not only 'some of' but also 'one of', and its implication is ambiguously either singular or plural. When it is annexed to a formally defined entity term it strangely retains an undefined sense (which all other qualifiers do not).

e.g. ba'D-wuzara:?-d-dawla = one minister of state/
some ministers of state.

The ideas of some(-one) and some(thing) in English are expressed by ?aHad (masculine) = some/any-one and ?iHda (feminine) = some/any-one and shay? = something/anything. When annexed, these present the same anomaly as ba'-D, having a defined entity term after them yet retaining the undefined sense

e.g. ?aHad-r-riga:l = one of the men.

In (2c) therefore the learner is translating ba'D into 'some of' not realising that some is an open-class quantifier and cannot take an -of construction after it in this case. Furthermore, the similarity of meaning and form between some as quantifier and the pronominal some confuses the learner as to their function.

Instead of using one construction i.e. 'some people say.....' with an open-class quantifier, he uses some followed by an 'of' construction but omits the definite article which is necessary there, because he has a feeling that 'people' is 'general' and not 'definite' or 'specific' in meaning, hence producing *Some of people.

In (2d) the learner confuses the 'time-when adverb' some time with the frequency adverb sometimes. The confusion arises because of similarity of form and sound. The learner should have used the quantifier some to modify the noun time, and in the meantime confused the spelling of some time, sometime and sometimes. He seems not to be aware of their different functions,⁽¹⁾ as determiner, time-when adverb, and frequency adverb.

In English the universal pronouns comprise the 'each', 'all' and 'every' series. All is a nominal/determiner used with plural count nouns and uncount nouns. As nominals every and each are used in a 'personal' sense as in

- a) everyone
- b) everybody

and in a 'non-personal' sense as in

- c) everything
- d) every one

As determiners both are used with singular count nouns. Every and its combinations refer to 'three or more', and have a collective sense. Each refers to 'two or more', i.e. it can be dual or plural and has individual reference.

- e.g. Two girls came and I gave a book to each/*everybody
Three girls came and I gave a book to each/everybody

Each entails reference to something in the context, whereas everybody does not.

- e.g. I walked into the room and gave a book to everybody/
*each

Every one and each one and all have 'of constructions'. Every and each can have a singular or plural pronoun for co-reference.

(1) See section II on graphological errors.

Whereas every can be used with plural expressions such as every two weeks each cannot.

In (2e) the learner uses every for all. He has violated the restriction rule on number as every is a quantitative determiner never used with plural nouns. The meaning implied in every, i.e. the collective reference, has misled the learner into the error. It must be admitted that unless one has had a great experience of the L₂ it is difficult indeed to make the fine distinctions on the semantic and structural levels that English requires, especially because Arabic uses only one word, kul, for the three items. kul is a noun which, when annexed to an undefined noun, conveys the sense of the English each/ every; when annexed to a defined entity term it conveys the English sense of all/whole.

e.g. kul-?insa:n = every human being
kul-sa:'a = each hour
kul muluk-l-?arD = all the kings of the earth
kul-l-Haqiqa = the whole truth

The use of one item in Arabic for the three items in English increases the learner's confusion and his use of each, every and all in free variation.

All is a predeterminer indicating an amount or an indefinite amount. It modifies plural count and uncount nouns. Instead of using a lot of the learner uses all in (2j). The use of this predeterminer is inappropriate, as predeterminers can only occur before articles or demonstratives in the NP. The similarity in meaning between a lot of and all misleads the learner and he disregards the form and function of the two items and uses them alternatively.

The confusion between much, many and a lot of is largely due to the textbooks and teaching techniques. The textbook⁽¹⁾ groups these three items together and states that much is replaced by a lot of, a great deal of and plenty of, while many is replaced by a lot of, a large number of and plenty of. Then

(1) Allen, S.W., (1958), p.156

follows an exercise which has sentences like:

'He hasn't got much money'

which the learner is asked to turn into the affirmative. The Living English Series⁽¹⁾ present the word much as meaning a lot of and the word many as meaning the same. No further explanation is given. In such a complicated area as the noun phrase where the division into count/uncount creates so many restrictions on use, this is definitely not enough. The learner is not told that although much and many may mean a lot of in certain contexts, much is used with singular uncount nouns and many is used with plural count nouns. Although exercises and drills are used pointing out the use of many and much, the similarity of meaning cancels out the significance of the count/uncount distinction in use for the learner. Hence in (2i) the learner uses many of as a variation of a lot of as a result of the confusion of the two forms. In (2f) he uses many to mean a lot of with an abstract count noun. In (2g) he uses much with a plural count noun, as to him much and many mean the same thing. The actual grouping of the three items together in one lesson and the pointing out that they all mean the same thing, makes him use them in free distribution and he uses one for the other happily as he does in (2h).

Arabic has the same set of quantifiers for both countable and uncountable nouns.

e.g. miya:h kathira = a lot of water
bana:t kathira = many girls

Therefore the dichotomy of the count/uncount sub-categorisation is solely the property of the noun-head in Arabic and exerts no agreement rules over quantifiers. In (2i) for example where the learner wants to say that 'the country has a lot of universities', he might be actually translating from the Arabic form

kathi:run min = literally many of

(1) See Appendices I and II

Many, much, all and a lot of are all translated into the Arabic word kathi:r. It is therefore very difficult to trace errors to one source. Again, it seems that there is an intermingling of sources, interference from L₁ and the complexity of the English NP, in which the countable/uncountable dichotomy spreads over the whole NP construction.

Errors occur in the use of other, another and others. Other and another along with the ordinal numbers are post-determiners. They follow determiners in noun phrases but they precede quantifiers. There seems to be a pattern for the occurrence of (an)other. It can, optionally, co-occur with ordinal numerals, as well as few, before plural count nouns:

e.g. Another two months
The other three passengers

But other and another when used with each or one, are reciprocal pronouns:

e.g. They liked each other

Reciprocal pronouns can be freely used in the genitive:

e.g. They borrowed one another's notes.

In Arabic another, other and others are expressed by ba'D which is used also for some. If ba'D is repeated as a correlative, we get

ba'Du-sh-sharri ?ahwan min ba'D = some evils are easier
to bear than others
ba'Duhum ba'Dan = to one another
or
..... each to the other

The distinction for number and gender is made not in the word ba'D but in the pronominal suffix added to it. Hence the learner inflects other in (2m) for the plural, ignoring the fact that when preceded by the universal pronoun each, the

reference is to two or more i.e. dual or plural already. Each, also entails a reference to something in the context (as the learner intended it to do) and the reference here is to two or more people. The learner seems to realise this, but does not know that by using each he has already added the notion of duality or plurality to other. So he inflects the pronoun, which is the only logical thing for him to do, as he has not seen each inflected for the plural in English before, but he has seen other inflected for both the genitive and the plural.

In citations (2k) and (2l) the learner has violated the rule of number. The composition of another is made up of the article an + other. This means that it must modify singular nouns unless it is followed by an ordinal number which precedes the noun modified. Other on the other hand is not preceded by an article and can modify plural nouns. Since the same item is used for both other and another in Arabic, the learner uses both in English in free variation.

We have suggested while discussing error (2i) that the learner may be using the Arabic equivalent of a lot of - kathi:run min. The adjective kathi:r literally means a lot, much, many. Modified by the preposition min = of, it means a lot of, many of and much of. The learner is trying to express the idea that 'the amount of technical education in Egyptian schools is not enough and we need more of it'. He therefore uses the adjective kathi:r followed by the preposition min and translates it into English as more of where he should have just used the comparative more. He has probably seen constructions with many and much + the 'of construction' and he extends the use of of to the comparative structure as well in (2n).

A literal translation of the learner's sentence (2o) would be:

kathi:run min-n-nassi-lu?ama:?

The preposition min = of which is necessary in the Arabic sentence to express the meaning of most or a lot of is translated by the learner into English and results in error. More and most when functioning as predeterminers cannot be followed by of when the following noun is not specific or defined in English. The cause of error in (2o) is the same as that in (2n).

Prepositions in Arabic have a nominal governing influence. They govern a noun or its equivalent in the genitive case and when governed by another preposition, as in a compound preposition, the one used as the second part of the compound preposition takes the genitive ending. Prepositions show the relationship of a noun or its equivalent to some other word in the sentence. In Arabic they offer the most varied and diversified range of meanings and grammatical relationships. The prepositions of, for and to and from tend to give the learner a great deal of trouble.

min = of, from, designates its governed noun as belonging to a group, species or kind and also its separation from them. The expression of separation from a group, kind or species frequently has a partitive meaning 'one of', 'a part of', 'some of'. We have seen how this has confused the learner when he uses 'some of people' and 'most of people'. Since of is definitely the preposition used for the genitive in English we find that the learner mixes up the use of of and for and to (as to is also expressed by the preposition li in Arabic). The annexion structure in Arabic, the genitive in English, the preposition of, for and to in connection with the annexion structure and the genitive in English prove a great source of confusion and error to the Egyptian learner.

On the whole one can say that in this section the Arabic annexion structure is responsible for many of the errors as it expresses many semantic ideas such as those of totality,

portion, difference, likeness, whole, etc. which are usually rendered in English by quantifiers in the N.P.

The use of more is very difficult for the learner because of the structure of the comparative in Arabic. The discussion of the errors in the comparative clause always involves the use of the preposition from which is used instead of the English than, as well as the use of the periphrastic structure with more instead of the simple comparative form of the word in question. The superlative structure in Arabic involves the use of a structure with an intensified noun or an intensified adjective. This structure is not found in English and thus the error occurrence is not very high. The learner tends to use the English superlative structure correctly because he learns a totally new structure for the superlative. The comparative and superlative structures will be fully discussed in Chapter VII.

We shall now go on to discuss errors that deal with the use of the wrong modifier of the noun head. These errors involve a singular modifier with a plural head or a plural modifier with a singular head.

3 Use of a Singular Demonstrative with a Plural Head and Vice Versa

- 3a) All this things are nonsense.
- 3b) This discoveries in science gave progress to the world.
- 3c) I am sorry for this words.
- 3d) This plans did not work.
- 3e) These information is valuable to the student.

Cross-sectional Study	=	297
Stage I	=	28
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

Number being the property of the whole NP construction, demonstratives are affected by the number of the noun-head when they function as qualifiers within the English NP. The situation is the same in Arabic. Arabic demonstratives are affected by the noun-head and are inflected for number and gender. The demonstratives in Arabic are allusive and require a context to make the allusion understandable. The allusion can be to a generalised fact or idea that has been mentioned, and not to an overt entity.

Arabic has two sets of these demonstratives, corresponding to the English 'near' demonstratives, 'this', 'these', and the 'far' demonstratives 'that' and 'those'. Each set comprises five items. The gender contrast is marked in the singular and dual but not in the plural. Thus we have:

1)	<u>hadha:</u>	= this (masc.))	
	<u>hadhihi</u>	= this (fem.))	singular
'NEAR'	<u>ha?ula:?</u>	= these (fem. and masc.))	plural
	<u>hadhayni</u>	= these (masc.))	
	<u>hatayni</u>	= these (fem.))	dual
2)	<u>dha:lika</u>	= that (masc.))	
	<u>tilka</u>	= that (fem.))	singular
'FAR'	<u>?ula:?ika</u>	= those (masc. and fem.))	plural
	<u>dha:nika</u>	= those (masc.))	
	<u>ta:nika</u>	= those (fem.))	dual

If one of these demonstrative pronouns is immediately followed by the definite article then the two combined form a demonstrative adjective.

e.g. ha:dha-l-kita:bu = this book

In colloquial Arabic the demonstratives are expressed by

<u>da</u>	= this/that (masc.))	
<u>di</u>	= this/that (fem.))	singular
<u>dool</u>	= these/those (masc. and fem.))	plural

Dool also serves for the dual and the distinction between 'far' and 'near' is not made.

The situation being thus, there seems to be no reason why the learner should fall into errors of interference where the demonstratives are concerned since the system in Arabic is very similar to English and even more complicated where gender and number is concerned. However the error he falls into is not one of number or gender although this may seem so at first. The error is one due to phonology and phonetics in Egyptian colloquial Arabic. We notice that the learner makes an error where the demonstratives this and these are concerned and not with that or those. The English sounds / th / as in / thin / and / dh / as in / then / belong to classical and standard Arabic, and occur sporadically when reading written language aloud. Colloquial Egyptian changes these consonants into / s / as in / sin / and / z / as in / Zen / respectively, especially in rapid speech.

Thus the name

/ buthayna /

is always pronounced as

/ busayna / = name of a girl

and the noun

/ radha:dh /

is pronounced as

/ raza:z / = spray

Hence the Egyptian pronounces the English / the / invariably as /ze/ and / this / as / zis /. The fact that the sound / dh / is followed by / s / with only a short / i / vowel between them provides a great difficulty for the learner. To make things more difficult, Arabic has two / i / vowel sounds. When short, / i / as in English / bit / presents no difficulty. When long as in English / sheep / it does present a difficulty because the long / i: / in Arabic is approximate to the / i / in English /beet/, but with more tension in the tongue and greater spreading of the lips. An example that illustrates both qualities is

/ kibi:r / = big

The long / i: / is pronounced short in accordance with rules of vowel length and it tends to retain the quality described for long / i: /, not final / i /. In

/ shi:li / = remove

the qualities of / i: / and / i / are substantially the same especially in rapid speech. It is therefore difficult for the learner to pronounce / these / with a long / i: / sound. Considering the difficulty with the consonant / dh / followed by the long / i: / and then the / s / sound, the learner ends up by producing / zis / for both / this / and / these /. In writing the learner produces what he pronounces on paper. The many occurrences of the error with 'this things' and not with that proves this fact. The only error occurring with these in the plural and not with those proves that the difficulty lies in the pronunciation of the / i: / vowel sound and their confusion by the learner. Hence the phonological error is transferred to the level of graphology producing an error of number concord in syntax. The learner may not be aware of the error he is producing in terms of number concord, but when he is corrected he definitely knows that this is used for the singular and these for the plural.

Another possible source of error is the fact that Standard Arabic uses the singular feminine demonstrative ha:dhihi before any noun that is not animate even if this noun is in the plural. Thus we have

ha:dhihi mayadinun fasiHatun = These are big circuses
(squares)

Rarely, or maybe never, is the plural demonstrative ha:?ula:? = these, used with a plural inanimate noun. However we cannot blame Arabic alone for it does have number and gender concord where demonstratives are concerned. In English, all adjectives have the same form both in the singular and plural except two: this and that. Therefore it is possible that under the overwhelming pressure of all other adjectives, these two words are also treated as unchangeable by the learner. The occurrence of these with the noun information in (3e) is perhaps due to the notion of plurality implied in the noun information both in English and Arabic as has been explained in a previous section. Therefore the learner does know that these is used for the plural. The alteration of his use of these and this shows that

he is still grappling with the rules of morphology and of phonology. It is worth the teacher's while to stress the phonological difference between the long and the short vowel in English, and the distinction between the sounds / th / and / s / and /dh/ and / z / for the sake of clarity.

4 Errors in the Use of the Genitive

- 4a) We can then know countries' systems.
- 4b) Our economics's condition is very bad.
- 4c) Humanity's history is very long (?)
- 4d) The university's education is considered better than the technical education.
- 4e) For lunch we ate many sandwiches of meat.
- 4f) The study of them is complicated.
- 4g) The sun heat was very strong.

Cross-sectional study	=	271
Stage I	=	23
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

In English the central but far from the only use of the genitive is to express possession. The construction indeed is called by many the 'possessive case' and pronouns with genitive function are called 'possessive pronouns'. But this label does not adequately apply to all uses of them. The more common meanings of the genitive include 'the subjective genitive', 'the objective genitive', 'the genitive of origin' and 'the descriptive genitive'. The genitive in English has two forms:

- 1) the inflected Genitive or the "-s" genitive (modifying NP + 's + head noun)

2) The perisphrastic Genitive or the 'of' genitive (head noun + of + modifying noun phrase).

The two forms of the genitive are not normally in free variation. Selection of the 's' genitive is best described in relation to the gender classes represented by the noun which takes the 's' suffix. It is favoured by the classes that are highest on the gender scale i.e. animate nouns, in particular persons and animals with personal gender characteristics. Arabic does not make this animate/inanimate distinction in the genitive. But although in English we can say

'the children's books'

and

'the books of the children'

we cannot say

*'the book's cost'?

In 4(a) the learner falls into error the distinction not being made in Arabic between animate and inanimate nouns where the annexion structure is concerned. Although it has been pointed out to the learner that the inflected genitive is used with animate nouns in English, he is confused by some lexical noun heads which are not animate and still take the inflected genitive in English.

e.g. the river's edge

the water's surface

He therefore uses the 's' genitive and 'of' genitive in free variation. In (4b) the learner uses the inflected genitive under the influence of the Arabic annexion structure. However here the complexity of English plays its part. The perisphrastic 'of' has a very close correspondence to 'have' sentences in noun phrase postmodification.

'The condition of our economy'

implies that our economy has a certain condition. The relation expressed by the genitive here is a 'subjective' rather than an 'objective' relation. This is more clearly seen in expressions like

the arrival of the bus

where the head is a nominalised verb, than in our example

the condition of the economy

where the predicational relationship is covert. The replacement of the subjective 'of phrase' by the inflected genitive is common with most types of heads. They are especially easy to understand where the 'subject' is a human noun:

e.g. The student's speech

But there are subjective genitives where replacement by the inflected genitive is impossible. We cannot say

*A condition of the economics's

The covertness in the syntactic function of the genitive construction here makes the learner fall into error because of the difficulty of the item. On the other hand, the learner may be inflecting the adjective 'economic' for the genitive, using the generalisation that since nouns and adjectives are inflected in the same way in Arabic, then an adjective could be inflected in the same way as the noun in English (see Section 7 in this chapter).

The error in (4c) needed a lot of thinking before actually we could take it as erroneous. The whole sentence seems just possible in English. Had the learner used 'Human history' instead of 'Humanity's history' the citation would have been perfectly correct and more usual. It is obvious here, however, that there is influence from the Arabic annexion structure:

'ta:rikhu-l-bashariyah'

which is literally 'humanity's history' i.e. a construction made up of 'noun+definite article + noun' in an annexion structure. The more correct form in English would have been a construction made up of 'attributive adjective + noun' i.e. human history. Had the learner used the periphrastic 'of' genitive he would have been safe, although the citation is not totally wrong as it stands. Still, it is not totally correct. Although the inflected genitive is used with certain kinds of inanimate nouns, it is erroneous because the relation of the genitive here is to the subject and the of form is required.

That 'humanity has a history' is implied and the genitive functions as subject which makes the replacement of the periphrastic genitive by the inflected genitive impossible (as in (4b)). There is no 's' form in Arabic. The notion of possession is expressed syntagmatically and not morphologically. This is a source of further confusion. The learner seems not to know the restrictions applying to the use of the inflected genitive and therefore uses it in free variation with the periphrastic genitive whenever he wants to express the idea of 'possession' etc. We notice, however, that in the last two citations and the one we are going to discuss next (4d), that the learner could have easily used an 'adjective + noun' construction and got away with it. But it is difficult for the learner, when nouns are used as adjectivals and modify other nouns, to actually recognise the function of these modifying nouns, first because they are not easy in English, and second because in Arabic there is no difference between adjective and noun except in function. The confusion can be seen by the fact that whereas (4c) needs an adjective 'human', (4d) uses a noun adjectivally. This seems to push the learner to lessen his linguistic load and instead of working out where he should use an adjective, and where a noun could be appropriately used adjectivally, he uses the equivalent of the structure he is most acquainted with, i.e. the annexion structure in Arabic. The open-endedness of the semantic implications in the Arabic annexion structure adds to the possibility of the occurrence of errors like (4d). The noun university is an adjectival premodifying the noun education attributively giving the meaning 'a type of education which is provided by a university'. The learner however mixes it up with the genitive because in Arabic the annexion structure 'university education' subsumes English genitive structures. We notice that he uses the definitive article 'the' before university education just like the Arabic defined construct does. Perhaps the learner's difficulty with nouns used adjectivally and with the genitive will become clearer in our discussion of our next error.

Arabic nouns proper are very rarely used as qualifiers although derived adjectives (Arabic Sifah mushabbahah) and participles are. Since the Arabic annexion structure can cope with even more semantic relations between the two elements than its English counter-part, the learner uses the 's' genitive where a periphrastic genitive or an adjective should be used. The same thing applies to phrases with 'of' and to other structures which break up the semantic relations between the elements of the phrase. Because a genitive construction in Arabic can premodify and post-modify a noun head, we find that the learner tends to use this construction instead of an adjectival in English, especially when he is not sure of the function of the adjectival, or if an apparent noun is used as an adjective and is not overtly obvious in its adjectival form. Hence we get phrases like

'sandwiches of meat' (4e)

Where 'meat sandwiches' is more appropriate. The noun meat does not look like an attributive adjectival to the learner, who is used to seeing it used in noun function only. In Arabic the second element of the annexion structure keeps to one inflectional marker (equivalent to the English "'s"), but the first element changes its inflexional marker according to its syntactic position in the sentence. The inflexional markers pointing to the function of an item are manifested in short vowels at the end of the word and to that extent are not apparent in unvowelled script, and hence can be disregarded for the purpose of simply reading and understanding Arabic as normally written. The student pays little attention as to whether a word functions as a noun or adjective while reading, especially since Arabic is his mother tongue and he has no cause to examine it linguistically. Therefore he uses the annexion structure which gives him an opportunity to do away with rule restrictions that govern the use of adjectives in premodifying and postmodifying structures in the NP.

The error in (4f) is a result of a confusion of two structures in English. The learner wants to communicate the

following: 'The subjects taught in the department are complicated for us to study'. He therefore confuses

'The study of the subjects'

and

'Their study by us'.

By using the first structure, 'them' is made object of 'study'. However the correct pronoun, (their in this case), should be used to determine 'the students' who are implied in the phrase 'by us'. What confuses the learner is the 'possessive' notion. In Arabic pronouns are affixed to the noun they modify. 'Their study' would be expressed as

mudha:karatihum

The notion of 'possession' found in 'possessive' pronouns makes him substitute a genitive construction for the possessive pronoun not realising the syntactical confusion that results.

In (4g) the learner uses a zero possessive. Arabic does not inflect the noun head for the possessive morphologically by adding a morpheme. Therefore the inflected genitive is usually more difficult to use for the learner than the periphrastic genitive. However he has used a direct annexion structure from Arabic composed of 'noun + amplifying noun'. Since this kind of structure subsumes the English genitive structure he has not inflected it for the genitive but left it in its Arabic form.

5 Errors in the Use of the Articles

The Non-definite Article

- 5a) This shows we need a new schools.
- 5b) I wish you all a good health.
- 5c) We ate a lunch.
- 5d) I didn't find any difference between a people who love each other whether they're German or Japanese.
- 5e) Technical education is an equal to university education.

- 5f) They must be useful in order to produce () good result.
- 5g) () Great number of people are poor.
- 5h) Some people think it is easy to be () student.

Cross-sectional Study	=	254
Stage I	=	22
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

The annexion structure previously discussed has within it a certain concept of definiteness and indefiniteness which is reflected in its syntactic structure. This has a great effect on the learner's use of the articles in English. Moreover the articles are affected in English by the countable/uncountable sub-categorisation of nouns which spreads over the whole NP structure. The effect of this on the learner's language is a haphazard distribution of error-types in the use of articles. Articles in English solely contribute definite or indefinite status to the nouns they determine. Where definiteness and indefiniteness for noun phrases is concerned, traditional grammarians have called 'a' the indefinite article and 'the' the definite. 'The' gives the noun a definite meaning specifying a particular one, group or thing. There is a distinction however between something which is simply not definite and something which is indefinite. This distinction is important in grammar. 'A' does not necessarily give the noun an 'indefinite' meaning. Some constructions with 'a' are quite definite in meaning. 'A' therefore should be really called the 'nondefinite' article. The point is that the definiteness in constructions with 'a', is not conveyed by the article alone, whereas 'the' alone does convey the meaning of definiteness. Distinctions of definiteness and

indefiniteness for all noun phrases, not just the ones containing 'a' and 'the', should be made by speakers. One would consider the proper name 'John' in

(1) John came yesterday

as more definite than 'the man' in

(2) The man came yesterday

which is in turn more definite than 'a man' in

(3) A man came yesterday.

'Any man' is still more indefinite than all the above. Determiners, including the articles, should therefore be divided into classes which differ semantically in that the members of one class are more (or less) definite than the members of another. 'The', 'any' and 'John' would belong to different classes for instances. Grammatically this division is important, for the determiner of a noun phrase is the decisive element in the acceptance of, for example, constructions like the relative clause. Not all noun phrases accept both a restrictive and a non-restrictive or appositive relative clause.

Consider:

(1) The book, which is about art, is interesting.

(2) *Any book, which is about art, is interesting.

(3) Any book which is about art is interesting.

From these examples we can see that 'any' cannot occur with non-restrictive relative clauses but 'the' can. Again we find that determiners are very much involved with both grammar and meaning and are very complex in English. Here the sheer complexity of English is a major cause of error.

The use of 'a' when it is not needed may be due to hyper-correction. The learner adds 'a' everywhere, as he knows that unlike Arabic, it is used in English; but he does not know when and when not to use it and so, he adds it before any noun. Otherwise it is possible that undefined nouns in Arabic that do not show an overt 'a' may make the learner feel that he ought to add 'a' to give them the undefined status. In (5a) the Arabic equivalent does not require an article but the learner uses 'a'

with a plural noun qualified by an adjective because he feels that 'new schools' is not definite but general in meaning and thus undefined. In (5b) although the Arabic equivalent would be unmarked the noun and its adjective being in the undefined state, the learner adds 'a' as he feels that an English singular noun is somehow connected with the indefinite article. He seems to class the noun 'health' into the 'count' category which attracts 'a'. Again, classing 'lunch' as a 'count' noun in (5c) the learner uses the indefinite article before it. He is not in control of article usage because he sometimes sees 'a' used with 'lunch' in expressions such as "We had a huge lunch" and so generalises the use of 'a' with nouns with or without adjectives. In (5d) the noun people is classed as 'count' and the learner disregards the fact that the preposition between implies a relationship between two groups and therefore 'a' is out of place. In (5e) the adjective is treated as a noun attracting the indefinite article.

It is difficult to say exactly why the learner adds 'a' when it is not needed. The analysis given is by no means a detailed or comprehensive one. The learner is undergoing interference both from Arabic and from the other terms of the article system in English. Sometimes where English and Arabic both do not use an article, the learner produces one. He seems to choose an alternative which is wrong both in his native and the target language. This at least points out that he is not operating in terms of native language equivalents only. He is somehow making an effort to learn English on its own terms. The use of some nouns as abstract and/or uncount nouns in general, makes the learner classify them as abstract/uncount even when they are used as concrete/count nouns in certain contexts. The heavy pressure of these nouns as uncount, rules out any attempt at correct sub-categorisation by the learner. As 'a' is associated with count nouns in the singular implying 'one', it is not used before 'result' in (5f), as to the learner it is an abstract noun associated with uncount even if it is preceded by an adjective which defines it. This over-generalisation helps the learner cut

down the tasks involved in correct sentence production.

In (5g) 'a' is dropped before the noun number because in combination with the adjective great it so obviously implies the meaning of more than one. The error in (5h) comes from Arabic. The learner would use in Arabic a verbal sentence beginning with ?ana and using the special verb ?aSbaHa to express the same idea. The noun following ?aSbaHa would be put in the accusative and is thereby defined and needs no article.

ya'ataqidu ba'aDa-n-nassi ?anahu min a-s-sahli ?an
yaSbaHa-l-?insanu Ta:liban =

Some people think it is easy for a person to become a student
The learner's use of 'a' when not needed or omission of 'a' when it is needed is very haphazard. There being no indefinite article in Arabic, the learner possesses no frame of reference which might facilitate comprehension of this feature and mastery of its use. However, in the contrastive analysis hypothesis, there is the erroneous assumption that whatever is similar is easy and whatever is different is difficult. But the continuum of 'same-similar-different' is not parallel with the continuum of 'no problem-easy-difficult'. Errors in the use of the definite article in the data, particularly in contexts when the use of both Arabic 'al' and English 'the' are alike, prove that constructions that correspond literally to their English equivalents are not necessarily the easiest to learn, and that the probability of error cannot be assessed only from the degree of divergence of the two linguistic structures. Although the use of 'the' in Arabic is in certain contexts similar to that of English, it is used for several other functions, as in expressing the genitive for example, and hence we have other causes for confusion and error. Moreover the presentation of this grammatical feature in the textbooks, and in current school textbooks as well, is so inadequate that the learner is largely obliged to build up his own system by intuition and guessing. Considerable linguistic experience is certainly a must where the uses of the articles in English are conditioned by extralingual reference. The uses which are signalled by linguistic devices are no less complicated but they

can at least be taught systematically, which may be a step towards improvement of this unsatisfactory state of affairs. We shall now see how the learner fares with his use of the definite article for which he has an equivalent in Arabic.

6 Errors in the Use of the Definite Article

- 6a) I am very happy in the Agami Beach.
- 6b) I saw and learned the facts of the daily life.
- 6c) I prefer the horror films.
- 6d) We haven't to mix the religion with the science.
- 6e) They began to make the aeroplanes and the boats.
- 6f) Bible and Koran are Holy books of God.
- 6g) I play all day on sand.
- 6h) I met a Japanese at Kuwait Hilton.
- 6i) The government built School of Agriculture.
- 6j) Our country will progress in best ways.

Cross-sectional Study	=	356
Stage I	=	30
Stage II	=	26
Stage III	=	15

Discussion and Explanation

Errors involving the use of the definite article when it is not needed may be the result of a false analogy between context and definiteness. The learner may feel that the nouns in question seem definite enough in the context to deserve the definite article. In this he is helped by Arabic on the road to error. In (6a) the learner violates the rule that says names, as proper nouns, have unique reference and do not share the characteristics of common nouns. In particular they lack article contrast. However if this is the general rule the learner is confused when he comes across proper nouns like 'the Suez Canal' and 'the Sudan'. At

best he may think that his teacher must be wrong and he proceeds to write 'the Agami Beach' quite happily. His conviction that the name is definite enough to require the definite article is strengthened by Arabic which uses the annexion structure even with proper nouns to indicate this same meaning.

e.g. sha:Ti?-l-'agami = the beach of Agami, the Agami Beach

In (6b) the is added before a noun which behaves like an abstract noun and is qualified by an adjective. This is usual in Arabic. If the noun is definite, the adjective must receive the definite article. Thus 'daily life' is expressed as

al-Hayatu-l-yawmiya = the daily life

The learner therefore feels that the noun in English is definite enough to require the use of the before it. The annexion structure in Arabic is used to express a construction made up of attributive adjective + noun in English. Hence in (6c) 'horror films' is expressed in Arabic by 'plural noun + definite article + adjective (substantive) literally 'films (of) the horror' i.e. the horror films. The learner carries the definite article over to the English construction as he feels that he is talking about specific kinds of films. But whereas in Arabic the article can be added to the plural substantives (especially in the genitive construction) in English one cannot do that. In (6d) the learner uses the definite article before abstract nouns like science and religion. In Arabic abstract nouns are defined by the definite article (which could be one source of error). However in English the words can be inflected for plurality in certain contexts where they behave as count nouns.

e.g. The human sciences are difficult

Different religions exist in the world

Here though the referent changes and "sciences and religions" is implied hence calling for the adjectives before the nouns for premodification. This could be another source of confusion. In (6e) the learner uses aeroplanes and boats in terms of generic reference. With generic reference the distinctions for number and definiteness are neutralised with count nouns. In Arabic this does not happen. Rather they are defined by the generalising definite article.

So far we have been blaming the learner for using the definite article when it is not needed. Now we are going to blame him for not using it when it is needed. However he is not really to blame. Rather English exceptions are the cause of error. The learner is taught that proper nouns, and nouns with a unique reference do not take an article. However the Koran and the Bible (6f) are among the exceptions that do take the definite article. So do names of public hotels like the Kuwait Hilton (6h) and institutions, especially those whose name is formed with an 'of' construction like the 'School of Agriculture' (6i). This is because many proper nouns are common nouns with unique references and are perfectly regular in taking the definite article, since they are basically premodified count nouns. The difference between an ordinary common noun and a common noun turned name is that the unique reference of the name has been institutionalised, as is made overt in writing by initial capital letter. The error in (6j) however is due to the construction of the superlative in Arabic which is expressed by the annexion structure and when it is not specific it is not preceded by the definite article. Error (6g) we cannot explain. Both Arabic and English use the definite article in such a construction. The only explanation that appears plausible to us is that the learner confuses the notion of number, countability and definiteness in the NP. Number is connected to countability/uncountability where the subcategorisation of nouns is concerned. The learner knows that sand is uncountable (if only through his experience of the Arabic saying which says that sand cannot be counted). He knows from English that it is plural although he does read phrases like

the sands of the desert

'The' and 'a' are connected in his mind with countable nouns and forgetting that 'the' is connected with definiteness and indefiniteness and can be used with plural/singular countable and uncountable nouns, he fails to use it. However as we have pointed out before, the learner is not quite sure of his use of the articles in general. He alternates between using them

correctly and committing errors. Interference between the various functions of articles in English confuses the learner once he acquires the system of article usage and Arabic interference plays its part as well. Where the learner omits the article as in (6g) it shows that for some reason the learner chooses an alternative that is wrong in both his native and the target language. The only positive aspect of this is that the learner is at a systemic stage and not solely operating in terms of his L₁.

7 Adjective Inflected as Noun

- 7a) This education breeds clevers men.
- 7b) Suitables friends must have the same interests.
- 7c) Difficults situations are not rare.
- 7d) Egypt has steels factories.
- 7e) In many others cases it is successful

Cross-sectional Study	=	110
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

In Arabic, a word functioning as an adjective must exhibit the overt mark of defined versus undefined contrast corresponding to the status of the amplified substantive in that respect. The phrase

al qa:di-l-'a:dil

is recognisable as a substantive + adjective meaning

the just judge

by the presence of the article with the adjective as well as with the substantive. It is also a grammatical rule that the adjective must be marked as masculine or feminine correspondingly to the

grammatical gender of the substantive. In respect of numerical marking also, the adjective exhibits the same marker as its substantive. Pluralities of non-persons are not amplified by an adjective marked by the external plural morphemes, but by the feminine singular marker. On the other hand, an internal plural marker of the adjective is acceptable in all cases, whether the substantive denotes persons or not, provided that the adjective has the morphological potentiality of internal plural marking. Almost all the errors in this section are therefore due to mother-tongue interference. It is interesting to note that they are few in number and are characteristic of the cross-sectional study when the learner is almost still at the presystemic stage where this rule is concerned.

Error (7e) is interesting because although it might be argued that it could be due to Arabic interference, there is also a strong argument for the fact that others cases is due rather to interference from other forms of the system other - another - others in English.

8 Use of Singular Pronoun for Plural Antecedent and vice versa

- 8a) I shall realise my dreams or at least most of it.
- 8b) You cannot walk in the streets because it is very crowded.
- 8c) I remembered my days in my country and felt sorry for it.
- 8d) A friend we chose we don't know their characters at first.
- 8e) I used to discuss their point of view and try to understand why they were not like ours.
- 8f) He keeps the secret and doesn't broadcast them.

Cross-sectional Study	=	355
Stage I	=	36
Stage II	=	22
Stage III	=	18

Discussion and Explanation

The errors here may be classified as memory limitation errors since the learner may have produced them because he forgets the plurality or singularity of the antecedent, and thereby fails to sustain agreement between the noun and the pronoun. But somehow, although this is possible, the nature of the errors makes this explanation rather naive. One can argue that they may also be explained with the same arguments we used in explaining the errors involving the lack of agreement between determiners and quantifiers and their noun heads i.e. because of the complexity of the NP in English and the fact that the noun head dictates number concord. But a more logical explanation is found for citations (8a), (8b) and (8c) in one of the Arabic number rules. This rule says that all Arabic plurals which do not refer to rational beings are grammatically feminine singular so that all adjectives qualifying plurals of inanimate objects or abstract ideas and all pronouns replacing such inanimate objects or abstract ideas must be in the feminine singular. Thus in,

kutubun 'arabi:yatun = Arabic books

the adjective Arabic is in the feminine singular. In

al-?aya:m allati qaDaytuha = the days I have spent

the pronoun ha which refers back to al ?aya:m = days, is in the feminine singular. ha = it, she. Therefore (8a) in Arabic would be

sawfa ?uHaqqiqu ?aHla:mi ?aw ?aktharuha

The pronoun ha = it, refers back to ?aHla:mi = my dreams. This seems to be the distractor that makes the learner fall into error in (8a), (8b) and (8c). Therefore in this case he is operating the rules of his mother-tongue in English.

In making the errors in (8d), (8e) and (8f) the learner is at a more sophisticated stage of language acquisition. We notice that the singular noun heads in the three examples friend, point of view and secret respectively, could actually have been more

correct if they had been put in the plural, from the point of view of meaning, denotation and style. Consider if the sentences had been the following:

- 8d) The friends we chose we don't know how their characters at first
- 8e) I used to discuss their points of view and try to understand why they were not like ours
- 8f) He keeps secrets and doesn't broadcast them

They certainly would have been more correct where meaning is concerned because they have a general non-definite denotation, which is what the learner meant them to have. Therefore by actually giving a plural pronoun, the learner has in a way corrected himself and shown that he is aware of an error somewhere, and of the need for the plural. But of course in trying to correct the error in meaning, he makes an error in syntax. These last three errors show that the learner is grappling with rules of English syntax as well as rules of semantics. It is an error which is 'healthy' showing his progress through his struggle with rules. He has acquired 'the feel' of English correct expression and is trying hard to achieve this.

9 Errors in the Use of the Pronominal System

- 9a) In life we ask ourself many questions.
- 9b) They must consider themselves lucky.
- 9c) We enjoyed ourselves that day very much.
- 9d) We went there ourselves to see if this is true.
- 9e) He depend on his self.
- 9f) Yours daughter (ending a letter)
- 9g) Your's daughter (ending a letter)
- 9h) The world must progress in her industry.
- 9i) The man which came was very kind to us.
- 9j) It is difficult to find two friends whom have the same ideas.
- 9k) The man to who he told the story believed him.
- 9l) The father who his son died had a heart attack.

Cross-sectional Study	=	164
Stage I	=	15
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	7

Discussion and Explanation

The source of the errors in citations (9a) and (9b) is quite obvious. Some Arabic words with the abstract significance of 'Portion', 'Difference', 'Totality' etc. have become so closely related to their genitive construction that they have lost much of their original meaning in order to modify that of their subordinate genitive in the annexion structure. We have already discussed this while dealing with quantifiers like some. Amongst these is the word nafs = 'soul', 'spirit'. This word is still frequently used independently in meaning and construction, but it is also frequently used as a word of emphatic identification, semantically equivalent to the English self, and/or same, attributed then to persons and things alike.

e.g. fi nafsi baytiha = in her house itself

It is also used as an appositive to a definite noun governing a suffixed pronoun which refers to the preceding noun.

e.g. tadulu fi nafsi-l-waqti 'ala = at the same time it
proves

The word is also used as object of a verb and governing a suffixed pronoun which refers to the subject of the verb. There it has a reflexive meaning.

e.g. ka'anahu yuridu ?an yaHmiya nafsahu = as if to protect
himself

When the genitive following nafs or the suffixed pronoun attached to it is a dual or a plural, the dual or plural of nafs is generally used. The plural form is ?anfus in this case.

e.g. al-'arab ?anfuhum = the Arabs themselves

Another plural, nufus, is also used with a reflexive meaning.

e.g. ?antum tas?aluna nufusakumu = you ask yourselves

In colloquial Egyptian Arabic, the plural of nafs is never used.

Rather the words ourselves and themselves would be expressed as nafsina and nafsum respectively. The number inflection does not appear in the word self = nafs but in the suffixed pronoun na and hum as it does also in standard Arabic. The learner therefore does not inflect 'self' for the plural and assumes that since our and them are already plural pronouns, this is sufficient. Hence the errors in (9a) and (9b).

In (9c) and (9d) the learner is aware that English does inflect the morpheme self when it is part of a reflexive pronoun. He however has not mastered the rules of formation of plural endings with words ending in f. This particular simple rule often is a stumbling block for the Arab learner as there is no / v / sound in Arabic. The learner not only finds it difficult to pronounce / v / alone, but finds it even more difficult to pronounce it when in combination with other sounds. This explains (9c). Probably in (9d) the learner, remembering to change the / f / into a / v / forgets to add the other part of the plural morpheme / s / to the word. The fact that the errors are varied in source, i.e. that they are related to mother-tongue and other than mother-tongue causes, shows again that the learner is not operating solely in terms of mother-tongue equivalents.

The next error is an error of case. The learner uses the possessive pronoun his instead of the personal pronoun in the objective case him in (9e). We have explained before that the word nafs in Arabic means self. This word apart from being used as a reflexive can also be used independently to mean 'soul' or 'spirit'. The learner here seems to treat it as an independent noun and modify it with the pronoun his instead of treating it as a reflexive. In Arabic citation (9e) would be:

yagibu ?an ya'tamida 'ala nafsihi

where the pronoun (suffixed) hi + nafs literally means self + his. The learner seems to actually use this construction instead of using the pronoun in the objective case. It is to be noted that this error was characteristic of the cross-sectional study and did not occur at all in the data of the specialists at any stage. The learner seems to be at a very unstable stage of his language acquisition where this particular item is concerned.

The errors in (9f) and (9g) were mostly found in the cross-sectional study where one of the topics dealt with the writing of a personal letter. The learner is taught how to write an English letter at school, since writing a letter in Arabic involves different requirements for the general layout. All learners have put the heading of the letter in the correct form. However confusion seems to arise where the subscription is concerned. The learners are taught to sign their letters 'Yours sincerely' followed by their name. In Arabic the subscription is usually made up of 'Your daughter' or 'Your son' or 'Your loving friend' followed by the name. The learner knows that English uses 'Yours' and presumes that he can add nouns like 'daughter' or 'son' after it. He does not realise, and it has not been pointed out to him, that 'Yours' is actually another simpler form of formal subscriptions in letters like 'I am, dear Sir, Yours faithfully' followed by the signature.

The confusion arises more from interference from the several forms of the English system your, yours and your's and their different functions. The 's' and its form, whether it is present or not, whether it is preceded or followed by an apostrophe, does not appear to be of any significance to the learner. Its significance is obliterated because firstly, in Arabic there is no apostrophe,

and secondly, in English, the learner does not know its function. In his endeavour to get things right he adds it in any of its forms just because he has been taught that subscriptions on English letters take the form 'Yours'

Error (9h) violates gender rules. It must be remembered that in Arabic there are only two genders, masculine and feminine. Like all Semitic languages, it has no neuter gender. The third person pronoun in English has a three-way contrast between he, she and it. The learner has no difficulty at all in making a distinction between the masculine and the feminine. However he seems to have a problem where the human/non human distinction is concerned. Here we must remember that gender in Arabic is grammatical and not natural i.e. nouns may be either masculine or feminine but not necessarily either male or female. Some nouns are common nouns i.e. they can be either feminine or masculine. This of course is very important where pronouns are concerned when they either refer back to nouns or have to agree with nouns when occurring together. The word world = dunia: in Arabic is feminine by form. Any noun in Arabic ending in a: or 'alif maksura, when that termination does not belong to the root of the word, is immediately feminine in gender. That is why the learner uses the pronoun her in (9h). One must say that the error is not very common but it recurred enough for us to take it into account.

The errors in (9i) and (9j) are due both to English and to colloquial Arabic. Relative pronouns in English introduce relative clauses postmodifying nominal heads. The relative pronoun will be discussed here but the relative clause will be left till Chapter 7. The relative pronoun has anaphoric reference to the NP (the antecedent) which is postmodified by the entire relative clause. The difference between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses will be further discussed later but here we are only interested in relative clause function since this affects the choice of the relative pronoun. Relative pronouns include two

series: 1) the 'wh-pronouns' who, whom, whose, which and what, and 2) that or zero. Neither series has number or person contrast. However the 'wh-series' has gender contrast for who/which (personal/non personal, respectively) and case contrast for who/whom/whose (subjective/objective/genitive respectively). In Standard Arabic the relative pronouns are inflected for number, gender and case. An important point to notice is that if the noun qualified by the relative is indefinite, the relative pronoun is omitted altogether.

e.g. ragulun gatalu:hu = a man whom they killed

Hence in Arabic the relative clause may stand alone without the introducing relative pronoun as a separate whole sentence. In English however the relative clause may not stand alone and is always an incomplete sentence. In colloquial Arabic the single form illi serves as a sort of coverall phrase and clause marker and it is used indiscriminately for persons as well as things. The actual relative clause in Arabic and colloquial Arabic is really an adjectival phrase which in the corresponding indefinite context either 1) begins with a verb or 2) consists variously of a prepositional phrase or an adverb. If the noun qualified by the relative is definite then the relative pronoun is obligatory. Therefore the use of relative pronouns in Arabic must be seen within the total context of 'definition'. In order to teach the correct use of relative clauses and relative pronouns effectively, the teacher must be aware of the above. Some time must be spent clarifying and drilling the differences between who and which as well as that, whom and whose.

The error in (9i) could be the result of a colloquial Arabic equivalent which uses illi = that, who, which, as this is used indiscriminately for persons as well as things. But although on the other hand English makes the distinction between 'personal' and 'non-personal' where the use of relative pronouns is concerned, the learner sees that that is also sometimes used for the 'personal'. In his confusion he does not allow for the gender contrast which is obligatory when using which. There is no

plausible reason why that should be used without the 'personal' and not which in the learner's mind, as he does not know that that can only be used with restricted relative clauses.

The error in (9j) is an error of Case. The learner is taught that who is used for the subjective Case and whom for the objective Case. But in English the distribution of who overlaps with that of whom in certain functions.

e.g. This is the man to whom you spoke

(whom)
This is the man (who) you spoke to

The learner is bound to be confused by this. Seeing in (9j) that the object of the first sentence is two friends he immediately inflects the pronoun for the objective Case. The confusion that the distribution and overlapping of the use of who and whom causes is even more obvious in (9k). Where whom is obligatory, as it is a complement immediately following a preposition, he writes who.

The error in (9l) results from a construction in Arabic (or rather a variation on this construction) in the learner's mind. If the subject of a subordinate relative clause is other than the noun or pronoun qualified by it, then the relative must be resumed by a personal pronoun in Arabic.

e.g. al-ragulu-lladhi qataluhu = The man whom they killed
(literally the man who they killed him)

A sentence like the one in (9l) would therefore be

al-ragulu-lladhi ma:ta ?ibnuhu = (literally the man who
died his son)

The learner however does not use the direct Arabic equivalent as he realises that it is not compatible with English sentence and clause structure. He transforms it into:

* The man who his son died

The genitive, he imagines, has been included by the pronoun 'his'. and the relative by the pronoun who. This is perfectly logical as whose seems to be made up of these two components. It is however not acceptable in English as whose is accepted as the

genitive case of relative pronouns.

10 An Error in the Word Order of the Noun Phrase

- 10a) Dear my family.
- 10b) Dear my sister.
- 10c) Dear my friend.

Cross-sectional Study	=	178
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

The error in this section is a very interesting one. Contrastive analysis would predict that errors in word order are the result of interference from Arabic, in which adjectives always follow the noun head, whereas in English they generally precede it. Here however the learner has put the adjective correctly before the noun head. Where he has gone wrong is in putting the determiner between the adjective and the noun head. The learner has probably been warned on many occasions about the position of adjectives in English and he is very careful in placing them before the noun head. He has also been taught, again very carefully, to start an English personal letter with the words 'Dear Ali', 'Dear Daddy', 'Dear Aunt Fawzia', 'Dear Cousin' etc. He is also taught that a letter to a person with whom one is on very friendly terms, may be begun 'My dear Ali'. The salutation on personal letters in Arabic are usually put in the following way:

1) 'azi:zi muhammad = (literally) dear my Muhammad meaning 'My dear Muhammad'. Another way to start a letter is:

2) ?usrati al-'azi:za = (literally) family my dear
i.e. 'My dear family'. The pronoun suffixed to the adjective
'dear' in (1) is i = my. The pronoun suffixed to the noun 'family'
in (2) is i = my. Therefore the pronoun can be suffixed to any
word, depending on the syntactic structure of the phrase.

i.e. adjective + pronoun + noun

or noun + pronoun + adjective

The meaning in both is the same. The learner having been taught that adjectives precede nouns in English uses the construction 'adjective + pronoun + noun'. He places the determiner in the wrong place because he does not identify the pronoun as a determiner. He sees the word 'my' used in different positions in English sentences, and he has not been warned (like he was with the adjective) that 'my' has a particular position where word order of noun phrases is concerned. Therefore encouraged by the word order in his mother-tongue he uses it as he does in (10a), (10b) and (10c). This is one error where hypercorrection of an item in a certain construction, could make both learner and teacher forget about errors that could occur with the other items; because the stress on the item that is different from the mother-tongue is very great, it obscures the importance of the other items in the construction in the mind of the learner who is still sorting out the rules of English usage for himself. Therefore although contrastive analysis was very useful in making the learner avoid the error in word order where the adjective is concerned, the teacher has to be very careful in presenting his material so that the importance given to this item and the rules that govern it does not diminish the importance of the rules governing other items in the same construction.

11 Graphological Errors

11a) Everyday we went to the beach.

11b) Education is important in the life of every one.

- 11c) I invited her to spend sometimes with me.
11d) We eat altogether.
11e) Everyone of them hopes for a boy or a girl.
11f) I though may be she is ill.

Cross-sectional Study	=	201
Stage I	=	7
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

The graphological errors are not only spelling errors. They show that the learner cannot make the distinction between the semantic differences of words that sound the same. Homonyms that sound the same can lead to grave syntactic errors. The errors stem from the fact that the forms look and sound alike. This creates a confusion in the learner's mind. This confusion shows itself clearly in (11a) and (11b). The learner sees the words everybody and everyone written as one unit and by analogy writes everyday forgetting that every is a determiner of inclusive meaning and a distributive and cannot be connected to the noun following it. On the other hand in (11b) where the learner should use everyone to give the distributive meaning of every, he writes every one as two words. One is a numeral and also a singular count pronoun. As a pronoun it may be followed by of. One so used can follow quantifiers like every. The learner mixes the use of everyone and every one because the meanings are very close and he thus mixes the personal and the non-personal reference. In (11e) the opposite happens. The confusion in (11c) is that of mixing up the 'some + noun' series. The learner is mixed up between some time, sometimes and some time in meaning. The learner should have really used some time meaning a bit of time i.e. the determiner some + the singular count noun time. The determiner some is stressed. But the learner mixes it with the frequency adverb sometimes. In (11d)

the learner does not differentiate between all together and altogether. In other words he is mixing up the degree adverb (with a limit word) functioning as a modifier, with the determiner all in its inclusive meaning + together meaning all of us. In (11f) the adverbial maybe expressing 'possibility of a fact' is mixed up with the modal auxiliary may + the infinitive of be. In fact may as an auxiliary has the meaning of possibility and thus the learner is easily led astray because of similarity of meaning and sound; but in terms of form and in terms of syntactic function the two items are different. It is worthwhile if the teachers pointed out the differences in graphology to the learner as the Arabic script is different to the Latin one and the learner may commit a graphological error unwittingly and find himself making a more serious syntactic and semantic error than he perceives.

On the whole the learner fails to recognise the extensive domain of the basic subcategorisation of the noun classes which spreads all over the NP structure in English. He is further confused by the similarity in meaning of some items like the quantifiers many, much and a lot of. Items that look alike like the some and any series also confuse him. Moreover the fact that items like some time, sometime and sometimes sound alike do not make things any easier. Not forgetting that because of the aural/oral approach used in the schools the learner is used to hearing and orally producing these words more than writing them, we can realise the ease with which the confusion can arise. The textbooks are not of great help leaving much to be desired where the relationship between form and meaning is concerned. The grouping of items that practically mean the same thing in one lesson, seems to complicate rather than make matters easier. As if this was not enough, Arabic interference causes more error because Arabic sometimes sub-classifies form-classes and nouns differently. It is no wonder that the learner 'doesn't learn' as teachers keep repeating.

The major causes of errors are found to be

- 1) The complexity of English in the area of the Noun Phrase.
- 2) The learner's attempt to generalise rules to deal with language data.
- 3) The learner's wrong application of rules to sub-categories to which they should not be applied.
- 4) Teaching materials in the textbooks
- 5) Interference from L₁ structures.

Interference from the mother-tongue has for long been known to be the cause of some errors in the target language. However it is certainly noted that learners of English with different mother tongues have been known to make the same type of errors committed here, e.g. the omission of the articles, the use of the articles when not needed, the subcategorisation of nouns into count and uncount etc.⁽¹⁾ Apart from errors that are solely due to Arabic like the use of the singular demonstrative with a plural head in Section 3, and the inflection of adjectives in Section 7, the errors here are developmental errors resulting from interference of items in English and enhanced by Arabic forms. Therefore an important conclusion drawn is that mother-tongue interference is not a major factor of error. Rather the division between errors traceable to mother-tongue interference and those traceable to intralingual interference (i.e. between items in English) in the target language is not invariably clear cut. A cross association of both does exist and errors due to the complexity of English are dominant. It is only at a very early stage - the presystemic stage - that the learner translates directly from his mother-tongue. As soon as he acquires the system of a feature in English his errors are mostly due to interference between items of that feature in the target language on various levels.

(1) See Dusikova, L., (1969), Richards, J., (1974), Jain, M.P., 1974 (in Richards, J., (1974)

C H A P T E R I V

THE VERB PHRASE

Introduction

For almost any language, the part that concerns the verb is the most difficult. The great complexity lies in the internal semantic and syntactic structure of the verb phrase itself. Palmer⁽¹⁾ thinks that

"Learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language, and except in the case of those that are related historically, the pattern and structure of the verb in each language seem to differ very considerably from those in every other language."

The verbal patterns of languages differ in two ways; first of all formally, in the way in which the linguistic material is organised, and secondly in the type of information carried by the utterances and the forms. For this reason the English VP constitutes the most difficult learning problem for the learner and it is an area in which he makes the majority of his errors. Moreover, Arabic is an inflectional language, i.e. the verbal features are expressed almost entirely by inflection and affixation, whereas English is an 'isolating' language where verbs have other than inflectional devices for expressing verbal features. The essential difference is in the number of the verbal forms and in the way in which the verbal forms are divided into words that carry meaning. More difficult for the learner is the nature of information carried by the verbal forms and the way these forms function. The so-called 'simple present tense' has a certain formal simplicity which tempts teachers and text-book writers to make it the starting point for a description and explanation of verb systems in English. But what they disregard is its functional complexity and the different types of information it carries, with the result that

(1) Palmer, F.R., (1974) (First Edition 1965), p.1

the learner misuses it all the time. Speakers of Indo-European and other languages generally expect verbs to tell them something about time, past, present and future. Time however isn't dealt with only by the verb in English. The learner also finds difficult the variety of other features only indirectly associated with time, that are indicated by the verb. In English the verb may indicate that an action took place in a period preceding, but continuing right up to the present moment, as well as simply in the past. In Arabic what is important is whether or not the action has been completed.

Whereas the verb-phrase plays an indispensable role in the structure and meaning conveyed by every English sentence, the Arabic verb plays a less important part. Although this is not a theoretical study of the verb systems in English and Arabic, it is nevertheless necessary to give as thorough an examination as possible of the relevant parts of the systems. This is partly because the English verb-forms that are not normally found in Arabic will have to be made clear to explain the occurrence of certain errors.

The English Verb Phrase

In any discussion of the English VP, the appropriate grammatical categories constitute the best point of departure for making more precise the definition of verbs and verb phrases. There are seven grammatical categories in relation to which verb-forms must be placed. Three of these, Person, Number and Finitude are marginal features, the first two being features of Concord, and the last characterising forms belonging to the verb conjugationally. Finitude is the property of being, or not being subject to limitation in respect of the two Concord categories of Person and Number. The remaining four, Tense, Aspect, Mood and Voice are the main features of the VP. These four features have been traditionally assigned to the VP as features at 'phrase level'; but in some instances, especially where Mood is concerned, the features seem to belong to the 'Clause level'. Chomsky has

assigned Mood to the phrase level, and this can be justified, since in many cases Mood is solely reflected in the form of the verb

e.g. God forbid that it should happen,

where the VP is uninflected in the environment of a singular noun phrase subject. But, as in the case of Concord, Mood is also concerned with the governmental relations between the subject and its verb, and so we tend to agree with Halliday who recognises Mood as a clause-level feature. Although Mood is best discussed in Chapter VII, a chapter on the verb phrase without a discussion of Mood would be incomplete. We shall therefore include in this chapter the deviations in Mood that come under phrase level only.

It is not very difficult to separate Mood and Voice for individual treatment but it is almost impossible to split up Tense and Aspect. Chomsky's formula for the verb phrase in English⁽¹⁾ confirms the very close relationship between Tense and Aspect.

VP \longrightarrow Aux + V

Aux \longrightarrow C (M) (have + en) (be + ing) (be + en)

where C is a tense marker (past and present) and the series (have + en), (be + ing), (be + en) are optional tense with aspectual inflectional affixes. Many English grammarians have also found the separation of Tense and Aspect difficult and unnecessary.⁽²⁾ This is because when we describe an action in the present or past, we want to indicate not only Time, but also whether the action is completed or is still going on; hence the verb cluster is likely to carry signalling features in addition to Tense and Person, one of these features being Aspect. It is therefore worthwhile to define Tense and Aspect separately first, and although a case may be made for splitting them up for the purposes of academic grammatical description, such a split would not be necessary in a practical study such as ours.

(1) Chomsky, N., (1957), p.39

(2) See Branford, (1967), p.142

Tense:

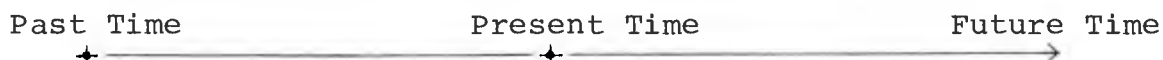
When speaking of Tense two problems arise. First, what does the term Tense exactly mean and what can be called proper tenses in English? Secondly, should we or should we not conclude that Tense implies Time?

The latter controversy applies to Arabic as well as to English where Tense is concerned. To deal with both points it is interesting to find out how Tense and Time have been defined. Leech⁽¹⁾ states that by Tense

"we understand the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of Time (past, present or future)."

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ explain this more fully:

"Time is a universal concept with three divisions



The concept is universal in that the units of time are extra-linguistic: they exist independently of the grammar of any particular language. In our use of language, however, we make linguistic reference to these extra-linguistic realities by means of the language-specific category of tense."

This definition is plausible to us for reasons that will become obvious. On the basis of this definition, even older grammarians like Jespersen,⁽³⁾ recognise two tenses in English "the present and the preterit". Jespersen explains the whole verb tense system within a seven point framework of time. Palmer⁽⁴⁾ also states that there are "strictly speaking.....two tenses to cover the past-present-future time continuum"; but he goes on

(1) Leech, G., (1975), p.305

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p.84

(3) Jespersen, O., (1969), p.231

(4) Palmer, H. and Blandford, (1969), p.176

to call all forms 'tenses' since "there are Past and Present Tenses in each Time Reference, of which there are two in each Aspect, making eight tenses in all". Zandvoort⁽¹⁾ recognises two tenses and uses the term 'Progressive' for the traditionally known 'continuous forms'. Most grammarians do not hesitate to use 'tense' as an all inclusive term and discuss the grammatical meanings of the various forms, using various terms to help them do so. Among those are Leech⁽²⁾, Allen⁽³⁾, Ward⁽⁴⁾ and Close⁽⁵⁾. Twaddell⁽⁶⁾ avoids the term 'tense' altogether and like Joos⁽⁷⁾ restricts it to present and past forms, and uses a variety of other terms to designate the other forms. Generally there seems to be a controversy still on the time/tense relationship and on the limitation of the term 'tense' to specific forms. However, we notice that most grammarians define Tense in terms of Time, and tend to use tense as an all inclusive term. We shall accept Quirk et al's definition of Tense and Time because while separating tense from time, it also shows how one is related to the other. This relation explains why it is sometimes impossible to separate time and tense. The most important point is not to confuse tense with time and to recognise that they are not identical. This is because in some cases the time-denotation of the tense-form does not coincide with the time-denotation it is usually associated with. An example is where the present tense form is used to express future time in sentences like:

The horses run at Newmarket to-morrow,

where futurity is expressed by the adverbial and not by the tense form.

On the basis of this definition we therefore recognise (like most grammarians nowadays) two 'marked' tenses in English, the

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- (1) Zandvoort, R., (1969), p.58
 - (2) Leech, G.N., (1969), pp.134 - 158
 - (3) Allen, W.S., (1956), pp. 318 - 336
 - (4) Ward, J., (1971)
 - (5) Close, R.A., (1971), pp. 76 - 109
 - (6) Twaddell, (1965), pp. 2 - 12
 - (7) Joos, M., (1968), pp. 81 - 146

'past' and the 'non-past' or 'present', since they are the two tense-forms that are marked by inflection. The 'present' is the form which is 'unmarked' and the 'past' is the 'marked' form. The 'present' normally, but not always, refers to present time. It can best be characterised negatively as the form used when there is no reason for the use of the past, the subjunctive, or any complex verbal form. Formally and functionally unmarked, it is neutral and may be called simply the non-past. The past tense refers to past time, although this again does not give an exact picture of its functions. The contrast of non-past and past in English is not unequivocally established by regular difference of form. The contrast can take so many shapes that we must look to function or how a form works in conjunction with the rest of the sentence, as the basis of our sense that it is one contrast. We look for a difference of distribution in the context where each tense occurs.

What then expresses the 'future' in English? There is future time in English but there is no future tense. Palmer⁽¹⁾ gives valid reasons as to why for example, will and shall cannot be considered as markers of a 'future tense' in English, even if we rely heavily upon time reference. Firstly will and shall are not the only ways of referring to future time. Other common constructions, illustrated by the following (1-3), also refer to future time.

- 1) I'm giving a party next week.
- 2) I give my party next week.
- 3) I'm going to give a party next week.

The pattern with BE GOING is even more common than shall and will in ordinary conversation. Modal auxiliaries may refer to the future (with additional reference to ability, probability etc), as in (4) and (5)

- 4) I can come to-morrow
- 5) I may/must/ought to come tomorrow.

(1) Palmer, F.R., (1974), p.37

Will (though not shall) often does not refer to the future at all. It indicates probability as in (6)

6) That'll be your father now,

or habitual activity as in (7)

7) He'll watch TV for hours if you let him.

When it does refer to futurity, it may carry other notions such as willingness as in (8)

8) Will you come?

Sentence 8 denotes futurity + willingness, and is different to (9)

9) Are you coming?

The above gives proof that notional time can be expressed by devices other than Tense and that the tense form of the verb does not have a fixed inference of time.

We conclude that the definition of Tense is best expressed as the linguistic expression of time relations in so far as these are indicated in the verb form. Furthermore, there is an element of time, though not always emphasised, in every form of the verb system under consideration.

Aspect

Strang (1) defines aspect as

"Any one of the several groups of forms in the conjugation of the verb which serve to indicate the manner in which the 'action' denoted by the verb is considered as being carried out".

(1) Strang, B., (1968), p.143

Therefore one of the very important factors that affects the choice of one Aspect instead of another is the speaker's view of the action. Leech⁽¹⁾ confirms this:

"Aspect concerns the manner in which a verbal action is experienced or regarded (for example as complete, or in progress)."

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ are of the same opinion

"Aspect refers to the manner in which the verb action is regarded or experienced. The choice of aspect is a comment on a particular view of the action"

The two aspectual contrasts in English are:

- 1) Progressive/non-progressive
- 2) Perfective/non-Perfective

The Perfective/non-Perfective contrast indicates whether the action has been completed or not. The Progressive/non-Progressive contrast indicates the extension of the action over a period of time, or whether or not the action extended over a period of time. Some grammarians have proposed other aspectual contrasts. They insist on finer degrees of the continuity specified in aspect. Leech⁽³⁾ chooses the term 'durative element of meaning' within the progressive aspect for sentences like

- a) I am raising my arm,

which suggests a more gradual movement than

- b) I raise my arm

The term 'durative' is also applied to sentences in which the emphasis on continuity seems much stronger than that in the

(1) Leech, G., (1975), p.305
(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p.90
(3) Leech, G.N., (1971), p.15

ordinary continuous tense. Compare

- c) I was listening.
and
d) I kept listening.

Grammarians therefore consider it necessary to have a finer variation in degrees of continuity specified in Aspect. Francis⁽¹⁾ proposes the term 'inchoative' for the type of Aspect denoted in colloquial English by a verb like 'get', in

- e) I'll get going

He suggests that the 'get' construction here, indicates that the speaker is only just 'beginning the action'. Other aspectual contrasts are reflected in terms like 'limited duration' and 'unlimited duration' and even the term 'polite use of the progressive' has been coined for such sentences as

- f) I'm hoping you'll give us some advice.

Therefore we conclude that the 'durative' as a positive term in a contrast, draws attention where necessary, to the fact that an action is thought of as having (having had or to have) duration or continuity. Hence there is relatively little use for the durative of verbs whose meaning requires duration such as feel, think etc. The 'perfective' adds a positive implication of 'being in a state resulting from having.....'; it indicates that the action is thought of as having consequences or being temporally continuous with a 'now' or 'then' (past or future). As with other terms to do with verbs, it must be remembered that these are technical labels for a dominant kind of meaning the aspect has; no term and no paraphrase can do exactly the job of discrimination that the grammatical contrast itself performs.

(1) Francis, F.W., (R.P.C. New York)

Tense and Aspect are best handled together in order to make the point that both are essentially concerned with time relations. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ give the following simplified grid of the possible combinations of tense and aspect in the complex Verb phrase.

Symbol	Name	Example
Type B	Present Perfect Past Perfect	He has examined He had examined
Type C	Present Progressive Past Progressive	He is examining He was examining
Type BC	Present Perfect Progressive Past Perfect Progressive	He has been examining He had been examining

Voice

The next category to be discussed is Voice. It is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways without change in the facts reported:

- e.g. 1) The dog bit the boy
2) The boy was bit by the dog

Sentence (1) is said to be in the Active voice and sentence (2) in the Passive. The active/passive relation involves the two grammatical levels of the 'phrase' and the 'clause'. In the verb

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.90

phrase the difference between the two voice categories is that the passive adds a form of the auxiliary Be and the (-ed) form of the main verb. At the clause level, passivization involves the rearrangement of two clause elements and one addition. The active subject becomes the passive agent and the active object becomes the passive subject. The prepositional agent phrase (by-phrase) of passive sentences is an optional sentence element. Voice is different from the three other verbal categories. It includes, besides the passive proper, related structures that are active in form yet have close semantic and syntactic relations with the passive. Palmer⁽¹⁾ gives as example

3) These shirts wash well

In this chapter we shall deal with the category Voice only where it is related to the 'phrase level', leaving complementation to the chapter which deals with clauses.

Mood

Language is communication between people. It often expresses the emotions and attitudes of the speaker who often uses it to influence the attitudes and behaviour of the hearer. We give commands, make exclamations, ask questions etc. Huddleston⁽²⁾ gives a good definition of grammatical Mood and the way this is realised in actual use in the utterance of a speaker. He believes that it is important to distinguish between the grammatical mood of a sentence and the illocutionary force of an utterance. He uses the terms 'declarative', 'interrogative', 'imperative' and 'exclamative' exclusively for types of sentences classified according to grammatical mood, whereas 'assertion', 'question', 'order', 'exclamation' and various other terms he uses to refer to the illocutionary force of different kinds of speech acts. The

(1) Palmer, F.R., (1974), p.92

(2) Huddleston, R., (1971), p.5

classification of sentences as declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative is quite well established. But we do not know what the categories of illocutionary force exactly are, and there seems to be quite a lot of them; e.g. threat, suggestion, advice, invitation, promise, warning etc., beside the usual question, command, and exclamation. However we shall not go into this here and suffice it to say that besides the indicative (declarative) mood in English, we have the subjunctive, the imperative, the exclamative and the interrogative mood. The imperative, exclamative, and interrogative are too well known to be repeated here but a word about the subjunctive is appropriate.

The contrast between the Subjunctive and Indicative Moods has largely disappeared from modern English grammar, but the distinction of meaning which the subjunctive and indicative used to express is still important within the language. Modern English has a three-fold distinction between factual, theoretical and hypothetical meaning. The subjunctive survives in both present tense and past tense forms. It is shown by the absence of the 's' from the third person singular present tense verb, and by the use of be in place of the Indicative am/is/are. Whether it occurs in conditional, concessive, or noun clauses, the present subjunctive is an indicator of theoretical meaning. The present subjunctive also lives on in set exclamatory wishes such as:

Long live the King

The past subjunctive, on the other hand expresses hypothetical meaning. It survives as a distinct form from the indicative, only in the use of were, the Past tense of the copula, in the singular as well as in the plural.

- e.g. 1) If he were my son, I'd punish him.
2) I wish I were clever.

Nowhere is this form obligatory and even in these functions was can always be substituted, especially in conversation.

Classes of Verbs

It is very important to distinguish between classes of verbs in English. Sentences consist of Subject and Predicate and the predicate carries different types of verbs.

A Auxiliaries

A predicate consists of auxiliary and predication. Auxiliary verbs are 'helping verbs', i.e. they have no independent existence as verb phrases, but only help to make up verb-phrases which consist of one or more other verbs, one of which is a Lexical verb. Auxiliaries make different contributions to the VP. Be and Have contribute Aspect and are considered primary auxiliaries. Another primary auxiliary, the periphrastic Do, is an empty carrier in certain sentence processes. The Modal Auxiliaries, can, may, shall, will etc. contribute modality expressing such concepts as probability, volition etc. Auxiliaries have different functions in the VP. One important syntactic function they have in common is when they occur initially in the verb-phrase and function as operators, as for example in the interrogative transformation rule. There, the first auxiliary of the VP is isolated from the rest of the predicate no matter how complex the VP is. The verbs Do, Be and Have are not only auxiliaries but are also used as lexical verbs. Sometimes the lexical verbs Be and Have function as operators as well.

B Semi-Auxiliaries or Catenatives

Some lexical verbs function in such a way that they are shown by certain tests (e.g. Voice Transformation) to be similar to an auxiliary. These are termed Semi-Auxiliaries⁽¹⁾ and/or Catenatives.⁽²⁾ They are like lexical verbs in that they do not take inversion or negation with not without 'Do periphrases', and are like auxiliaries in that they form a unit with the infinitive (i.e. their head), which is sufficiently close to admit of the transformation from active to passive in the head. Again semi-auxiliaries can be divided into two sub-sets depending on whether they can appear in an equivalent cleft-sentence or not.

C Lexical Verbs

Finally the last class is that of Lexical or Full verbs. Where aspect is concerned, English has two major classes of lexical verbs for which the terms 'stative' and 'dynamic' are used. It is important to distinguish between stative and dynamic uses of verbs for they function differently in that they are not subject to the same transformational rules. A stative verb is not subject to the Imperative transformation rule for example. Sentence (a) is not permissible

(a) *Know the language

The distinction is important not only as far as the grammatical feature of 'Verb' and the category of 'Aspect' is concerned, but also in a number of other ways. Adverbial categories and manner adverbs requiring an animate subject can only admit of dynamic verbs

e.g. (b) I learned the language reluctantly

(c) *I knew the language reluctantly

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.66

(2) Palmer, F.R., (1974), p.166

A more interesting factor in the stative/dynamic distinction is whereas the former does not add the progressive tense/aspect marker '-ing' to its stem to indicate continuity, the latter requires the progressive inflection to denote continuous action. Thus 'know' in

(d) I know the language

implies progressiveness and is stative, but 'hit' in

(e) I hit the boy

is not continuous and does not indicate that the action is spread over some time; this is unlike

(f) I am hitting the boy

which is continuous in aspect.

Stative verbs may be subdivided into two classes:

- 1) Relational Verbs which are usually impossible in progressive aspect, such as cost, require, own etc.
- 2) Verbs of Inert Perception and Cognition which do not normally occur in progressive aspect, such as see, smell, taste etc.

Dynamic verbs are subdivided into five classes:

- 1) Activity Verbs: play, say, write etc.
- 2) Process Verbs: grow, widen etc. Both activity and process verbs are frequently used in progressive aspect to indicate incomplete events in progress.

3) Transitional Event Verbs: die, etc. These occur in the progressive, but with a change of meaning compared with simple aspect.

- e.g. a) The man died
b) The man was dying

4) Verbs of Bodily Sensation: itch, hurt, feel etc. These can have either simple or progressive aspect with little difference in meaning.

- e.g. c) I felt better and so I went out
d) I was feeling better and so I went out

5) Momentary Verbs: kick, knock, etc. These verbs have little duration and thus the progressive aspect suggests repetition.

- e.g. e) I jumped for joy
f) I was jumping for joy

One has to take into account the forms and combinations of verbs and their functions. The normal English verb has five forms - the Base, the 's' form, the Past, the 'ing' participle and the '-ed' participle. Regular lexical verbs have the same '-ed' inflection for both the past and the past participle. Irregular lexical verb-forms vary from three (e.g. put, puts, putting) to eight (e.g. be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been). The modal auxiliaries are defective in not having the infinitive, '-ing' participle, '-ed' participle or the imperative. Verb forms operate in finite and non-finite verb phrases which are distinguished as follows:

The Non finite V.P.

The non-finite VP has no tense distinction or imperative mood, and cannot occur in construction with a subject of a main clause.

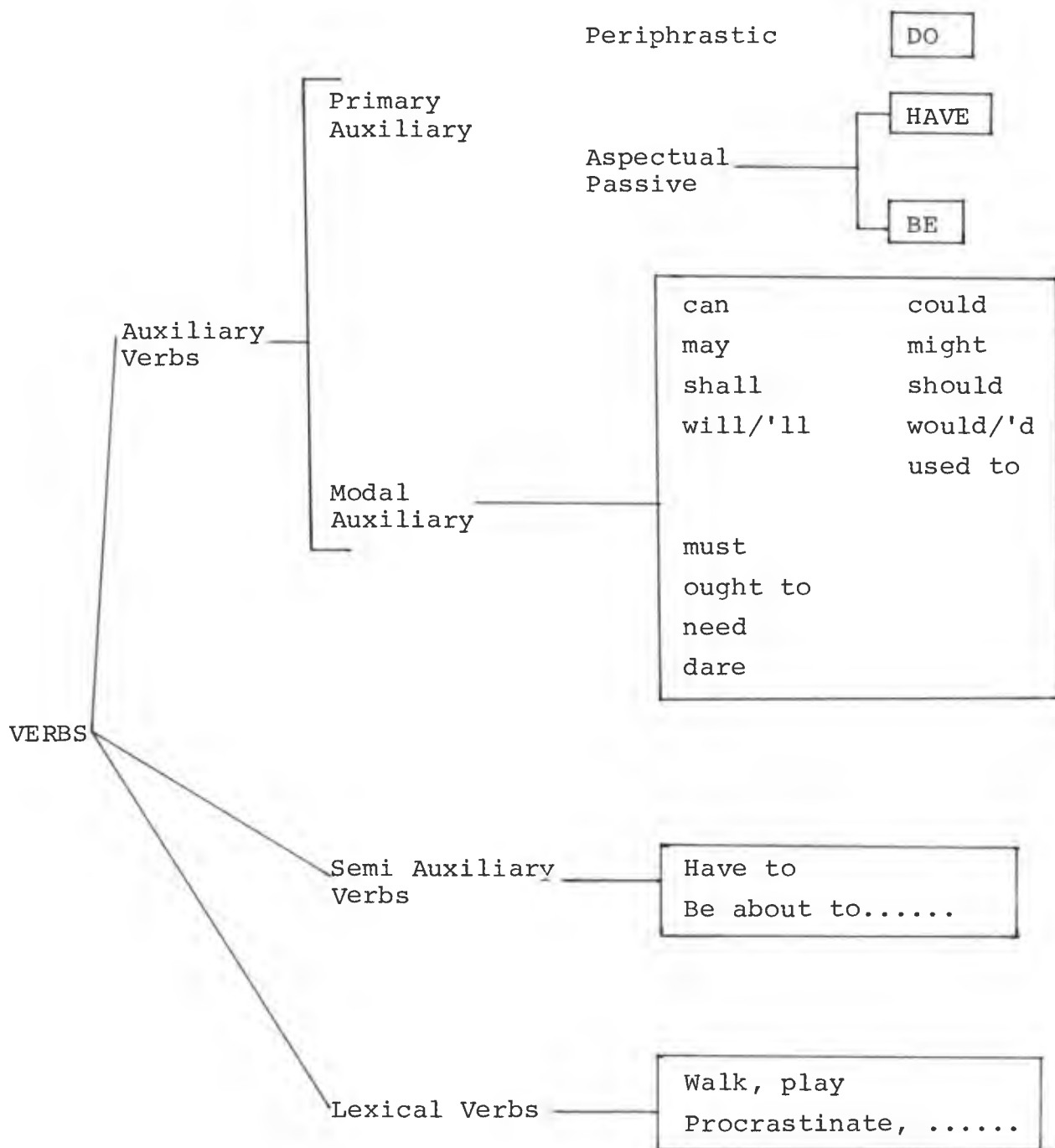
Modal auxiliaries cannot occur in non-finite verb phrases, but Have and Be have no such restriction.

The Finite V.P.

The finite VP is Simple when it consists of only one verb which may be imperative, present or past. It is Complex when it consists of two or more verbs. Finite verb phrases have tense distinction, can occur as the VP of a main clause and have Mood which indicates the speaker's attitude to the predication. The finite verb form is either an operator or a simple present, or a past tense form. There is Person and Number concord between the subject and the finite verb. With the Modal auxiliaries however there is no overt concord.

The figure given by Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ for the division of verbs into several classes is illustrative enough for us to reproduce it here.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.69



VERB CLASSES

After this rather sketchy (though lengthy) introduction to the English verb-phrase, a look at the verb phrase in Arabic will help towards an appreciation of the difficulties and pitfalls that lie in this grammatical area for the learner.

The Arabic Verb

When considering the Arabic verb we find none of the familiar landmarks that are present in European verb systems. The verbs 'have' and 'be' do not exist and when 'be' is indispensable, 'become' (ka:na) is used as a substitute and it requires a special case for its predicate. Some grammarians ⁽¹⁾ state that there are no tenses in Arabic but only two aspectual forms indicating completed and incompleted action. Others ⁽²⁾ talk of the states (tenses) of the verb and call them 'temporal forms'. Still others ⁽³⁾ say the Arabic verb is divided into sub-sets that are not 'tenses' in the European sense, since their functions are much wider than that of simply conveying distinctions of time, as is the case with the English differentiation between he works and he worked. In fact, in the Arabic verb-tense system the number of forms recognised by grammarians and taught by teachers is far less than in English. Furthermore, the correspondence of form and meaning in Arabic is not so clear-cut as it is in English. English has a much neater and ^{more} clear-cut system especially where the complex verb-forms are concerned. However the Arabic system of complex forms is not as haphazard as one may think. It is capable of indicating certain shades of meaning not expressed by the normal English verb system. To make up for the poverty in the number of verb forms, the verb is developed in other ways and Arabic resorts to other syntactical devices, so that the notion of time emerges from the context, more specifically from such elements as include the use of adverbs, adverbial phrases and particles. Time is thus signified in its broader division, the present, the past and the

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- (1) Tritton, A.S., (1947), Introduction, P.VII
(2) Wright, W., (1967), p.51
(3) Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), p.7

future, without the finer divisions of time as expressed by the English tense forms. This may be because the verb plays a much more important part in English sentences than it does in Arabic. Whereas every English sentence must have some kind of verb, an Arabic nominal or thematic sentence does not require a verb at all. We shall make an attempt at finding out the categorical meaning of the Arabic verb, what forms there are in the Arabic verb-tense system, and how are common English forms expressed in Arabic. Their expression through different syntactic structures may lead the learner to error.

The Arabic verb is made up of several meaningful elements given fully by Beeston⁽¹⁾

"The Arabic verb.....is an amalgam of several meaningful elements combining in one word both a predicate and a pronoun constituting a theme of the predicate, as well as indications of time and modality associated with the predicate and conveyed by a differentiation between two sets of forms, the 'perfect' and 'imperfect'."

Thus a verb, made up of one word can function if need be as a complete sentence

e.g. yatara:sala:ni = they correspond with each other.

From this we can see that the dividing line between morphology and syntax in Arabic is sometimes not very clear-cut. The Arabic word must be a grammatically structured unit in which the order of morphemes within the word is rigid. This is because Arabic, being an inflectional language, it employs for the conjugation of the verb formal devices to indicate Mood, Aspect, Person, Gender and Number. The pronoun element in the verb faithfully reflects the gender and number of the preceding noun or entity-term to which it refers. e.g. The pronoun element /at/ alluding to the feminine singular, is amalgamated with a verb like /galas/ to give galasat = she sat. The predicate element in a verb is either

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), p.39

event stating or classificatory. A verb stating a classificatory predicate differs little in sense from a structure consisting of independent or 'objectivised' pronoun plus simple predicate; the difference cannot be reflected in English.

e.g. It is difficult corresponds both to

1) huwa Sa'b

which is made up of independent pronoun + simple noun predicate and

2) yaS'ub

in which /y/ represents the pronoun theme 'it', and the rest of the word the predicative element 'is difficult'. To give a clear picture of how certain morphemes combine in one verb to reflect mood and aspect etc we have to look at the fundamental grammatical processes by which an Arabic verb is formed.

The fundamental grammatical process in the Arabic verb is internal vocalic change. A purely consonantal root of three radicals (sometimes four radicals) with which a general idea such as writing or drinking etc is associated, serves as a kind of framework within which vowels (which are basically formative devices in Arabic) create new verb derivatives called stems. Every verbal derivative is structured according to a set vocalic pattern with which it has a double link: one with the consonantal root common to all derivatives having the same consonantal skeleton and general meaning, and the other with a pattern which is the structural model for all verbs having the same internal vocalic pattern and the same grammatical concept. Internal inflection changes the signification of the root giving new derivative stems.

The verb containing three root consonants is only a primary type or stem and there are usually a varying number of secondary stems in which the root consonants are accompanied by additional phonetic elements. In SA the repertory of commonly used secondary stems runs to nine items, but no one root generates all the theoretically possible stems. Each stem has an independent lexical

value for its predicate element, and from this point of view is an independent verb; stem analysis furnishes a convenient classification of the morphological features of a given verb. Apart from internal inflection the Arabic verb changes its form by affixation. Most prefixes and suffixes serve to change the number, aspect, person, mood and gender of the verb. The pronoun element, which appears in two forms, one suffixed and one prefixed, is morphologically identical in all verb stems. The predicate element shows a morphological pattern characteristic both of the particular stem and of the verb set (prefix-pronoun or suffix-pronoun) within that stem; basically, consonants mark the stem, while the vowel pattern distinguishes the prefix set from the suffix set. These two sets are what have been called the perfective and imperfective aspects by grammarians.⁽¹⁾ The perfective is conjugated with suffixes only which indicate person, number, and gender, except for the third person singular masculine where these concepts are represented by zero (as it is the first stem from which others are derived). The imperfective is conjugated with suffixes and prefixes. We shall first look at the ten stems and then discuss the two sets of perfective and imperfective forms.

The Arabic vocalic patterns are called ?awza:n. These patterns are welded with the stem and the prefix or suffix into one single unit thus forming a new derivative. An example will make things clear. Supposing we have a root k-t-b. The kernel of an idea is nearly always expressed as a simple verb root in Arabic. k-t-b conveys the idea of writing. If it is combined with a certain vowel pattern a:-a-a which means 'reciprocity' we get ka:taba. Adding the appropriate affix which happens to be the pronoun element ta we get ta(+)ka:taba = they wrote to each other. From the structural point of view the root is considered one morpheme and the formative pattern another morpheme. This means that any Arabic verb must consist of at least two morphemes interwoven with each other. On this basis yugattilu:na is composed of five

(1) Bulos, A., (1965), p.33

morphemes:

- 1) -y = prefix indicating a cluster of concepts:
 - a) aspect = imperfect.
 - b) gender = masculine
 - c) person = third
- 2) -u: = morpheme indicating number (plural) and gender (masculine).
- 3) -na = suffix denoting mood (indicative)
- 4) Root = q t l = killing } derivative stem = yuqattil
Formative morpheme = u-a-i }
- 5) a doubling morpheme which doubles the second radical t.

If q t l means 'killing' therefore yuqattilu:na means 'they kill everybody'. Each stem has its own verbal abstract and participles. Usually all verbs sharing the same root have some slight degree of semantic relationship with each other, but the lexical values of the occurring stems show enormous variety. It is impossible to deduce the lexical meaning of a verb simply by considering its stem and the basic root concept. The three radicals of the root with the formative vowel pattern of the third person singular of the perfect form are used as the primary stem on which the other stems are built. It is also taken to be the form equivalent to the infinitive in English. It would be worth our while to give examples of the derivative stems and some of their forms and meanings.

The primary or first stem has three shapes + the 'passive'

fa'ala
fa'ula
fa'ila
fu'ila (passive form)

f'l are used by Arab grammarians as ciphers typifying the root radicals to describe the actually occurring derivatives or word

formations. The form fa'ala is generally transitive in nature but a few verbs such as

galasa = he sat,

are intransitive and yet have the same vowel pattern. The form fa'ila has generally an intransitive signification, the change in meaning being obviously due to the change in vowel after the second radical. Verbs of this pattern indicate a transient state, quality or action in persons or things

e.g. fariHa = he became glad

The form fa'ula indicates permanent qualities and is transitive in nature

e.g. kabura = he grew

Had we said kabira the meaning of the verb would have changed into he grew old.

As in English some verbs like 'to hear', 'to know' etc can be used both transitively and intransitively depending on their use in the utterance.

The second stem is formed from the first by doubling the second radical. This pattern has a causative or factitive signification as well as an intensive one. Verbs that are intransitive in the first stem become transitive in the second

e.g. <u>First stem form</u>	<u>Second stem form</u>
<u>mariDa</u> = <u>to fall ill</u>	<u>marraDa</u> = <u>to nurse</u>
<u>fariHa</u> = <u>to become glad,</u>	<u>farraHa</u> = <u>to make glad.</u>

Verbs that are transitive in the first stem form become doubly so in the second stem form

e.g. kataba = to write (1st stem form)
kattaba = to make write (2nd stem form)

The Third stem form is formed by the addition of a length morpheme /a:/ after the first radical. Verbs of this form are conjugated exactly like those of the Second stem form and they have a signification of reciprocity, effort or attempt to perform an action.

e.g. sa:baqa = to race someone, to compete with

When the First stem form denotes an act which gets an indirect object, that is, with the preposition to before the 'object', it becomes a direct object of the act in the Third stem form, the idea of reciprocity being implied.

e.g. kataba ?ilayhi = he wrote to him
ka:tabahu = he corresponded with him

The Fourth stem form is formed by prefixing /?/ to the first stem form, as a result of which the vowel of the first radical seems to shift its position and fall between the prefix and the first radical. Its chief signification is factitive or causative. If the verb is intransitive, it becomes transitive, and if it is transitive to begin with, it becomes doubly transitive

e.g. 1st Stem Form 2nd Stem Form 4th Stem Form
'alima = to know 'allama = to teach ?a'lama = to inform

The Fifth stem form is formed from the second by prefixing ta- thus giving it a reflexive force and meaning

e.g. takassara = to get broken

Bulos⁽¹⁾ thinks that English does not render this stem form very well by the use of the passive. He thinks that French, and in

(1) Bulos, A., (1965), p.18

general Romance languages, render it more closely by the use of the reflexive

e.g. takassara = se casser en morceaux
ta'aggaba = s'étonner, être étonné

Sometimes the concept of reflexiveness is not very perceptible in verbs that govern an accusative

e.g. tatabba'a = to pursue step by step

A more common signification is the one which indicates that an act is done to a person, or a state produced in him by another person, or by himself.

e.g. ta'allama = to become learned, to learn

With certain verbs it indicates the acquiring of an attribute

e.g. takabbara = to become haughty

When a certain concept of intensiveness underlies certain verbs, there are nuances of meaning that are expressed by the fifth stem form and the eighth stem form. But English translation does not show this difference

e.g. a) ?iftaraqa-n-na:su - the people dispersed
b) tafarraga-n-na:su - the people dispersed

In Arabic the verb in (a) expresses mere separation while in (b) it expresses separation into many groups or in various directions.

The sixth stem form is formed from the third by prefixing the syllable /ta-/. The concept of effort or attempt which is transitive in the third stem form becomes reflexive in the sixth stem form

e.g. gha:falahu = he gave him the slip
tagha:fala = he was off his guard

Reciprocity which may be implied in certain verbs of the third stem form becomes obligatory in the sixth stem form

e.g. qa:talahu = he fought him
taqa:tala = the two fought with each other

The sixth stem form of some verbs indicates pretence

e.g. tama:raDa = he feigned illness

The seventh stem form is formed by prefixing /n/ to the first stem form. At the beginning of utterances a vowelised glottal stop precedes the stem, but it disappears in the middle of utterances. In signification this form denotes reflexiveness in the sense of submissiveness to an act or an effect. Bulos⁽¹⁾ describes it as the reflexive-passive of the first form

e.g. nkasara = to get broken, to break

The seventh stem form of some verbs expresses an action submitted to involuntarily

e.g. khada'a = to deceive
nkhada'a = to be deceived

The eighth stem form is obtained from the first stem by placing the infix /t/ after the first radical of the verb. It is the reflexive of the first stem form.

e.g. faraqa = to divide, to separate
ftaraqa = to part, to go asunder, to get separated

The ninth stem form is formed from the first by doubling the third radical and the loss of the first formative vowel. Generally this form is derived from adjectives denoting colour, size etc.

e.g. ʔaHmar = (adj) red
Hmarra = to get red

Obviously this cannot be used in the passive.

The tenth stem form is characterised by the prefix /st-/. The concepts expressed by it depend on the semantic content of the root.

e.g. (reflexive) staslama = to give oneself up
(pleading) staghfara = to ask for pardon

The Numbers, Persons and Genders

There are three numbers in the Arabic verb, the singular, the dual and the plural as well as three persons, the speaker (the first person) the individual spoken to (second person) and the individual spoken of (third person). The genders are two namely masculine and feminine but they are not distinguished from one another in some of the persons such as first person singular, second person dual and first person plural.

Beeston⁽¹⁾ gives a comprehensive table of how pronouns combine with verbs of the perfect and imperfect forms (i.e. the suffix and prefix set respectively) to convey the concepts of gender and number. It is comprehensive enough for us to reproduce it here.

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1970), p.77

	Speaker	Speaker with other(s)				
Suffix set Prefix set	jalas/tu ʔ/ajllis/u	jalas/na: n/ajllis/u				
	One male addressee	One female addressee	Two addressees	Plural male addressees	Plural female addressees	
Suffix set Prefix set	jalas/ta t/ajllis/u	jalas/ti t/ajllis/i:na	jalas/tuma: t/ajllis/i:na	jalas/tum t/ajllis/u:na	jalas/tu ^{ma} t/ajllis/na	
	Entities other than speaker(s) or addressee(s)					
	Masc. sing.	Fem. sing.	Masc. dual	Fem. dual	Masc. plur.	Fem. plur.
Suffix set Prefix set	jalas/a y/ajllis/u	jalas/at t/ajllis/u	jalas/a: y/ajllis/a:ni	jalas/ata: t/ajllis/a:ni/	jalas/u: y/ajllis/u:na	jalas/na t/ajllis/na

So much for the morphological shape of the verb. We shall now turn to the categorical meaning implied in the forms of the Arabic verb. Although Arab grammarians dealt a great deal with the form of the Arabic verb, they paid little attention to its function and meaning. In considering the categorical meanings to do with tense and aspect, we have looked at what traditional Arab grammarians, Arabists, modern Arab grammarians and Arab textbook writers have to say about it. Traditional Arab grammarians state that the Arabic verb has three forms or Ha:la:t as they are called; one refers to past time, the second to the present or future, and the third is the imperative form referring to the future. We notice that they define the forms of the verb in terms of Time. Al Hammadi et al⁽¹⁾ in a textbook written for secondary school students say that the verb is divided into three parts where time is concerned. The first form (representing the past) points to the happening of an action finished before the time of the actual utterance. The second form (representing the present/future) points to the happening of an action at the time of utterance or after the time of the utterance. The third form is that form with which one asks that an action be done just after the utterance has been uttered. At the same time they state⁽²⁾ that the verb is a word-class which

".....indicates an action. Time is part of the verb."

This concept of the Arabic verb was taught down the centuries and until this day in virtually every school in the Arab world. Practically all standard Arabic grammars, including those advanced and comprehensive ones used by university students such as Hassan's 'al-naHw-l-wa:fi'⁽³⁾ advocate the same approach to the Arabic verb.

(1) al-Hammadi et al, (1976), p.20 (in Arabic)

(2) al-Hammadi et al, (1976), p.2

(3) Hassan, A., (1966). (In Arabic)

The two basic Arabic verb forms which are made, as is the case in English, by means of inflectional devices are called

- 1) al-ma:Di (which means the past)
- 2) al-muDa:ri' (which means that which is similar or equivalent).

Equivalent or similar refers to the 'Noun' as this form can be inflected like the noun unlike al-ma:Di, which is uninflected and called in Arabic mabni. These two simple forms are roughly equivalent to the English past and present/future tenses respectively. They are not the only forms employed in Arabic to express the complicated field covered by the verb-tense system. They are only the simple forms. Arabists have given these forms different names according to the basic meaning each one thought each of the two forms expressed. The most common are the Perfect (al-ma:Di) and the Imperfect (al-muDa:ri'), the Perfective and the Imperfective and even the Completed and Uncompleted

Categorical Meaning

There seems to have been a very long controversy amongst Arab grammarians concerning two issues.

- 1) What semantic elements does any member of the class 'verb' in Arabic primarily consist of?
- 2) What is the basic categorical meaning of each of the two simple verb-forms al ma:Di and al-muDa:ri'?

Most traditional Arab grammarians agree that the verb derives its lexical content (Arabic Hadath i.e. action, event) from al-ma:Di or the verbal noun, which simply posits the action; to this content is added the element of Time. This is what makes textbook writers like al-Hammadi give the definition of the verb in terms of time and action.

(1) See Wright (1967), Vol I, p.51, Cowan D., (1958), p.54 and Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), p.48

Some Arab grammarians went so far as to define the verb as the part of speech that indicates time⁽¹⁾ while others disagreed with this and stressed the fact that the element of time should be considered as subordinate to that of action.⁽²⁾

Arabists and more modern Arab grammarians have challenged this concept of the verb. Wright⁽³⁾ with his European linguistic background states flatly that

".....A semitic Perfect or Imperfect has in and of itself no reference to the temporal relations of the speaker.....and of other actions which are brought into juxtaposition with it."

He believes that it is actually the other way round:

".....it is precisely these relations which determine in what sphere of time a Semitic Perfect or Imperfect lies."(4)

Wright believes that Arab grammarians had given an undue importance to the idea of time in connection with the verbal forms. In this he represents the point of view of most Arabists. Under the influence of Arabists most modern Arab grammarians began to think of Arabic verbs in Wright's terms. Anis⁽⁵⁾ for instance seems to adopt Wright's point of view totally. al-Samarra?i,⁽⁶⁾ although he doesn't totally agree with the traditional Arab grammarians' point of view, still cannot conceive of a verb without at least a very general reference to time. This reference to time he believes, should not necessarily follow from the form of the verb but is normally indicated by the verbal context or even by the context of situation. Bulos⁽⁷⁾ claims that whereas Arabic

(1) Ibn Faris, Ahmad, (1910), reproduced in Tarzi, F.H., (1969), p.143.

(2) Ibn Ya'ish, (19), vol 7, p.3.

(3) Wright, (1967), Vol.I, p.51

(4) Ibid.

(5) Anis, L., (1966), pp. 155-160

(6) al-Samarra?i, (1966), p.24

(7) Bulos, A., (1965), p.35

"makes distinction in processes which are independent of the speaker, the notion of tenses as expressed in English has a subjective character: the English speaker conceives of time in an abstract manner, as a sort of line which he divides into sections in relation to himself: that which lies behind him at the time of speaking, i.e. the past; that which lies ahead of him, i.e. the future; and that which is before him precisely that moment."

The controversy boils down to whether we should consider the reference to time in general, and to past versus present/future in particular, as an integral part of the categorical meaning of the Arabic verb forms, or whether we should consider the aspectual element of completion/non-completion as the only basic meaning. If time is part of the categorical meaning of the verb, what time does each of al-ma:Di and al-muDa:ri' indicate?

In fact both the old Arab grammarians and the Arabists take extreme points of view, the former by saying that without reference to Time the verb loses the cause of its very existence, and the latter by totally rejecting time-reference. Each group soon modifies its generalisation in a way that tends to bring them nearer to each other. Although Wright,⁽¹⁾ Tritton⁽²⁾ and Cowan⁽³⁾ all agree on the predominance of the aspectual element of completion/non-completion in the Arabic verb forms, they nevertheless deal with the Arabic verb tense within a framework of aspect plus time. Wright writes of the function of al-ma:Di as

"an act completed at some past time"⁽⁴⁾

Moreover, the concept of completion in itself implies a past time (however vague that may be) especially if the verb is used without any adverbial, to indicate the more specific past time required.

(1) Wright, (1967), Vol.I, p.51

(2) Tritton, A.S., (1965), p.53

(3) Cowan, D., (1958), p.54

(4) Wright, (1967), Vol. II, p.1.

The most important thing is not to confuse tense with time and to accept that time can be conveyed by means other than tense.

There has been no disagreement about the reference to past time of al ma:Di between Arab grammarians. However there has been disagreement as to the time reference of al muDa:ri'. Although most of them agree that this latter form is capable of referring both to the present and the future, there seems to be a feeling of uneasiness about the concept of the 'Present' time. Arab grammarians looked at the 'present' not as a 'period' or 'duration', but rather as a fleeting point between past and future. Some give the future time as that time referred to by al-muDa:ri' first, and then add that this form could also refer to the Present; others only give the future as the reference of the muDa:ri'. The Kufa school believe that only the past and the future are referred to by al-ma:Di and al-muDa:ri' respectively, and that the present is referred to by the ?ism-l-fa:'il or present participle which they call al-fi'l-l-da:?im or the permanent or continuous verb. To us it seems that al-muDa:ri' can refer both to future and present time though probably more frequently to the latter since the special form with sa or sawfa (i.e. will) can explicitly refer to the future. Without a context the time reference of al muDa:ri' is vague. Moreover there is more than only time and/or completion/non-completion involved in it. There may be an element of limited or unlimited duration in the meaning of al muDa:ri' as used in certain contexts. Perhaps therefore this form is best seen out of context as neutral to time (and probably to aspect too), as Strang has suggested for its English parallel. Our reason for believing this will become clearer when we read the illuminating remarks made by Beeston.⁽²⁾

"The tense differentiation between perfect and imperfect operates on three levels, and in various contexts any one of these levels of differentiation may receive the

(1) Kharma, N., (1972), unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of London.

(2) Beeston, (1968), pp. 48-49

main emphasis, over-shadowing or virtually eliminating the others:

- (I) the perfect points to past time, the imperfect to present or future time.
- (II) the perfect points to a single action, regarded as instantaneous in its occurrence, the imperfect to habitual or repeated action or to one visualised as covering a space of time.
- (III) the perfect points to a fact, the imperfect to a conceptual idea not necessarily realised in fact and will often have to be rendered in English by 'can, might, may, would, should'."

As we see the differentiation levels are associated with the all important context. We therefore take the point of view that an Arabic verb form implies modality, aspect, and time, all depending on the context, and accept Beeston's definition of the two simple forms in Arabic.

So far we have been talking about the two simple forms in Arabic. To express other nuances of meaning that these two simple forms are unable to handle, Arabic employs several other kinds of structures. Some of these structures may be construed with the help of one or the other of the simple verb forms, but others do not make use of them altogether. These structures are mainly the

- a) ʔism:al-fa:'il which is roughly equal to the present participle in English.
- b) ka:na or the verb Be
- c) Qad, a participle with several different functions

a) The ʔism-al-fa:'il has caused a controversy because it partakes of the nature of a verb, an adjective, and a noun. On one hand, it inflectionally and syntactically behaves very much like a noun, filling the same slot in sentences and taking the same inflectional markers; on the other, it often behaves like a verb, taking one or more objects in the accusative case, and being modified by an adverbial phrase. Furthermore, after examining a number of cases where this form comes into contrast

with the verb, especially the muDa:ri', certain grammarians seem to have felt that it filled the gap left open by the opposition of the ma:Di referring to the past and the muDa ri' referring to the future, i.e. it referred to the present. Moreover this form seemed to also add an aspectual meaning of continuity in the three spheres of time; that is why the Kufa school called the ʔism-al-fa:'il the fi'l al-da:'im i.e. the permanent, probably meaning the Continuous. In fact, the ʔism-al-fa:'il can function both as an adjective

e.g. ma:ʔun ga:rin = running water

and as a noun:

e.g. Ta:ha Husayn ka:tibun = Taha Husayn is a writer

However it can function by itself as a verb, i.e. as an equivalent to an English verb form. It is quite often the equivalent of the English Be-ing form.

e.g. I am going to school = ʔana dha:hibun ila-l-madrasati

This is because the Arabic equivalent of the English auxiliary verb Be is not required in Nominal Sentences which need not have a copula of any sort. We see that the ʔism-al-fa:'il seems to refer to present or future time like the muDa:ri', but in addition it indicates the aspect of continuity. The ʔism-al-fa:'il is capable of entering into other verb-combinations especially with ka:na to constitute complex forms equivalent to past or future Be-ing forms. It can also refer to any time when it occurs by itself in certain kinds of clauses such as the circumstantial adverbial clause (gumlat-al-Ha:l)

b) "ka:na and its sisters" (Be)

Traditional Arab grammarians called Ka:na (Be) and its sisters, defective verbs or af'a:l na:qiSah because they differ

from other verbs in at least two ways.

- 1) Although most of these verbs are capable of behaving as full fledged lexical verbs,
e.g. ka:na ta:jirun wa ka:na lahu: banu:na...=
there was a merchant who had children.....,
their most common use is that of verbs of incomplete predication. As such they require a special kind of complement called khabar ka:na. These verbs in many cases introduce constructions that are already complete Nominal sentences in Arabic, causing a change in the inflectional marker of the predicate or khabar.

- 2) Semantically these verbs seem to partake of the general meaning of mere existence. This is certainly the case when they behave as complete verbs. When they behave as defective verbs, each seems to be able to function as the logical copula, the verb ka:na most often with no lexical meaning at all.

The realisation of this latter characteristic of ka:na started another heated argument among Arab grammarians which does not seem to have come to an end yet. All Arab grammarians had committed themselves to the definition of the verb as an action + a time element. To strip any verb of either of these two components was unacceptable. On the other hand the behaviour of ka:na points to that possibility. Some, therefore, like Ibn Ya'ish stated that these verbs referred to time only and had no lexical meaning (or Hadath). Others stripped ka:na and its sisters of the status of verb and considered them particles. We shall not go into this controversy. What interests us in the verb ka:na is the fact that

- 1) the perfect or al-ma:Di form of ka:na does not seem to signify any time at all, except in certain Qur'anic texts;

e.g. ?inna-l-la:ha ka:na baSi:ra =

Allah was/is/has always been knowledgeable.

- 2) Otherwise the al-ma:Di form of ka:na seems to refer to past time but most probably with no other lexical or grammatical meaning

e.g. ka:na-l-waladu fi-l-Hadi:qa = the boy was in the garden

- 3) The al-muDa:ri' form of ka:na like that of any other verb may refer to present or future time or to all time. Both the al ma:Di and al-muDa:ri' forms of ka:na enter with other linguistic elements, into combinations which are equivalent to several English verb-tense forms and so help fill the gap left open by the use of the two simple forms only.

ka:na's sisters (akhawa:t ka:na)

These, like ka:na require an adverbial complement. They function in an auxiliary or quasi-auxiliary capacity to help bring out certain aspects of the categorical meaning of the Arabic verb tense system which are unattainable without their help. They are twelve in number but only about half this number are used in SA. Wright⁽¹⁾ conveniently classifies them into 4 groups according to what he believes is the semantic component that is common to each group, and which modifies the element of 'mere existence'. These components are:

- 1) the idea of change or conversion as in Sa:ra (= to become)
- 2) the idea of Negation (of existence itself) as in laysa (= not to be)
- 3) the idea of Time as in

(1) Wright, (1967), Vol.II, pp. 101-103

<u>?aSbaHa</u>	=)	
<u>?aDHa</u>	=)	
<u>?amsa</u>	=)	(<u>be</u> or <u>do</u> , during the day or
<u>ba:ta</u>	=)	part thereof)
<u>DHalla</u>	=)	

These verbs are often used as synonyms of ka:na without reference to time.

4) the idea of Duration or Continuity as in

<u>za:la</u>)	
<u>bariHa</u>)	
<u>fati?a</u>)	+ ma = (to last or go on, not
<u>infakka</u>)	to cease)
<u>da:ma</u>)	

Except for laysa, za:la and fati?a, all the other verbs can be employed as complete or full verbs (?af'a:l ta:mmah). In addition to the normal syntactic structure with these verbs where the predicate (al khabar) is a Noun/Adjective, or a phrase, it can also be a verb in the muDa:ri' (but not in the ma:Di form).

The verb laysa is significant. Arabic does not need an equivalent of is/am/are for setting up the predication of nominal sentences. Thus the muDa:ri' of ka:na (yaku:nu) is not used except in certain clauses, moods etc, and normally in referring to the future,. But when this predication is to be negated laysa is required.

e.g. al farasu sari:'un = the horse (is) fast
laysa-l-baytu kabi:ran = the house IS NOT large

Thus among all akhawa:t ka:na, laysa is the only verb that merely conveys the lexical meaning of mere existence, or rather lack of existence. Laysa is to be considered a lexically empty verb equal to ka:na when the latter is used as the logical copula, but with the

grammatical meaning of negation. No time is explicitly expressed by this verb which remains in the perfect or al-ma:Di all the time. The Past may be ruled out from any reference to time this verb may implicitly convey, since the Arabic equivalent of was/were not is either ma:ka:na or lam yaku:n but not laysa.

Sa:ra is a freely inflected verb and it is important because like ka:na, ?aSbaHa, DHalla, ?aDHa, ?amsa, and ba:ta it can convey a very similar meaning. In fact Wright's statement that these former verbs refer to time, applies more to Classical Arabic than to SA. The concept of 'change' or 'conversion' may belong to the past time in the wider context of comparison with another more past time, for instance. But more frequently when Sa:ra or any of the other verbs of this group is employed, it seems to express the categorical meaning of 'reference to present time', It is often easily rendered by the English Present Have-EN verb form or even by the present

e.g. Sa:ra 'aliyyun mu'alliman = Ali has become/is a teacher
?aSbaHa 'aliyyun fi: markazin ha:m = Ali has become/
is now in an important position
DHalla 'aliyyun qa:diran 'ala-l-mashyi raghma maraDihi =
Ali was still able to walk in spite of his illness.

In fact Sa:ra and ?aSbaHa have become synonyms in modern Arabic and refer to the present unless there is an explicit reference to the past. DHalla on the other hand still refers to past time but to no special part of the day nor the whole of it.

The verbs of the last group are normally used with the negative article ma:. They indicate duration or continuity until the present, although they are in the perfect form and are expected to have at least some vague reference to the past.

e.g. ma:za:la 'aliyyun mu'alliman = Ali is still a teacher
ma:za:la'aliyun yagri: mundhu sa:'a = Ali has been
running for an hour.

There are other defective verbs in Arabic called ʔaf'a:l al-shuru' which include quite a number of verbs all meaning 'to begin to do'.

e.g. shara'a)
 ʔakhadha)
 ja'ala)
 ʔibtadaʔa) to begin to do

Others are af'a:l-al-muqa:raba or verbs of appropinquation. These include

ka:da and ʔawshaka = is/was about to....

They indicate the proximity of the predicate. However

'asa = it is hoped that

implies a hope of the occurrence of the predicate. These verbs require another ordinary verb to help set up a complete predication. This latter verb is usually either the muDa:ri'

e.g. shara'a yaʔkulu = (lit.) he began eat

or the muDa:ri' preceded by ʔan al-maSdarriya, a construction very like the infinitive in English

e.g. awshaka ʔan yantahiya = he is/was about to finish

c Qad

This is a particle used with several functions and meanings depending on which verb form it goes with. The two main meanings are Emphasis and Near past (or rendering the past near to the present). According to Wright,⁽¹⁾ qad used with al-ma:Di adds

(1) Wright, (1967), Vol. I, p.286

the meaning of now/already/really. When it bears the meaning of emphasis it expresses that something uncertain has really taken place, that something expected has been realised, or that something has happened in agreement with, or in opposition to, certain symptoms or circumstances. Qad also serves to mark the position of a past act or event as prior to the present time or to another past act or event. It thus expresses the English meaning indicated by the Have-EN form of the verb present or past.

This brief examination of some of the structures and the auxiliary and defective verbs in Arabic was meant to bring out some of the main characteristics which Arabic exploits to express the various other meanings that cannot be coped with by the two simple forms. While discussing the errors we shall describe what structures in Arabic are equivalent to the English tense forms. We shall now have a very brief look at the category of Voice.

Voice

The active voice in Arabic is like the English active. The u-i-a vowel pattern of the maghu:l form has been considered as equivalent to the passive in English in most grammar books. The English term 'passive' is misleading however. The word maghu:l literally means 'unknown' since the doer of the action in a maghu:l sentence is not known. The English passive voice gives a workable equivalent so long as the doer of the action is not revealed by means of an adverbial phrase, i.e. a by-phrase. Thus,

Duriba 'aliyun

is rendered in English by

Ali was beaten

However whereas one can add in English 'by his father', or any other similar phrase, such a phrase would be against the morphological nature of the maghu:l form in Arabic. To construct

such a sentence in Arabic such as

* Duriba 'aliyun min qibali ?abi:hi = Ali was beaten by his father.

is foreign to the nature of Arabic syntax. Of the ten stems, the derivative ninth stem form f'alla as in Sfarra, and the two sub-forms of the first stem fa'ula and fa'ila as in Saghura and Saghira (to become small and to become young respectively), never occur in the passive voice. These two sub-forms indicate a state, condition or quality that might be temporary or permanent in persons or things. All the other stem forms have a corresponding maghu:l form.

The maghu:l indicates an action realized but not designated by a subject, so that the name of the person or thing on which the action falls, takes the place of the subject only in appearance, so to speak: hence its name in Arabic, na:?ib fa:'il or 'deputy subject', since it is still the patient and not the agent of the action. In English the passive transformation of

a) The man hit the boy

is

b) The boy was hit by the man.

But in Arabic the maghu:l transformation of

Daraba ar-ragulu-al-walada

which has the same meaning as our English example (a), as well as the syntactical components, is

Duriba-al-waladu = The boy was beaten

Bulos⁽¹⁾ analyses the difference between the two transformationally.

(1) Bulos, A., (1965), pp. 43-44

English = NP₁ - Verb - NP₂ \longleftrightarrow NP₂ - was - Verb - en -
by - NP₁

Arabic = Verb - NP₁ - NP₂ \longrightarrow Verb - NP₂

While it is possible for the arrow to point in both directions in the English transformation, the arrow can point only in one direction in the Arabic transformation - from left to right, but not from right to left.

The formative pattern of the maghu:l form is a separate morpheme, quite distinct from that of the active forms and no allomorph of the active formation pattern. Therefore there is no difference tactically between

qutila-r-ragulu = the man was killed

and

qatala-r-ragulu = the man killed

Both, for instance, can be followed by an adjective bearing the same inflectional morpheme /-u/ as the noun, but whereas the second example can be followed by a noun in the accusative (the object of an active verb), the first cannot be followed by such a noun

e.g. qutila-r-ragulu-al-ghaniyyu = the rich man was killed

qatala-r-ragulu-al-ghaniyyu = the rich man killed

qatala-al-ragulu-al-ghaniyya = the man killed the rich one

al-ghaniyya cannot occur after qutila ar-ragulu.

With verbs that take two objects, the direct object in the accusative is retained but it must follow the deputy subject

?u'Tiya-l-waladu qalaman = the boy was given a pencil

If the direct object follows the verb, it becomes the deputy subject, but the indirect object is preceded by li (to)

?u'Tiya al qalamu li-l-waladi = the pencil was given to the boy.

Thus the 'passive' in Arabic is different to the passive in English.

The Moods

The Arabic verb has five moods according to Wright⁽¹⁾, namely the Indicative, the Subjunctive, the Jussive or Conditional, Imperative and Energetic. Of these moods, the indicative is common to the perfect and imperfect forms. The Subjunctive and Jussive are restricted to the imperfect, al-muDa:ri'. The Imperative is expressed by a special form and the Energetic can be derived not only from al-muDa:ri' but also from the Imperative. Instead of the Infinitive, Arabic has nouns expressing the action or quality. In place of participles it has two verbal adjectives, the one denoting the agent (nomen agentis or active participle) and the other denoting the patient (nomen patientis or passive participle).

Difficulty in Error Classification

Where the VP is concerned it is sometimes very difficult to decide to which category an error should be assigned. What enhances the difficulty is that in actual verb-forms, the component grammatical meanings are often not so separable as one might think. In particular tense, mood and aspect are often inextricably entwined. Strang⁽²⁾ suggests that one's terms may need to take account of this by combining to form 'tense-aspect',

(1) Wright, (1967), p.51

(2) Strang, (1968), p.144

'tense-mood' classifications etc. Some errors are quite obviously the result of the violation of one rule or another. It is easy to classify

I am going to the beach every day

as an error in aspect. But in

In the morning I was swimming in the sea and the water was warm so I catch a fish and I was eating it

one could classify the error as:

- 1) a tense error in which the learner has violated the rules governing the sequence of tenses

or

- 2) an aspect error in which the learner wrongly uses a past continuous instead of a simple past.

We found that the most sensible thing to do is to cite the error under both the aspect heading and the tense heading, but to count it only once just as we have done with all the learning problems of the learner, without giving the impression that his language was full of errors. The errors in the VP will therefore be divided into

- 1) Errors in Aspect.
- 2) Errors in the inflection of the VP
- 3) Errors in the Passive Voice
- 4) Errors in the sequencing of Tenses.
- 5) Errors in the Use of the Gerund and the Infinitive.

Most of the errors, we are aware, are not phrase level errors in the way that 'phrase' and 'group' have been normally defined in contrast to 'the clause' by Chomsky and Halliday respectively.

Most of the time, the internal composition of the different verb phrases is perfectly correct within the confines of the group itself. It is the sequence of two or more phrases that is wrong, and not the phrases themselves. Therefore most of these errors are clause-level errors. Since the discussion of tense and the aspectual constituents of the VP are directly significant to them, it will give the work greater unity if they are discussed in this chapter.

I Errors in Aspect

- la) I am living in Cairo and every summer I go to Alexandria to the beach.
- lb) After four years I will be knowing English very good and work in the air companies.
- lc) In the school I am understanding everything in the lesson but at the faculty the doctor speak quickly I am confused.
- ld) They are materialistic and they ask first what you are owning of land and money.
- le) If you are having a car all the girls like you and if not they don't look even.
- lf) All the people are interesting to go outside and learn from the other country.
- lg) Every morning we were going to the sea-shore and swim.
- lh) I was seeing the accident happening all in front of my eyes.

Cross-sectional Study	=	213
Stage I	=	16
Stage II	=	11
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The errors in aspect cannot be the result of transfer from the mother-tongue. The progressive aspect in English is expressed in Arabic by either the muDa:ri' form of the verb or the ?ism-l-fa:'il. The muDa:ri' is used in Arabic to refer to habitual or repeated action.⁽¹⁾ It is also capable of expressing the equivalent of the English progressive aspect according to the requirements of the context.⁽²⁾ Moreover it is used in situations where the English modals are required.

e.g. we (habitually) go	=	<u>nadhhab</u>	
we are (now) going	=	"	
we could/might/go	=	"	
we were going	=	"	+ ka:na
we used to go	=	"	+ ka:na

Therefore in Arabic there is only one form, the muDa:ri' which can be used to express the English present, the modals and the progressive aspect. Had the learner alternated in his use of modal for simple present or modal for progressive aspect with the use of the progressive for the simple present, one would have been tempted to say that his errors are the result of L₁ interference. But to treat the occurrence in the progressive form of verbs that do not normally occur in the progressive as arising from negative transfer would amount to underestimating the pull of over-generalisation, which seems to be the basis for the learner to multiply his experience in the use of verbs in the progressive aspect.

The errors in aspect are a result of the generalisation (one usually made by textbook writers and classroom teachers) that all members of the class 'verb' are either transitive or intransitive and for the progressive aspect they are marked with -ing on the surface. Thus we find in the Living English Series Book I,⁽³⁾ lessons of the following type.

(1) Beeston, A.F.L., (1968), p.49

(2) Ibid

(3) Living English Book I, p.115

"Mr. Salem is at home. He's in the living room watching television. Mrs. Salem is in the kitchen cooking dinner. Hoda is helping her. Every day Hoda helps her mother."

The textbook writers are trying to draw a contrast between the way the simple present tense and the progressive aspect are used. It is clear that the verb forms 'is watching' and 'is cooking' are transitive verbs, their respective objects being 'television' and 'dinner'. In other lessons we find examples using intransitive verbs such as 'going', 'running' and 'sitting' in the progressive aspect. A grammar of this type will not block the production of such sentences as

- 1a) I am living in Cairo and
- 1c) In the school I am understanding everything in the lesson but.....
- 1d) They are materialistic and they ask first what you are owning of land and money.
- 1e) If you are having a car, all the girls like you

In trying to clarify matters for the learner where the use of the simple present and the progressive aspect are concerned the textbook writers of the Living English books fail to point out that some verbs are seldom found in the progressive aspect, unless used in some special sense. Moreover, while giving examples of verbs that are used in the progressive, they of necessity use only such verbs as can accept the continuous form. As a result the learner assumes that all verbs can be used in the progressive since he does not see any that do not accept this latter form.

It is only after four years of English learning that the learner is told that some verbs of sense, feeling and perception are not used in the progressive.⁽¹⁾ By that time it is already either too late to stop the learner generalising the use of the progressive to all verbs, or too late to make him give enough

(1) Allen, W.S., (1958), p.50

notice to these verbs as exceptions.

In order to avoid these errors of over-application of restricted generalisations, the learner has to bring the latter in one to one correspondence with the facts of English. This involves a great deal of subclassification at all syntactic levels. To make the -ing marking on members of the class V coterminous with the facts of English, the over-generalised rule that verbs are either transitive or intransitive and take -ing for the progressive aspect has to be modified to accommodate a sub-class of verbs, generally called 'stative' verbs, which is in contrast to 'dynamic' verbs. The distinction between stative verbs and dynamic verbs is a fundamental one in English grammar, and is reflected in a number of other ways than in the progressive aspect of the verb. For verb categories for example, we have mentioned the imperative. We cannot have

*Be knowing the lesson

The process of sub-classification itself is not as straightforward as one might think. We cannot simply divide verbs into either stative or dynamic verbs. Some stative verbs occur in the progressive aspect in certain contexts. Have and Be for example can be used either way - with the expected consequences, such as aspectual constraints

- e.g. 1) John is having a good time
(is experiencing)
2) *John is having a good car
(possesses)

We see that whereas (1) is acceptable, (2) is not. Verbs of inert perception and cognition like see do not normally occur in the progressive aspect; yet the following sentence is perfectly correct

- 3) I am seeing the doctor to-day

Although seeing here is used as an activity verb meaning 'to pay a visit to', the learner does not notice that. This is why one should speak of dynamic and stative uses of verbs rather than dynamic and stative verbs. The use of one verb both statively and dynamically confuses the learner and tends to obliterate the difference between dynamic and stative uses.

The progressive aspect is related to seven sub-classes of verbs, five dynamic and two stative. Even if the learner knew the five dynamic sub-classes and the two stative ones, further sub-classification is involved according to the semantics of the verbs used. Here sub-classification is difficult and teaching the area even more difficult.

It is not only difficult to set up sub-classes and teach them; it is uneconomical. Further and further sub-classifications appear to bring to the learner very insignificant returns; they account for less and less members of the class V:⁽¹⁾ the learner therefore seems to be discouraged by the 'law of diminishing returns'. The cost of storing and retrieving these sub-classes seems to be out of all proportion to his limited aim in using English as a tool of communication. As part of a reduction strategy aimed at learning economy, he ignores sub-classes and subsumes them in highly generalised rules. In the foreign language teaching situation the learner is not alone in using generalisations for learning economy. Simplified generalisations seem to be built into foreign language teaching situations. Teaching materials, teaching techniques, teaching and learning goals all attempt to bring about learning economy through the reduction of the L_2 along one dimension or another. Abridged and simplified texts, and simplified school grammar books are, by their very nature, full of simplified generalisations. There is hardly a teaching course that does not base itself on the transitive-intransitive generalisation, nor is there a teaching

(1) Jain, M.P. in Richards, (1974), p.197

technique which dispenses with it. This type of generalisation may be a helpful teaching device but it does not truly reflect the nature of the L₂. The learner has very little choice in rejecting a restricted generalisation, if that is the only one available; for if he does so he faces the problem of missing the generalisation and consequently learning is affected.

Richards⁽¹⁾ thinks that the occurrence of untypical verb-uses in many course books appears to be related to a contrastive approach to language teaching. It is often felt that a considerable amount of time should be devoted to the progressive form, since it does not exist in most learners' mother-tongues. Excessive attention to points of difference at the expense of realistic English is a characteristic of much contrastive based teaching. A frequent way of introducing the simple and progressive forms is to establish the contrast:

is = present state
is + ing = present action

On this basis Book I⁽²⁾ gives the following exercise

"Complete the following sentences on the model given:

The boys are playing football.
They played football yesterday
They will play football to-morrow.
They play football everyday."

When the past is introduced, it is often introduced as a past state

e.g. He was sick.
They played football yesterday

(1) Richards, J., (1974), p.179.

(2) Living English, Book I, p.120

This lays the groundwork for the learner to complete the picture of present and past in English by analogy:

is = present state
is + ing = present action
was = past state
was + ing = past action

Thus was or was + ing may be used as past markers. Used together with the verb + ed this produces such sentences as

*He was played football

Interpreted as the form for 'past actions' it gives

lg) Every morning we were going to the sea shore

instead of

Every morning we went to the sea shore

and

lh) I was seeing the accident happening all in front
of my eyes

instead of

I saw the accident happening

Sometimes classroom presentation based on a contrastive analysis of English and the L₁, or on contrasts within English itself ends in confusion for the learner. The progressive form may come to be understood as a narrative tense in some cases. The simple present tense in English is the normal tense for actions seen as a whole, for events which develop according to a plan, or

for sequences of events taking place at the present moment. Thus the famous example of the cooking demonstrator's

"I take two eggs, now I add the sugar....."

This use is represented in the Living English books by the continuous form. In Book I we get a picture of Samya eating a banana. The sentence beside the picture reads

Samya is eating a banana.

Right beside the first picture is one of Samy putting on his clothes. The sentence beside this latter picture reads

Samy is putting on his clothes

There are six other pictures in the story and the sentences for their description all use the progressive form. This is not a normal use of English. The usual tense for a sequence of events taking place at the moment is the present tense, the progressive being used only when a single event is extracted from a sequence, the sequence itself being indicated by the present forms. This presentation of the progressive form leads the learner to assume that the progressive is a form for telling stories in English and for describing successions of events in either the present or the past and sometimes even the future as we see in (1b). Thus in (1a) the learner is trying to begin a story by telling his reader that he lives in Cairo but spends the summer in Alexandria. However the progressive aspect indicates temporariness - an action in progress instead of the occurrence of an action or the existence of a state.

In (1f) the learner's confusion is that of using be + verb + ing instead of be + verb + ed. However the items interested and interesting are quite difficult to use and more will be said about their use in Section 3.

(1) Book I, Living English, pp.112-113

It is in general difficult for the learner to use the progressive aspect because, in addition to the difficulties found in English, in Arabic there is no difference in meaning represented in form between the simple and the be + ing forms. The al-ma:Di cannot express duration or continuity. Where some verbs are used in the simple and the be + ing forms with a change of meaning in English, they are rendered by the muDa:ri' or the ism-al-fa:'il in Arabic. However no change in meaning is involved at all. The verb be used as an auxiliary before the present participle in English to give the progressive aspect is rendered in Arabic by the corresponding verb ka:na, except that in the muDa:ri', ka:na is represented by zero. The learner finds the use of the progressive aspect unfamiliar and therefore tries to reduce his linguistic load by using over-generalisations.

Due to the sheer magnitude of the learner's problem in the next section, we shall itemise the major errors and sub-divide them into sections within section two.

2 Phrase Level Errors (Active)

Errors in the Inflection of the Verb Phrase

a Errors in the inflection of irregular verbs

2a1) I have choosed this faculty because I like English.

2a2) I wroted to him a letter to apologise.

2a3) They teached us things about history and other things.

2a4) His arm was cutted in every place and blood was everywhere.

2a5) We wearred our beach clothes and we go to swim.

2a6) I writed to you one letter and I did not get your answering letter.

Cross-sectional Study	=	95
Stage I	=	8
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

Lexical verbs are either regular or irregular where morphology is concerned. What they have in common is the five principal forms, base, s form, -ing participle, past and -ed participle. The distinction between them is based on the extent to which the last two forms are predictable from the base. The -ing participle and the -s form are usually predictable from the base in all lexical verbs; (the modal auxiliaries have no -s form and no participles). Regular lexical verbs have only four different forms, the past and -ed participle having the same form. If we know the base of a verb, the other three forms are predictable. This is a very powerful rule since the base is the form listed in dictionaries and the majority of English verbs belong to this regular class. It is important to note that the learner is most likely introduced to regular verbs (except for the verb Be) when he first starts to learn English. The rule that the past and the past participle are formed by adding -ed to the base is impressed on his mind, and while he uses the language, he notices that such is the case with most verbs.

Irregular verbs differ from regular verbs in the following ways.

1. They do not have the predictable -ed inflection for the past and past participle. When there is an alveolar suffix they break the rule for a voiced suffix e.g. whereas a regular verb like clean has cleaned and cleaned for past and past participle, an irregular verb like mean forms the past and past participle as meant.
2. Irregular verbs typically but not necessarily have variation in their base vowel. This is a historical phenomenon characteristic of Indo-European languages.

e.g. find - found - found

3. Irregular verbs have a varying number of distinct forms. Most irregular verbs have, like regular verbs, only one common form for the past and the -ed participle, but there is considerable variation in this respect.

e.g.	cut	cut	cut
	meet	met	met
	come	came	come
	speak	spoke	spoken

Considering the characteristics of irregular verbs mentioned above we can divide the 200-odd irregular verbs into seven classes according to the three following criteria:

1. the past is the same as the past participle e.g. met.
2. suffixation in the past and/or the past participle e.g. dreamt.
3. vowel identity: the base vowel is kept unchanged in all the principal parts e.g. cut.

According to this division into 7 classes of verbs we find that some like burn, are very close to regular verbs while others, like sing, are very far from regular. Most remote of all is the verb go. To learn to master the forms of irregular verbs the learner has to learn several rules and make numerous sub-classifications of verbs.

To reduce his linguistic load, the learner applies the rule that he knows best i.e. formation of the past and -ed participle by adding -ed to all verbs, whether regular or irregular. On the basis of this generalisation he forms choosed from choose (2a1), teached from teach (2a3), wearied from wear (2a5) and writed from write (2a6). Choose and wear belong to a class where the past and the past participle are different. Moreover there is a range of base vowel changes and whereas the -ed participle of choose is chosen, that of wear is worn. Teach belongs to a class which has no vowel identity and write has different unpredictable forms of the past (wrote), and the -ed participle (written). The learner

makes these errors mostly in the cross-sectional study but Stage I is not free of them as well. One can say that at these two stages the strategies of the learner are similar to those of the native child learning his own mother-tongue. We have personally watched two native children at home (our own cousins) and noticed their use of bringed and comed which gradually disappeared as they grew older.

The learner, like the native child also adjusts the forms of irregular verbs as he learns more English and has more contact with the L₂. Having acquired a knowledge of the forms of irregular verbs as he learns more English and has more contact with the L₂, the learner uses them but still not without error. His errors this time are due to interference from the other terms of the verb subsystem in question. He sees the past wrote and adds the -ed form as he still believes this is the morpheme one should add for the past.(2a2). The verb cut has identical principal parts but the learner feels that without the -ed he has not put the verb in the past (2a4). This same error occurred with the verb put and with the -ed participle of other irregular verbs. He is still grappling with the various sub-systems required by English irregular verbs.

Fortunately the inflectional errors in the use of irregular verbs are transitional and we notice a decrease in their occurrence at the later stages. However some verbs like hang and dive seem to give problems to the learner even at Stage II .

The errors we are going to discuss in the next few sub-sections involve the use of the auxiliaries, the modals and the infinitive. These are all connected with tense and aspect in English. Here the learner's problem is immense. The greater part of the learning load is the result of the very complicated inflectional system of the English complex verb phrase, the many sub-categorisations of the classes of verbs and the inter-dependence of the constituents of the English VP itself. This is particularly so

when a modal is involved. Chomsky's auxiliary rule shows the complete interdependence of the different affixes in the VP. The final form of the affix depends very much on the (v) that goes with it. Tense in English is part of what is called the auxiliary. Any verb is made up of Aux + V. The Aux rule is given by Chomsky as

Aux \longrightarrow C(M) (have + en) (be + ing) (be + en) .

Like tense, modals are part of the auxiliary but whereas tense must occur, the modals may or may not occur. Through a series of permutation transformations (AF + v \longrightarrow v + Af) the C which is the tense marker, gets attached to the verb. The interdependence of the constituents of the Aux constitutes a problem for all learners whatever their mother-tongue. The Egyptian learner falls into the same kind of error that other learners do. His errors are due to interference between the forms of the English verb-systems (inflection) and the complex structure of the English VP itself.

2b Errors involving the Wrong Form after Do

- 2b1) I did not found the university studies very difficult but
- 2b2) If he does not agrees that friendship is difficult to make he agrees that it is difficult to keep.
- 2b3) People does not cares for family planning and get many children.
- 2b4) The Egyptian farmer does not applies the use of family planning.

Cross-sectional Study	=	120
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

The special operator-auxiliary do presents a problem to many foreign learners. It has no individual meaning but only serves as a 'dummy' operator in sentence processes. The auxiliary do has the forms do, does, did and for negation it has the uncontracted and the contracted negative. Moreover the learner knows that there is a lexical verb do which has the full range of forms. Do-periphrases is required obligatorily in certain cases like questions involving inversion where the verb is in the simple past or present, and in sentences negated by not where the verb is imperative, simple present or past. Another use of do is in emphatic or persuasive constructions where the verb is in the simple present or past or imperative. In situations of emotive emphasis do receives stress to add exclamatory emphasis

e.g. You do look ill.

This use of do differs from the persuasive do in imperatives. Whereas we can say

Do be quiet

we cannot say

*He does be quiet

In English, after the auxiliary do, it is necessary to use the infinitive without to. The infinitive without to is the base form of the verb which is also used for the present tense in all cases. The learner does not identify the form of the verb after the auxiliary do as the bare infinitive; more than likely he identifies it with the present tense. Thus when he uses the past tense of the auxiliary do he tends to add the past tense marker to the lexical verb that is used after it (2b1). Similarly when he

uses the auxiliary does he tends to follow it by the third person inflection of the simple present (2b2), (2b3) and 2b4). He is encouraged in his faulty assumption that the form following the auxiliary do is the present form and not the bare infinitive, by the fact that the answer to a question beginning with did is always in the past tense. Similarly the answer to a question beginning with does is always in the present tense third person.

e.g. Did you like the cake?

Yes I liked it.

Yes I did.

Does he like the cake?

Yes he likes it.

Yes he does.

The fact that in Arabic the verbs do not have such phenomena as the do auxiliary does not make it any easier for the learner. He is again trying out the rules of English and until he comes to terms with them he falls into error.

2c Errors involving the Modal + Verb Forms

2c1) He can drives very well but that day he driving very fast.

2c2) Many students cannot to travel abroad because they are poor.

2c3) I knew that I must worked hard to success in all the exams.

2c4) We can using the money to build the schools and the hospitals and not to get more food.

2c5) Family planning must be force as a rule on all the people.

Cross-sectional Study	=	122
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

Christophersen and Sandved⁽¹⁾ define auxiliaries as words that occur with verbs to form verbal groups or verbal phrases. They sub-group auxiliaries according to the form of the verb with which the auxiliary occurs. Their first group is that of auxiliaries which are used with the bare form of the verb i.e. the bare infinitive. This group includes can, may, will, shall, must, do, dare and need. We notice that apart from the operator do, the rest of the verbs are what we recognise as modals.

Modals are part of the complex verb phrase. They can be combined with the auxiliaries be and have or with both, to form complex verbal groups. Modal auxiliaries are distinct from the primary auxiliaries have and be in that they are all followed by the base infinitive except for ought and used. They can only occur as the first (finite) element of the VP but not in non-finite functions i.e. as infinitives or participles.

e.g. *to may

The modals are not inflected in the third person singular of the present tense and both the present and past forms of the modals can be used in present tense sequence.

e.g. I think he $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{can} \\ \text{stay} \\ \text{could} \end{array} \right.$

The modals have several meanings apart from their syntactic functions. Can can mean any of be able to, be capable of, be allowed to, it is possible that etc. Since modal auxiliaries cannot combine with other modal auxiliaries, they cannot be used with will and shall to denote future. In many contexts they have inherent future reference both in their present and past forms

(1) Christophersen & Sandved, (1969), pp. 72-73

e.g. He $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{may} \\ \text{might} \end{array} \right.$ go to-morrow.

This is not the case with lexical verbs that can denote future when used in the present tense (but not in the past tense)

e.g. He $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{goes} \\ \text{*went} \end{array} \right.$ to-night

To produce correct English sentences the syntactical rule states that after can, must, shall, will, etc. the bare infinitive must be used. The learner however uses the third person of the present indicative. This is the result of an over-generalisation that the learner employs. Over-generalisation covers instances where the learner creates an erroneous structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the L₂. He knows that he must add the morpheme -s to the third person singular. He also knows that the -ed is the marker of the past tense. Whenever he uses a third person singular subject (2c1) he adds the -s to the lexical verb whether there is a modal in the sentence or not. This may be enhanced by the teaching technique used in the classroom. Many pattern drills and transform exercises are made up of utterances that can interfere with each other. He drives may be contrasted with he can drive in an exercise, and later, without any teaching of the forms, the learner may produce he can drives. This is what is called the over-learning of a structure.

Similarly when the learner uses a past tense in the main verb, he adds the -ed marker to the verb following the modal in the subordinate clause (2c3). The learner again does not recognise the form of the verb following the modal as the base-head. He adds the -ed marker because of the past context of his sentence. If he leaves the base-head without the past inflection, he feels that it is in the present rather than in the past tense form.

In (2c2) the learner uses the marked infinitive with to instead of the plain infinitive. The learner here has sub-categorised

verb nuclei wrongly. Modals cannot be followed by the marked infinitive except for ought and used. However the learner has seen that be and have as auxiliaries can be followed by the marked infinitive. He therefore assumes that all auxiliaries, including the modals, can be followed by the marked infinitive. This generalisation relieves him of the task of sub-classification of modal auxiliaries.

The use of the verb + ing construction after the modal (2c4) is wrong because the progressive and perfective aspects are normally excluded when the modals express 'ability'. These aspects are freely used however with other modal meanings

e.g. He can't be studying all day.

Seeing these constructions, and being already confused as to the use of the progressive aspect, the learner again falls into error. In (2c5) the learner omits the -ed participle in a passive construction. This will be fully discussed under section 3 on passivisation. The learner however seems not to recognise that he has already used the base head of the verb be after the modal must and that the past participle form should be used in the passive.

2d The use of the Marked Infinitive instead of the Unmarked Infinitive

- 2d1) The teachers at the university do not make us to understand all the points.
2d2) His wife told him stay but he said he must to go to Cairo and finish his work.
2d3) Because they are rich they let them to do what they like.
2d4) There are many people and I hear them to say that the man is dead.

Cross-sectional Study	=	123
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

Certain verbs like let, make, taste, see, hear, feel, be etc. require the infinitive without to after them. In order to produce correct sentences when these verbs are used, the learner has to sub-categorise verb nuclei firstly into classes of verbs and secondly to sub-classify each sub-categorisation into other sub-groups. The general pattern in English is that most lexical verbs may take the marked infinitive; but not all verbs permit the presence of the to marker.

- e.g. 1) I asked him to go.
2) *I let him to go

The lexical verb ask takes the marked infinitive as adjunct in (1) but let does not permit to as a marker in the infinitive adjunct in (2). Perhaps the only verbal constructions that take only the unmarked infinitives are let, hear, see and watch, as well as certain set phrases like had rather, had better and had sooner. In addition there are some verbs that may be combined with the base infinitive of another verb in certain set phrases

e.g. make believe, hear say, make do.

Again a verb like help is freely combined with the bare infinitive in sentences like

I helped cook the food.

However, help is more often combined with a marked infinitive to give the same meaning.

e.g. Please help me cook this.
Please help me to cook this.

The alternation between the use of the marked and the unmarked infinitive with the same verb is one of the conditions that

facilitates confusion for the learner, and the result is his use of generalisations that produce the above erroneous sentences.

The verbs that mostly take the plain infinitive are catenatives that allow an intervening nominal

e.g. I let him go to the cinema.

However the learner has to sub-divide this group of catenatives into

- a) the group which cannot allow to, and
- b) the group that takes to

e.g. I saw him steal.
I commanded him to go.
*I commanded him go.
*I saw him to steal.

The learner is ignorant of this rule restriction on some verbs. He therefore applies rules to contexts where they do not apply. This is again a type of generalisation since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation.

In (2d1) the learner ignores restrictions on the distribution of the verb make. The situation with make is a little more complex than it appears to be. The unmarked infinitive is used with make when:

- 1) it occurs in a stereotyped phrase as in make believe and make do as said before
- 2) in active verb phrases as in

He made him jump.

However the infinitive marker to must be used when the verb phrase is passivised

e.g. He was made to understand that.....

Therefore the alternation between the use of the marked and the unmarked infinitive after make seems to be linked with the category of Voice. The fact that the occurrence of either form is possible in certain contexts confuses the learner and he falls into error.

Richards⁽¹⁾ suggests that some rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy. Hearing the construction 'ask him to do it' the learner produces by analogy 'make him to do it'. Again some pattern exercises appear to encourage incorrect rules being applied through analogy. The verb make can be used in certain contexts to mean cause or allow or enable. If the pattern exercise includes the practising of make alongside such verbs as allow it to , enable it to , cause it to , this precipitates confusion. Thus

e.g. He allowed him to go to the park

will not block

*He made him to go to the park.

The learner is not aware of the rule restriction that governs make because to him, allow and make practically mean the same thing.

The fact that if the verbs make, see, watch, hear, feel are used in the passive, the marker to is obligatory in the infinitive adjunct of the sentence is probably a main factor in the learner's confusion as to his use of the unmarked and the marked infinitive. As we have pointed out, the occurrence of two similar forms as alternatives in the same linguistic environment (help me cook - help me to cook) is also one of the surest conditions for facilitating confusion and thus the errors in the citations in this section occur.

(1) Richards, J., (1974), pp. 175-176

2e Omission of Auxiliary Be

2e1) We swimming all the day.....

2e2) The overpopulation problem growing very fast in Egypt.

2e3) The car coming at very much speed and hit the old lady.

Cross-sectional Study	=	102
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

It is very difficult indeed to find out the real cause of the learner's omission of the auxiliary be. One could simply attribute it to the fact that there is no verb to be in Arabic. However this does not seem to be the real cause of error. One may more rightly say that because there is no verb to be in Arabic, the learner finds it a totally new feature when it is used as an auxiliary and it takes time for him to use it correctly. At the early stages he seems to either omit it altogether or to add it when it is not necessary (see 2f). We notice that when young English children are learning to use their mother-tongue they tend to miss out the purely grammatical function words like the auxiliary do and the auxiliary be. For their communication needs, the lexical content of the full verb seems to be enough to convey what they want to say. This is what is called the 'telegraphic stage' which they expand gradually as they master the syntactic patterns of their language. The learner seems to omit be for the same reason. Be is purely grammatical in its auxiliary form and he omits it as he feels that the lexical verb is enough to convey his meaning. To learn to use be correctly he has to learn many rules about the occurrence of the auxiliaries, their correct word-order when they occur together in the VP, and the correct inflection and conjugation of be in the different combinations. Moreover, semantically the

be + ing construction is sensitive to the semantics of the lexical verb. Its contribution varies according to the lexical verb's ingredient of optional or compulsory duration or non-duration, repeatability or non-repeatability. Likewise, the grammatical meaning of be + ing is composite. Limited duration can be decomposed into limitation and duration, and duration itself into continuation or repetition. Lexical verbs themselves are subdivided into five semantic classes with respect to their having inherent or potential ingredients of duration, limitation of duration and repeatability.⁽¹⁾ Therefore the easiest way out of this heavy learning load is to omit be rather than use it.

There are teaching devices that encourage the omission of be. The Living English Series introduce be and the Interrogative in their very first lesson. The contracted forms of be, 's and 're are not prominently noticeable to the learner who is in the very early stages of language learning. Thus sentences like

What's your name?

Where're you going?

What's this?

do not necessarily make obvious that the 's or the 're are the forms of the auxiliary be, is and are. Moreover, although the use of questions to elicit sentences is a common teaching device, it may be unrelated to the skills it is meant to establish. A question like

1) What is she doing?

will more than likely elicit the answer

2) She opening the window.

rather than

She is opening the window.

(1) Twaddell, W.F., (1968), p.10.

3) What was Sami saying?

will not block

4) He saying he will go to Cairo.

When a question is used to elicit sentences the answer often has to be corrected by the teacher to counteract the influence of his question. This might be another cause for the learner's omission of the auxiliary be.

2f The use of be + verb stem for simple past or simple present.

2f1) We are went to Alexandria in the summer holiday.

2f2) I am hope that you are all in the good health as always and God keep you like this.

2f3) The farmers are think that God always providing money for the extra children.

2f4) Most of Egyptian people are speak English but very good.

Cross-sectional Study	=	87
Stage I	=	7
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

As a result of constant correction by the teacher who is probably conscious of the difficulty of using the auxiliaries, the learner falls into errors due to hypercorrection. The learner realises at a certain point that the auxiliary be does not exist in his mother-tongue. However he is very conscious that it exists in the L₂. His experience of verbal structures in English shows him the use of be in several combinations with either other auxiliaries or lexical verbs. He therefore generalises the use of be to situations where it is not needed. On the basis of his experience of other structures in English he creates an erroneous structure

like

- *We are went (2f1),
- *I am hope (2f2),
- *The farmers are think (2f3), and
- *..... people are speak (2f4).

As we have said before where the modals were concerned, this is the result of the over-learning of a structure. Pattern drills and exercises of the type that ask the learner to change the verb into a certain form may also enhance the possibility of the type of error the learner makes in this section

e.g. Change into the continuous form
He hopes → he is hoping.

Later the learner in his attempt to communicate in writing may produce

*He is hopes

or

*I am hope

without any teaching of these latter forms. The error is due to interference from the other forms in the verb system.

2g Errors involving the Wrong Form after the Auxiliaries

Have, Be

- 2g1) We have ate a good lunch and swam in the sea.
- 2g2) When we at the beach we have sang songs and played many plays.
- 2g3) He had saw the old man across the street but he cannot stop.
- 2g4) When I was study hard I was a very good pupil but now I am too lazy.

2g5) It was happened that at that moment an old blind man crossing the street.

2g6) He is goes abroad to study and have fun.

Cross-sectional Study	=	114
Stage I	=	12
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

It is often heard that English grammar is relatively simple. When people say this, they are equating the learning of grammar with the learning of morphological variation. Compared with many other languages, English may be fairly straightforward morphologically. There is no case system, no gender system and most verbs have no more than five forms. Setian⁽¹⁾ says that the Egyptian learner is accustomed to morphological irregularities in Arabic, and is not bothered by the relatively simple morphological variations in English. However the learner does make a great deal of morphological errors because although he is used to complex inflection and affixation in the Arabic verb, the way the verb is inflected and the concepts that the affixes and the vowels imply, are different to English. Firstly the pronoun element which reflects the gender and number of the subject of the verb and which is part of the verb itself, is morphologically identical in all verbs and it only appears in two forms, suffix and prefix. The consonants of the verb mark the stem while the formative vowel pattern distinguishes the prefix set (the muDa:ri') from the suffix set (al-ma:Di). Most prefixes and suffixes serve to change the number, aspect and mood of the verb. In our example given on P.172 above the prefix -y in yugattilu:na indicates a cluster of concepts, mainly aspect, gender and person; the morpheme u: indicates number and gender, while -na is a suffix denoting mood. This is

(1) Setian, R., "Grammatical Interference in the Teaching of English to Egyptian Students", ELT, Vol XXVIII, Nr 3, 1973

clearly different to the system of verb inflection in English, especially where the complex VP is concerned. In English one has to manipulate several kinds of auxiliaries to produce a correct complex VP. Besides this, English has other than inflectional devices for expressing verbal features. There is a great difference between Arabic and English where the number of the verbal forms are concerned and in the way in which these forms are divided into words that carry meaning. The way these forms function and the nature of information carried by these forms is totally different. Apart from the two simple tense forms the past and the non-past, the rest of the conjugations of the English finite verb are formed by a combination of auxiliaries and modals with an infinitive, the gerund being excluded. In Arabic the complex verb phrase is formed structurally by the extensive use of particles 'of meaning', certain auxiliaries like ka:na, or by a combination of auxiliary plus particle. The equivalent of the English auxiliary be is represented by six auxiliaries in Arabic namely ?amsa, ?asbaHa, ?aDHa, DHalla, ba:ta and Sa:ra and ka:na. These have full conjugations. Two others have one form only, laysa and ma da:ma. Whereas the English sentence allows a construction composed of a finite verb followed by an infinitive or gerund, the Arabic 'auxiliary' is followed by a verb in the muDa:ri'.

The particles of meaning that occur before verbs serve in localising tenses and forming verbal constructs. These are

- 1) ?an al maSdariyya which, when placed before the muDa:ri' can be equivalent to an English gerund
- 2) the negative particle lam which when placed before a jussive MuDa:ri' gives an English negative present perfect
- 3) qad before the muDa:ri' is equivalent to may but before the ma:Di, it either indicates immediate past or it serves to emphasise the verb and is then equivalent to the emphatic do.
- 4) sa and sawfa before the muDa:ri' yield a future construct.

There are others like la, lamma:, likay, li, ?in etc which serve other functions like those of the conditional, the indirect

imperative etc. Therefore time can be located by syntactical devices in Arabic although there are only two forms that represent aspect (imperfect and perfect) and there are no tenses. There is no verb in Arabic that plays the role of to have either as an auxiliary or a main verb. Its role as an auxiliary is played by particles in certain situations. Although particles seem to play the same role in Arabic that auxiliaries do in English, they are not used or thought of in the same way, as we see.

The learner's problem as regards the tense and aspect systems in English is immense. The greater part of the learning load is the result of the very complicated inflectional system of the English complex verb-phrase and the inter-dependence of the constituents of the English VP. The English VP is made up of interrelated chains of verbs. This is absent in Arabic. The inter-dependence of the constituents of the Aux constitutes a new aspect of language learning. Tense is realised only once in the VP and the other units of the Aux chain are selected and realised as set interdependent constituents of a unified string. This is a very complex feature for the learner to handle. First the learner has to distinguish between two sets of auxiliaries

- 1) primary auxiliaries
- 2) modal auxiliaries

Then he has to learn that in verb constructions containing members of both sets, the modal precedes the primary auxiliaries not vice versa. Along with the Past inflection, have and be participate in a four element system of constructions which is a formal system not a semantic one. The four elements are: ⁽¹⁾

- 1) Past (ed - t - alternate form of stem zero)
- 2) Current relevance (have + ed participle)
- 3) Limited duration (be + ing)
- 4) Passive (be + ed participle)

(1) Twaddell, F.W., (1968), p.2

Grammatically these four elements are potentially co-occurrent in all sixteen possible combinations. Moreover the semantic time-signalling in the tense system is not always obvious.

The learner has to master not only the use of auxiliaries but also the use of the perfective and progressive aspect and the situations in which they must occur. The idea of limited and unlimited duration, current actions, actions started in the past but still in process etc., need time to master. They confuse him as to what form to use after the auxiliary. Twaddell⁽¹⁾ clearly states that although

"structural comparison of the learner's native language with the target language is indispensable"

for a foreign language teaching situation, he continues to say that

".....it should be clear that whenever English is one of the languages involved, the grammar of the auxiliaries will be a major learning problem."

Our experience with the present data certainly proves so.

The difficulty of the feature may lead the learner to faulty comprehension of distinctions in the L₂. This certainly seems to be the case in (2g5) and (2g6). The form was is interpreted as a marker of the past tense and the form is is interpreted as the corresponding marker of the present tense. This false concept gives

*It was happened..... (2g5)

and

*He is goes.....(2g6)

This is perhaps due to poor gradation of teaching items. The verb to be is always introduced as early as possible in a language

(1) Twaddell, W.F., (1968) p. 25

learning syllabus. The contrast that is always made is that of using is and is + ing for present state and present action and was and was + ing for past state and past action. Was and is are thus interpreted as markers of the past and present tense respectively, and the learner follows them by the -ed and -s forms of the lexical verbs according to the time concept they represent.

In (2g1), (2g2) and (2g3) the learner uses the past tense instead of the past participle. The only possible explanation one can give is that the learner generalises the rule that the past and the past participle almost always take the same form in regular English verbs. Thus he leaves ate, saw and sang in their past tense form, assuming that the past participle form is the same as the past. It is very difficult however to explain what the learner's learning strategies are when he produces an error like that in (2g4). One can only guess that the learner suffers from interference of the different terms of the forms of the English VP aspect and tense systems.

3 Errors in the Passive Voice Inflections

- 3a) After the people had separated by the police the ambulance took the hurt one away (had been separated)
- 3b) My average brought down by the low marks I got in mathematics and so I cannot go to the Faculty of Medicine (was brought down)
- 3c) When the year at the school finished and all things been prepared we went to Alexandria (had been prepared)
- 3d) After all the food was eat we had a lie on the sand (was eaten)
- 3e) It was discovering by Darwin that man comes from animals not Adam and so science contradicts with religion (was discovered)
- 3f) Family planning must be force as a rule on the people (must be forced)
- 3g) All the people are interesting to go outside and learn from the other country (are interested)

3h) I did not like the food ate in that country (eaten)

Cross-sectional Study	=	254
Stage I	=	32
Stage II	=	15
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

In English, passivisation requires an elaborate inflectional system where the VP is concerned. According to Chomsky⁽¹⁾ the English passive is a transformation of the basic sentence as follows:

- a) Structural Description - NP₁ - Aux - V - NP₂
- b) Structural Change - NP₂ - Aux - be + en - V - by + NP₁
- c) Aux - C(M) (have + en) (be + ing) (be + en)

The affixes are subject to an obligatory transformational rule of permutation.

- d) AF + v - v + AF (where the sequence AF + v is permuted at word boundary).

Considering the above complicated transformational rules and the elaborate and difficult inflectional system, it takes the learner time and effort to achieve some mastery of them.

In Arabic there is no exact equivalent which reflects the passive exactly as it is in English. The u - i - a formative vowel pattern of the maghu:l form has been considered as equivalent to the English passive, but this is misleading in several ways. The doer of the action in a maghu:l sentence is unknown, hence the

(1) Chomsky, N., (1957), p.43

name maghu:l (unknown). The English passive gives a workable equivalent, so long as the doer of the action is not revealed by a -by phrase. Transformationally the difference between the English passive and the Arabic maghu:l is the following:

- 1) English - NP₁ - Aux - V - NP₂ \longleftrightarrow NP₂ - Aux +
be + en - V - by + NP₁
- 2) Arabic - V - NP₁ - NP₂ \longrightarrow V - NP₂

Whereas in English the arrow can point in both directions, i.e. the active sentence is recoverable from the passive one,⁽¹⁾ in Arabic the arrow can point only in one direction i.e. the active sentence is unrecoverable. This is because of the agent constraint in the Arabic maghu:l form. The agent is unknown or irrelevant. Moreover the formative vowel pattern that forms the maghu:l form is a separate morpheme quite distinct from that of the active forms, and therefore no allomorph of the active formation pattern. The maghu:l formative pattern changes the voice of the verb and the meaning:

e.g. qatala (active formative vowel pattern)
= he killed

qutila = (maghu:l formative vowel pattern)
he was killed

The maghu:l like the active verb can be followed by an adjective bearing the same inflectional morpheme /u/ as the noun. However the maghu:l cannot be followed by an object like the active form. There are no affixes added to the verb root to form the maghu:l form, but inflection is solely represented by the internal vocalic change of the formative vowel pattern. In this way Arabic is totally different to English. Because the maghu:l indicates an action realised but not designated by a subject, the person or thing on which the action falls takes the place of the subject only in appearance as it were, and hence it is a na:?ib fa:'il or 'deputy subject' in Arabic. It is still the patient and not the agent of the action.⁽²⁾

(1) This is not the case with all passives in English.

(2) Cf. Section on Voice, pp. 191-194 above.

Some verb stems in Arabic never occur in the maghu:l form. The ninth stem f'alla and the two sub-forms of the primary stem fa'ula and fa'ila never occur in the maghu:l form.

e.g. Hmarra = it became red
Saghura = he became small
Saghira = he became young

By their very denotation they cannot have a passive construction. The fifth stem form also expresses a kind of passive notion. This is rendered well by the English got as a passive auxiliary, which is usually restricted to constructions without an expressed animate agent.

e.g. takassarat = it got broken

Therefore particularly where the inflection of the passive VP is concerned Arabic differs from English.

The passive is not only a structural phenomenon but also a functional one. Its use is determined by extra-textual factors such as

- 1) When the speaker does not know the agent of the action.
- 2) When the speaker wishes to focus attention on the action rather than the agent.
- 3) Even if the speaker knows the agent, he is not interested in specifying his identity either because he does not want to or because the identity of the agent is not significant to the context.

The intuitions of the speaker therefore, determine the choice between passive and active constructions. Thus Passivity/Activity is a feature of Language or a language universal, and different languages may express it differently. Bulos⁽¹⁾ says

(1) Bulos, A., (1965), p.31

that in Arabic the maghu:l form is that form where the agent is not only unknown, but should not be revealed, even though it may be known. If the agent is important in a sentence, (or if it is known) Arabic uses the active voice quite straightforwardly as there is no point in using the maghu:l form. It seems to us that modern English is heading towards less use of the passive when the paraphrase relation in active/passive does not change the meaning of the sentence. The passive only adds an element of complexity to the verb phrase and is felt to be heavier than the corresponding active. The agent phrase is an optional, not an obligatory element. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ say that

"approximately four out of five English passive sentences have no expressed (surface) agent"

In this way English is moving closer to the Arabic maghu:l. However the passive is still important in English and it is still expressed either by the passive construction as formalised in the Chomskyan transformational rules we have given above, or by the use of an impersonal subject in a formally active construction.

As we see from our frequency count in this sub-section the learner does not make use of the passive construction a great deal. This may be because the passive is generally used in informative rather than in imaginative writing in English, notably in the objective, non-personal style of scientific articles or experiments. Most likely it is because the passive is heavier and more complex than the corresponding active. Even native speakers of English use the passive less frequently than the active form. English children in primary school hardly use passive constructions.⁽²⁾ The acquisition of the structural passive seems to come with maturity and older students in the secondary schools make more use of it. Even adult English speakers tend to use the impersonal subject with a formally active construction, or even the second person pronoun for the agent in a functionally passive sentence, particularly in informal situations like describing how to make a cake etc. In formal situations however, (for example in news items or in examinations), the structural passive construction

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 807

(2) Cf. Sakeyfio, N.A., (1975), unpublished M.Phil Thesis University of London.

is used by adult speakers of English. The learner however seems not to be aware of the registerially conditioned alternations of the structural passive and the 'dummy you' construction. He prefers the impersonal subject and the 'dummy you' construction in all situations and at all stages.

The learner's lack of use of the passive construction is not without reason. Although textbooks⁽¹⁾ generally introduce the passive in as simple a fashion as possible, the feature is not as simple as it may seem.

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ show the complications involved in this feature by discussing the different kinds of constraints relating to verbs, the object, the agent, meaning, and the frequency of use of the passive. These constraints determine the choice of the active or passive. Moreover there are three classes of passives: quasi-passives which are a mixed class whose members have both verbal and adjectival properties, agentive passives with and without expressed agents, and non-agentive passives.

For practical reasons, teachers and textbook writers whose main interest is facilitating the learning of the feature, confine themselves to teaching the simpler passive forms. Their explanation of the feature involves the rearrangement of the subject and object, the active object becoming the passive subject and the active subject becoming the passive agent. They stress that the preposition by is introduced before the agent. This takes care of the elements of the clause. At the VP level they explain that the passive auxiliary is be in its several forms followed by the -ed participle. Having already seen the learner's problem with the use of auxiliaries in the VP the inflection of the Passive VP will certainly present more of a problem.

(1) Allen, W.S., (1958), pp. 149-154

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 801-811

In the first three citations in this section (3a), (3b) and (3c) we notice that the learner makes an attempt at simplifying the feature of the passive voice by omission of the passive auxiliary be or by omission of the auxiliary have when both auxiliaries occur together. This is because although Arabic has a complex inflectional system where the verb is concerned, the two types of inflection used with verbs in Arabic and English differ. Whereas in Arabic one simply changes the formative vowel pattern of a stem to form the maghu:l form, English uses an auxiliary which is inflected for tense and voice, and sometimes it uses a series of auxiliaries that have to be correctly inflected before the addition of the past participle, which again has to be inflected appropriately according to whether the verb is regular or irregular. The interdependence of the constituents of the auxiliary in English is again the major source of difficulty. The learner wants to convey the passive concept but his use of the passive auxiliaries is erroneous. Transformationally it is in the auxiliary rule that he tends to go wrong. In (3d) the learner fails to add the -ed participle and leaves the main verb in its base (Infinitive) form. Having seen the learner's problem with the complex inflectional system of the VP we can assign this error firstly to his confusion and secondly to interference between the other terms of the English subsystem in question. Thus confusion of the past participle is probably due to the fact that in some verbal forms the auxiliary is followed by the past participle (in the perfect tenses and in the passive voice), in others by the infinitive (in the future tense and the conditional); this leads to doubt as to which form to use. The same applies to confusion of the present and past participle in (3e) and (3g). The actual verb of the learner's sentence (3e) in Arabic would be rendered in the active rather than in the maghu:l form, as the 'agent', Darwin, is known. The learner is therefore trying his hand at the English passive construction, but being confused as to the -ed participle and -ing participle in use, he uses the present participle form.

We suspect that the learner's use of interesting instead of interested in (3g) is due to the difficulty of that item which

shares the qualities of a verb and an adjective. It is, if rightly employed, used as what Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ would call a 'quasi passive'. The learner reads sentences where the following occur:

- a) She is an interesting girl
- b) I am interested in that subject.
- c) The book was interesting.

In (1) interesting is a noun modifier which to the learner looks rather like the verb interest + ing. Only if we compare the following structures can we find out if the item is actually a modifier or a verb.

- 1) an attractive girl
- 2) a smiling girl
- 3) an interesting girl

Is (3) more like (1) or more like (2)? We might argue that (3) is more like (1) than like (2) because we can say:

The girl seemed attractive

and

The girl seemed interesting

but not

*the girl seemed smiling

The machinery of English transformation throws some light on this problem. There is a particular set of transitive verbs that occur in sentences of the pattern:

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.809

It him

These verbs can take nouns referring to human beings as objects, but do not have to have nouns referring to human beings as subjects. We can say

It interested him

It frightened him etc.

This set of verbs can, in general, add the morpheme -ing and then substitute for adjectives following verbs of the seem type as well as be. The transformation is given by Roberts⁽¹⁾ as

NP + Aux + VT + NP (person) ——— NP + Aux + (V (seem)
(be)
+ VT + ing

So we have relationships like

- c) The story interested him
- d) The story seemed interesting (to him)
- e) The story was interesting (to him)

In (d) the word interesting becomes an adjective by adoption as it were, and it is a transform from the transitive verb interest. However the word smiling in (2) above is just the participle of a verb because there is no such sentence as

*The girl smiled him

In (e) interesting is also an adjective and not a present participle form of the verb. Interesting here is a functionally passive verb in an active form. The learner does not recognise this. In his confusion he thinks that he can form are interesting on the pattern of was interesting as he assumes that interesting is the present participle form of the verb. We think the learner is very confused

(1)

Roberts, P., (1964), p.240

by the -ing and -ed inflections when they are used with items used as modifiers of nouns. We have found citations like

*It was a very excited day

in Stage I, formed on the pattern of

These are troubled times

The adjectival and verbal qualities implied in certain items make him fall into error.

The nature of many of the errors in the next section is seen in the relationship of the VP, which might itself be segmentally correct, to the rest of the context. This is particularly seen in the relationship of the VP to

- a) the other VPs in the complex sentence
- b) the time adverbial in the same clause
- c) the context of the paragraph and the whole tense environment of the narrative.

These errors are strictly clause level errors, as the scope of the error extends beyond the confines of the VP.

4 Wrong Use of the Present Tense for the Past Tense in Narrative

4a1) Yesterday we go to the beach in the morning. We play sing and at last we walk in the fresh air.

4a2) Last Summer I go to Alexandria.

4a3) On that day I play football and swim.

4a4) In the morning I go to university early. (on that morning)

4a5) We did not work but we meet our new doctors.

Cross-sectional Study	=	172
Stage I	=	16
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

Using the present tense instead of the past is one error in tense that is quite difficult to explain. The error cannot be caused by interference from Arabic, where the past tense is used, (represented clearly by al-ma:Di) and where the distinction between the present, the past, and the future is generally made. Apart from the very vague reason of carelessness and negligence on the part of the learner, there seems to be no adequate explanation. Compared to the complexity of Arabic morphology and syntax, English tends to appear to the learner as a language without a difficult grammar. He therefore tends to be careless with it. In the majority of cases, the sequencing of tenses depends very much on basic common sense. Since the learner is recounting incidents that happened in the past, there is no reason why he should fluctuate between the present and the past.

Duskova⁽¹⁾ describes the error as a mistake in performance, a true slip, similar to omission of the plural ending. She explains it thus

"Perhaps the present tense as well as the singular, which a learner internalises first, are impressed on his mind as basic forms which he resorts to as substitutes for all other forms not yet adequately learnt"

The explanation seems plausible enough especially that the learner is taught the present tense and the present continuous before the past tense. The textbook writers tend to give little time to the past tense compared to the amount of time and number of exercises they dedicate to the present and the present continuous tenses. This is because they know that the learner has already got the concept of the past represented clearly through al-ma:Di in his mother-tongue. It is the present continuous and the simple present that are used differently in his L₁ and the L₂, and textbook writers as well as teachers tend to stress the correct use of these

(1) Duskova, L., (1969), p.24

English present forms. Moreover teachers spend so much time in the classroom contrasting the uses of the simple present and the present continuous that they do not have much time left to give to the apparently uncomplicated use of the past tense.

Considering what we have said in the last paragraph, it is very natural that the -ed marker is not as clearly impressed on the learner's mind as the unmarked present tense. The result is that when the teachers contrast the present and the past in the grammar of the L₂, the -ed marker does not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. It appears to carry no meaning particularly in narrative or in other past contexts, since pastness is usually indicated lexically in stories. To the learner the essential notion of sequence in narrative can be expressed equally well in the present. Thus the learner cuts down the tasks involved in sentence production and uses the tense he is familiar with. This over-generalisation is probably encouraged by the fact that in most of the cases the learner uses a past time adverbial in the sentence in which he uses the present tense. He seems to think that by using a past time adverbial like yesterday or last summer etc. (sentences 4a1 - 4a4) he has already sufficiently indicated that what he is talking about has happened in the past. The tense he uses with the adverbial does not seem important to him. However in (4a5) it is clearly shown that he uses the two tenses in one sentence. . In that context he is writing about his first day at the university, and he assumes that because he is talking about the past, the reader understands that the context is past.

It is fortunate that this type of error thins out as the learner goes up the language learning scale. This seems to suggest that, at least in part, this error is an error of immaturity which the learner grows out of. It is an error of transitional competence rather than one which represents the learner's final grammatical competence.

4b Wrong Use of the Past Perfect for Simple Past and Vice Versa

4b1) I had spent a very interesting day in the sea and
I returned home happy.

4b2) The first day I had gone to university very early to
find out what I will do.

4b3) Before I arrived the other friends arrived also.

Cross-sectional Study	=	87
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

4c Wrong Use of Present Perfect for Simple Present and Vice Versa

4c1) My life is empty. Every day I have woken up thinking
what I will do with my life.

4c2) At the end of the day I have been very tired because
of work I had done.

4c3) I am in this faculty two years now and.....

Cross-sectional Study	=	153
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	3

4d Wrong Use of Present Perfect for Simple Past and Vice Versa

4d1) I have arrived in Alexandria yesterday only.

4d2) Some days ago I have gone to the beach with my friend.

4d3) Since two days ago I went to the beach and enjoyed
with the fresh air.

4d4) Since I was in this beautiful city I am happy.

Cross-sectional Study	=	160
Stage I	=	14
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

The English simple past tense is very close to the sense conveyed in Arabic by the al-ma:Di form, and the two forms often have parallel uses. For an action completed in the past English uses the simple past, while the Arabic al ma:Di renders this use quite adequately. There seems to be no reason why the learner should use the past perfect instead of the simple past tense. The uses of the present tense in English are paralleled by similar uses of the muDa:ri' in Arabic

e.g. My father lives in Cairo = ya 'ishu ?abi fi-l-qa:hira
Every day I wake up = ?aSHu: kula yawmin

Once again there seems to be no reason inherent in the L₁ as to why the learner should use a perfect tense instead of a simple one. Yet another error the learner falls into is that of using the simple past tense when the present perfect should be employed (4d) This is a much more common error than the previous two.

The perfect tenses in English are formed by placing to have in one tense or another before the past participle. Arabic does not have the verb to have either as an auxiliary or even as a verb of full meaning. 'ind followed by a pronominal suffix renders such expressions as

I have a book

and

He has a car

Nevertheless the perfect tenses can be rendered in Arabic, although sometimes the line of demarcation between them (i.e. the present perfect, the past and the past perfect tenses) seems to be a little hazy. It is important to remember that while the present perfect can be rendered in Arabic, the tense as such is so typically English that the Arabic speaking learner, like so many speakers of other languages, never acquires a real mastery of it.

In an affirmative Arabic sentence qad + al ma:Di render both the present and past perfect tenses. In the past perfect, qad is preceded by ka:na in its al-ma:Di form

- e.g. 1) We have arrived = qad waSalna:
2) We had arrived before we saw you = kunna qad waSalna qabla ?an narakum

We notice in (2) that while the verb waSalna is in the past tense, the verb nara:kum is in the muDa:ri' preceded by the particle ?an. The concept of pastness conveyed by the verb qad waSalna in the main clause extends itself to the verb in the subordinate clause, even though this verb is in the muDa:ri'. When we consider the use of the present perfect in sentence (1), there is no marked difference between it and the simple past tense in Arabic. However we get closer correspondence between the English present perfect and its Arabic equivalent in negative sentences. In this case Arabic places lam, a particle of negation, before the muDa:ri' thus yielding the jussive of the muDa:ri'

- e.g. They have not arrived yet = lam yaSilu ba'd
I have not seen him since yesterday = lam ?ara:hu mundhu ?ams

To express the English simple past Arabic uses the al-ma:Di form, and, depending on the context, this form is preceded by either qad or ka:na. For iterative action in the past, ka:na + alma:Di are used. However one can also use ka:na + the muDa:ri' for this same iterative action in the past. The trouble seems to be that Arabic uses both the al-ma:Di and the muDa:ri' forms to express the simple past and the present and past perfect tenses, depending on the context. If for example the verb implies a period continuing up until the present, the muDa:ri' plus the helping verb maza:la are used. On the other hand if the period of time is not yet over, the present perfect is rendered by al-ma:Di or al-ma:Di preceded by the particle qad. Hence the learner is bound to confuse the use of the perfect tenses and the simple past.

Moreover, the perfective forms of colloquial Arabic are actually equivalent to two different forms in English, the present perfect and the simple past:

- e.g. dakhalet-el-?ou:da =
- 1) she entered the room
 - 2) she has entered the room

The L₁ could be the reason for the learner's errors.

While interference from the mother-tongue plays a role here, we believe that the difficulty inherent in the system of tense and aspect in English is a stronger cause of error. The difficulty learners face with the VP tenses is always attributed to the differences between the two temporal systems of the respective L₁ and the L₂. However Duskova⁽¹⁾ thinks that the actual source of most errors is interference from the other terms of the English verb subsystems and only rarely from the corresponding mother-tongue form. This seems to us a plausible assumption.

The internal semantic and syntactic structure of the VP itself in English is very complex. Learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verbal forms of that language⁽²⁾. If we think of past time, it can be expressed in English by

- 1) the simple past
I wrote to her yesterday
- 2) the present perfect
He has written several letters
- 3) The past perfect
He had written several letters by lunch time

However whereas the simple past denotes a definite event that finished in the past, the present perfect denotes an indefinite

(1) Duskova, L., (1969), pp. 23-24

(2) Palmer, F.R., (1974), p.1

event, while the past perfect states an event finished by the time another event took place. Moreover in meaning, the past perfect is neutral as regards the differences expressed by the past tense and the present perfect. This means that if we put events further into the past they both end up in the past perfect.

e.g.	(a)	He arrived on Sunday
They tell me that	(b)	He has already arrived.
	(a ₁)	He had arrived on Sunday
They told me that	(b ₁)	He had already arrived.

Again when describing one event following another in the past, we can show their relation by using the past perfect for the earlier event, or else we can use the past tense for both, and rely on the conjunction (e.g. after, when) to show which event took place earlier.

e.g.	(After)	I	(left)	the room, they started laughing
	(When)		(had left)	

This situation is evidently very confusing for the learner and he therefore uses the tenses erroneously.

The English tenses in general are used erroneously particularly in contexts supported by adverbial time expressions such as yesterday, some days ago, every day, since Monday etc. But it is like putting the cart before the horse to direct the learner to use a certain tense like the simple present for instance, to give a particular meaning, in this case habitual or repeated action with expressions such as every day (4c1). The meaning of habitual action is indicated by every day (or by the inherent semantics of the unmodified lexical verb), the grammar of the simple present is compatible with, not the signal for that meaning. If for example we want to talk about habitual action in the past one can use the simple past with every day.

e.g. Ten years ago I lived in France. At that time I went for a walk by the Seine every day.

A construction containing the past with or without other auxiliaries has either a limitation to the chronological past, or a focus upon non-reality, or is automatic in sequences of tenses. If a sentence contains could/might/should/would/, then if + past signals uncertainty, unreality or improbability. In itself the combined structure if + past.....could/might/ etc, is void of any time signalling content, and is compatible with contextual or situational clues specifying future, present or past chronology. The past without could/might/etc signals earliness, time anterior to that of the utterance and nothing else; it does not per se specify the quantitative extent or earliness in terms of remoteness or recentness. The past is automatic and meaningless in constructions syntactically dependent upon another construction with the past tense i.e. in sequence of tenses.

e.g. He said that he had not gone to the cinema last night
I thought they were with you

These concepts that the various tenses convey, especially when they are used together in sequence are very difficult for the learner to grasp.⁽¹⁾ Teachers have to be very careful in presenting the perfect tenses and the simple past, by pointing out the time expressions used in the context to support the use of the perfect tenses rather than the past or vice versa. Some require the present perfect while others require the simple past. The present perfect must be used for an action begun in the past and continuing into the present. I have been in this faculty two years means I am still there and thus there is no need for the adverb now introduced by the learner with the present tense in (4c3). The verb in the answer to a 'since' clause of time (4d4) is generally in the present perfect and not in the past. With a stated time in the past (4d1) the past tense should be used.

Not having mastered the rules that apply to English tenses, the learner is confused by the time implication of the tenses as he is by the forms of the verb tense system.

(1) A look at Leech, G., (1971) will show how diverse and complicated the meaning of the English verb is.

4e Wrong Use of the Past Continuous for the Simple Past

- 4e1) In the evening we were going back to the house and the day finished happy.
- 4e2) In the morning I was swimming in the sea and the water was good and so I catch a fish and eat it.
- 4a3) We were drinking coca cola and others drinks and eating nice food.

Cross-sectional Study	=	143
Stage I	=	12
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The errors here clearly involve both tense and aspect. We have already explained how the past + -ing form could be used by the learner erroneously to imply past action in narrative.⁽¹⁾ The errors in this section are typical of this sort of error. Seen in relation to the other VPs in the complex sentence they appear as errors of using the wrong tense. The was + -ing are used as past markers instead of the verb stem + -ed.

4f The Past followed by the Present Continuous instead of the Past Continuous

- 4f1) They asked me what faculty I am going to join.
- 4f2) He asked me why I am joining the English department.
- 4f3) They said they are going to Alexandria for the summer.

Cross-sectional Study	=	114
Stage I	=	11
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	2

(1) Cf p.202 above.

Discussion and Explanation

When the verb in the principal clause is in the past tense, a past tense can be used in subordinate clauses. The rule however does not apply in some cases. Firstly it does not apply to verbs within quotations

e.g. He said "I am waiting for your answer"

Secondly it does not apply to facts that are true at all times

e.g. He said that Cairo is a great city.

Thirdly, in comparisons, the past tense verb can be followed by a present tense verb.

e.g. He liked you more than he likes me

Obviously the learner gets confused when he sees that a past tense verb in the main clause can be followed by both a present tense verb and a past tense verb in the subordinate clause. The result is that he has doubts as to which form to use.

4g Using the Future in the 'if' clause instead of the Present

4g1) If I will succeed I will work as a translator.

4g2) If I will learn English I will be able to work many work.

4g3) If I will travel abroad, I will first go to England.

Cross-sectional Study	=	.76
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

In a simple future condition the present tense is used in the conditional or 'if' clause, and the future in the answer to the condition. However the ~~present~~ tense may be used in an 'if' clause expressing a request

e.g. I shall be grateful if you will let me go.

Again this confuses the learner into always using the future in both clauses.

4h Using the wrong form of the Modal

4h1) He said that we will go to-morrow to Alexandria.

4h2) I thought I can study hard and in this way learn the language but one cannot learn languages in this way.

4h3) They told us that they may let us join the Faculty if we have the high marks.

Cross-sectional Study	=	93
Stage I	=	10
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

When the verb in the principal clause is in a past tense, the modals shall, will, may and can change to the past tense in subordinate clauses. Again this is one of the rules that the learner seems not to have mastered. Confusion of the English tenses is a common error committed by foreign learners of diverse mother-tongues. The error is inevitable because of

- 1) the difference in the temporal systems of the various languages.
- 2) the great semantic complexity of the English VP
- 3) the structural complexity of the English VP
- 4) the interference that is caused by the other terms of the English verb system.

5 The Use of the Gerund instead of the Marked Infinitive and Vice Versa

- 5a) In that day we do many things as to swim, to eat and to take sun-bath.
- 5b) When I see the corruption in my country I can't help to be sorry.
- 5c) The first thing the Egyptians must do is giving up to have many children.
- 5d) He tried to move his leg but he was unable of doing.

Cross-sectional Study	=	174
Stage I	=	12
Stage II	=	11
Stage III	=	6

Discussion and Explanation

The type of error in this section is not due to mother-tongue interference but to the complexity of the grammatical and semantic conditions that determine the choice of the gerund instead of the marked infinitive and vice versa in English. The learner gets confused for several reasons. Firstly, there are many cases in English where the use of one form instead of the other does not affect the basic meaning of a sentence nor its grammar in any significant way. Thus sentence (a) below is, to all intents and

purposes synonymous with sentence (b).

- a) I like swimming
- b) I like to swim

Similarly there does not seem to be any difference between

- c) I taught him skating

and

- d) I taught him to skate

Secondly both the marked infinitive and the gerund may be 'expanded' by an 'object' as in

- e) Reading novels is fun
- b) To read novels is fun

Here though, the infinitive is rare and one usually prefers a construction with the anticipatory it:

- g) It is fun to read poems

Thirdly as subjects filling the NP slot in a sentence, the gerund and the marked Infinitive are sometimes substitutable:

- h) Swimming is enjoyable
- i) To swim is enjoyable

The construction with the infinitive is not as popular as the construction with the gerund in this position, but it is not erroneous.

In certain cases however the use of one form instead of the other, is not grammatically possible. In the nominal position

often called the 'object of a preposition', the gerund is possible but not the marked infinitive.

- j) You learn more quickly by seeing than by hearing
- k) *You learn more quickly by to see than by to hear

Certain items like worth and like can take the gerund after them but not the marked infinitive.

- l) There is nothing like sleeping well at night
- m) *There is nothing like to sleep well at night

In certain other cases, the use of the gerund instead of the marked infinitive can denote a slight shift in meaning

- o) I hate to lie
- p) I hate lying

Sentence (o) means that the speaker hates the idea of he himself having to tell a lie. Sentence (p) on the other hand means that the speaker hates the habit of lying, generally. From these two interpretations we can deduce that the gerund is used to express a more passive attitude of dislike of the action denoted by the -ing form. The gerund is used for general statements covering much wider semantic areas, while the marked infinitive is used for particular instances, i.e. it is used if the implication is an active intention and a deliberate choice to do whatever the infinitive denotes.

There are still other cases where the use of one form for the other denotes a substantial shift in semantic meaning. Thus

- (q) I remembered to shut the door

is different from

- (r) I remembered shutting the door

Sentence (q) means 'I didn't fail to shut the door', i.e. the act of remembering preceded the act of shutting so that the marked infinitive can be said to refer forward in time. Sentence (r) means 'I could recall the fact that I had shut the door', i.e. the act of remembering followed the act of shutting so that the reference of the gerund is backward in time.

There are other instances where the meaning difference is absolute so that the occurrence of a gerund in a sentence could mean the direct opposite of a sentence containing the marked infinitive.

- (s) They stopped to talk
- (t) They stopped talking

Sentence (s) means they stopped whatever they were doing in order to talk, while sentence (t) means they ceased talking.⁽¹⁾

In order to master the distributional patterns of the gerund as opposed to the marked infinitive the learner has to take into account the graded scale of semantic implications ranging through instances when the constructions with the two are

- 1) synonymous
- 2) nearly synonymous
- 3) quite different in meaning
- 4) directly opposed in meaning.

What makes the area more difficult to deal with is the fact that this graded scale is bound up with the meaning of the main verb. Moreover, the fact that there are many cases where the use of the gerund and the marked infinitive are synonymous, helps to strengthen the idea that they can be used in free variation for the learner.

(1) Zandvoort, (1957), pp. 4-47, gives a detailed study of the distributional potentialities of the gerund and the marked Infinitive.

The use of the gerund and the marked infinitive constitutes a very difficult teaching area. The teachers and textbook writers do not make an attempt at tackling the complex distributional patterns of these forms nor do they take into account the graded scale of semantic implications. Rather than bear this heavy learning load the learner puts it aside and uses the two forms alternatively.

Phrasal Verbs

No chapter on the verb phrase is complete without a section on the verb + particle constructions. A whole thesis could be written about these constructions but here we have time only for a very brief review and again, only of those parts that are relevant to the errors the learner tends to make. The multi-word verbs are divided into Phrasal verbs, Prepositional verbs and Phrasal-Prepositional verbs. Here we shall deal with phrasal verbs while the prepositional verbs will be dealt with in the next chapter on the Prepositional Phrase.

Up until our present day the verb + particle constructions have never been given a relatively thorough and exhaustive treatment. Sroka⁽¹⁾ tells us that

"What can be found on the subject scattered throughout the linguistic literature, are mere attempts whose theoretical bases remain, in most cases, in the sphere of intuition and whose results illuminate only some aspects of the problem without aiming at a synthesis based on broad material analyzed in the light of a sound linguistic theory.the descriptive grammar of present-day English lacks both a theory of the subject and a detailed description."

This gap in language description has been caused by the fact that throughout the successive periods of linguistics, attention was concentrated on inflection and the basic structure of the sentence (subject + verb + object + modifiers). The verb + particle constructions did not seem to present an important grammatical problem because the 'particles' were most frequently not considered to be 'parts of speech', both because of their short unobtrusive form, and because of their meaning; a particle did not denote an object or action.

Authors dealing with modern English grammar have called this special category of verbs which take particles, group-verbs⁽²⁾,

(1) Sroka, K., (1972), p.14

(2) Sweet, H., (1900), p.138

phrasal verbs⁽¹⁾, separable compounds⁽²⁾ and separable verbs⁽³⁾ among other appellations.⁽⁴⁾ The above terms cover such constructions as go on, get up, get on with, take to, run about, put off etc. The phenomenon is a complex one and is differently delimited by different authors. The common element of all definitions of terms meant to cover this phenomenon is that the verb and particle, or the verb and a group of particles are said to constitute a kind of integral functional unit. Differences consist in the choice of criteria for establishing that unity or closeness, which finally results in differences of delimitation. Some grammarians would include look at under phrasal verbs while others would include it under prepositional verbs, depending on the criteria they use for differentiating between the preposition and the adverb: e.g. Sweet's⁽⁵⁾ implicitly distributional criteria guide him against classifying at in look at as an adverb in spite of the fact that he regards the collocation look at as a group-verb, by which he means that 'logically' the particle at is more closely connected with the preceding verb look than with a following noun or noun phrase. Krusinga⁽⁶⁾ on the other hand, classifies adverbs and prepositions by making a compromise between criteria of form and criteria of meaning. He identifies the function of a particle used finally as adverbial, even if he has classified it in isolation as a preposition: e.g. When talking about the constructions

1) to laugh at a man

and

2) I won't be laughed at

he says

"We may also consider as semi-compounds the verbs that take what is called a prepositional object: to laugh at a man. The preposition really forms part of the

(1) Smith, L.P., (1948), (first published 1925). The term is attributed to Henry Bradley.

(2) Roberts, M.H., (1936)

(3) Francis, W.N., (1958), p.265

(4) For other terms see Sroka, K., (1972), Introduction.

(5) Sweet, H., (1900), 137 f.

(6) Krusinga, E., (1932), II.

verb and has the function of an adverb rather than of a preposition. This is especially clear in the passive construction 'I won't be laughed at.'

This identification makes Kruisinga stand apart from Sweet. We find therefore that according to how grammarians class a particle, i.e. as an adverb or as a preposition, they class the various combinations of verb + particle as either phrasal verbs or prepositional verbs. It is not our objective to question and argue out the theories of different grammarians regarding these verbs. The reader is referred to Sroka⁽¹⁾ who covers this area very well. Rather we shall try and give the general criteria given for phrasal verbs, and how these criteria differentiate phrasal from prepositional verbs. To do this we must make a difference between phrasal and prepositional verbs, and other looser sequences of verb + adverb and verb + preposition.

There are, in spite of all the theoretical controversies that have been raised by grammarians, broad general grammatical and semantic features that can point out to us whether a particle is an adverb or a preposition, although a striking characteristic of many, but not all of the particles, is that they can function as either, as in

- 3) He sat in the chair
- 4) He came in.

Often the adverb can be replaced with little or no change of meaning by a preposition followed by a noun phrase:

- e.g. 5) He got across
6) He got across the river

This is why some linguists find it plausible to argue that English does not, in fact, have two word-classes, 'adverb' and 'preposition', but a single class 'particle' or perhaps 'prepositional adverb'.

(1) Sroka, K., (1972), Introduction and Chapters IV and V.

However, in spite of the similarity of function between adverb and preposition, they can be formally distinguished.

Consider the sentences

- a) I called up my friend.
- b) We could not put up with her nasty remarks.
- c) I called on her this afternoon.

They must be distinguished from

- d) I called from the club.
- e) I called after lunch.
- f) I called from over the bridge.

The difference between (a), (b), (c) and (d), (e), (f) can be stated in terms of 'cohesion'. In (a), (b) and (c) the adverbial or prepositional particle (up, up with, on) forms a semantic and syntactic unit with the verb; in (d), (e) and (f) the prepositional particle (from, after, from over) is more closely connected with the head of the following prepositional phrase. This is one factor that distinguishes phrasal and prepositional verbs from superficially similar sequences consisting of verbs plus prepositional phrases.

The semantic unity in phrasal and prepositional verbs can be manifested by substitution with a single-word verb with little change of meaning:

e.g. <u>called on</u>	=	visit
<u>put up with</u>	=	bear
<u>call up</u>	=	summon

Furthermore phrasal and prepositional verbs often have composite meanings which are not normally deducible from their parts;

e.g. take in = deceive.

The terms 'phrasal' and 'prepositional' verbs are not restricted only to such idiomatic combinations however. We can distinguish three sub-classes within 'phrasal' and 'prepositional' verbs, where it will be convenient to refer to both the adverbial and the prepositional element as 'particle' for now.⁽¹⁾

1) The verb and the particle keep their individual lexical meanings

e.g. bring in
take out
look over

The individuality of the components appears in possible contrastive substitutions

e.g. bring out;
take in

2) The verb alone keeps its basic lexical meaning and the particle has an 'intensifying' function.

e.g. find out = (discover)

3) The verb and the particle are fused into a new idiomatic combination, the meaning of which is not deducible from its parts

e.g. bring up = educate
turn up = appear

In such combinations as the above there is no possibility of contrastive substitutions. There are no pairs such as

bring up children (educate)

and *bring down children.

look after = (take care of someone)

*look before (someone)

(1) See Quirk et al, (1972), p.812

The adverbial lexical values of the particles have been lost, and the entire verb-particle combination has acquired a new meaning. In some cases the same verb-particle combination can belong to more than one sub-class with a corresponding difference in meaning:

- e.g. He went into (the house
 (the problem

Apart from this semantic 'cohesiveness' common to sentences (a), (b) and (c), there is also a syntactic similarity. The verbs in these three sentences can accept passivisation, while those in sentences (d), (e) and (f) do not.

- a₁) My friend was called up
b₁) Her nasty remarks could not be put up with
c₁) She was called on this afternoon

While the above are possible, the following are not

- d₁) *The club was called from
e₁) *Lunch was called after
f₁) *The bridge was called from over

The verbs of our first three sentences behave exactly like single word transitive verbs in the passive, but the verbs of our last three sentences do not admit of the passive.⁽¹⁾

Another syntactic criterion for phrasal and prepositional verbs is that the questions of the phrasal verbs are formed with who(m) for personal, and with what for non-personal objects

- a₂) Whom did I call up?
b₂) What could we not put up with?
c₂) Who was called on?

(1) Ambiguous combinations like put up with take the passive only when they have a figurative meaning.

The prepositional phrases of the second set ((d) to (f)) have adverbial function and so have question forms with where, when, how etc.

- d₂) Where did I call from?
- e₂) When did I call?
- f₂) Where did I call from?

On the other hand, we cannot have

*Who did I call from

There is a certain amount of overlap however between our two sets of sentences. What we are faced with is a number of different and complex relations between verbs and prepositional phrases. Applying the three syntactical criteria to sentences like⁽¹⁾

- g) The car stopped beside the wall
- h) John agreed with Mary

we get both

- and
- g₁) What did the car stop beside?
 - g₂) Where did the car stop?

But the sentences can have no passive form. Whereas sentence (h) can have the pronominal question form

- h₁) Who did John agree with?
the passive is highly doubtful
- h₂) ?Mary was agreed with by John.

Considering the above criteria, we agree with Quirk et al who recognise as prepositional verbs, those which accept the passive and/or the pronominal question form but not the adverbial question form.

(1) Examples from Quirk et al (1972), p.814

Again the distinction between phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs can be done

- 1) phonologically
- 2) syntactically.

1) The particle in phrasal verbs is normally stressed and, in final position, bears the nuclear tone. The particle in the prepositional verb is normally unstressed.

- a) I called 'up the man (PV)
The man was called ð.
- b) He 'called on the man (Prep. V)
The man was called on

2) Syntactically the particle of the phrasal verb may take one of two positions both before and after the object noun phrase. (A preposition will always precede the noun phrase whereas the adverb may follow it).

- c) Call up the man
Call the man up
- d) Call on the man
*Call the man on

The particle of a phrasal verb can only stand after a personal pronoun.

- e) Call him up.
*Call up him
- f) *Call him on
Call on him

There cannot be an adverb insertion between the verb and its particle in phrasal verbs

- g) *They call early up the man
- h) They call early on the man

In a relative clause the position of the particle before the clause is not acceptable with phrasal verbs.

- i) *The man up whom they call.....
- j) The man on whom they call.....

This shows that prepositional verbs take personal or relative pronouns after the preposition and admit an inserted adverb; phrasal verbs on the other hand have particles which can be separated from the verb by either a noun or a pronoun. Phrasal-prepositional verbs are combinations of the two multi-word verb classes we have discussed above.

e.g. I'm looking forward to meeting you
I'll look in on you after lunch tomorrow

A more detailed analysis of the syntactical and semantic criteria of phrasal and prepositional verbs is in Palmer⁽¹⁾ Chapter 8. We must remember that although the above formal differences exist, it would be an oversimplification to say that they are true of every example. The area is complicated and more research is needed. For our purpose what we have said is enough.

Considering the complexity of this area, textbooks do not deal with phrasal verbs in a way that would make things easier for the learner. They do not present the verbs in context. Phrasal verbs being more a feature of spoken English, they are more likely to occur in conversations. Their use shows vivid colloquialisms by means of which a variety of human actions and reactions are described. The books do not indicate that a single multi-word verb may have two meanings. If we take bring up, we can use it in

(1) Palmer, F.R., (1974), pp. 212 - 236.

one meaning as in

bring up a table

and in another different meaning as in

bring up a point

In the first example, we can understand the meaning of 'bring up a table' provided we know the meaning of bring and the meaning of up. But as has been said earlier, knowing the meaning of the parts does not help the learner to know the meaning of the whole in most cases. To understand the second meaning of bring up in bring up a point, we need dictionary definitions; above all the verb needs to be presented in the context in which it is used so that the learner may meet it together with the groups of words that regularly accompany it, in its use in that meaning. Thus bring up as in bring up a point is often accompanied by items like question, issue, matter etc, while bring up meaning 'to educate' is more likely to collocate with items like children, son etc. The textbooks however fall short of this. They present the verb in one context, explain its meaning in that context and forget about it. If it crops up again in a different context, they give it a different meaning according to that context and do not take into consideration the confusion that is created in the learner's mind. They do not for once stop to think that it is better and more useful to present the various meanings of the same verb, not as two meanings of one verb, but as separate verbs which should be considered separately, and learnt separately, along with the situations in which they are met and the lexical company they regularly keep. This would at least relieve the learner of one of the great complexities of phrasal verbs - the fact that it lies half-way between the grammar and the lexis.

6 Use of a Phrasal Verb instead of a Single Word Verb

- 6a) After the swim we all dress up and go home.
- 6b) When the whole day ended up we went home very happy.
- 6c) The university is unlike school in that it is mixed up and boys and girls learn together.
- 6d) I looked for a long time and at last I found out a hotel near the sea.
- 6e) Half the world does not know how the other half lives as Rabelais put it down.
- 6f) When we go to the abroad we get up more ideas.
- 6g) After a few weeks a strong feeling of loneliness grew up in me.

Cross-sectional Study	=	191
Stage I	=	23
Stage II	=	12
Stage III	=	6

7 Use of a Single-Word Verb instead of a Phrasal Verb

- 7a) I am going to lie for an hour after the swim. (lie down)
- 7b) It was silly because like in the school we all stood when the teacher came. (stood up)
- 7c) He brought his children in the correct way but he make them proud. (brought up)
- 7d) I put my swimming clothes and dived into the sea. (put on)
- 7e) All the Egyptian children say that when they grow they want to be a doctor or an engineer but not technicians.
- 7f) I did not know what was going in his mind but I feel he is a thief. (going on)

Cross-sectional Study	=	263
Stage I	=	23
Stage II	=	18
Stage III	=	10

8 Use of the Wrong Adverbial Particle

- 8a) This kind of friends only like to show up what they own (show off)
- 8b) I was very tired and put it over till the next day. (put off)
- 8c) I screamed so that he could slow up but it was too late. (slow down).

Cross-sectional Study = 165

Stage I = 12

Stage II = 11

Stage III = 4

Discussion and Explanation

From what we have said about phrasal verbs, it is evident that the sheer complexity of this grammatical area in English leads the learner into making all kinds of errors. Part of the learner's problem with this feature as a grammatical unit is that the phrasal verb is a fixed combination which is idiomatic. The meaning of the whole cannot be derived from the meaning of its parts. The learner will therefore have to learn each phrasal verb off as a unit. Although this may appear easy, it is not the case, for in spite of the fact that the learner is exposed to idioms and phrasal verbs through reading and listening to the language, the phrasal verb occurs in the same structural frame as the verb + preposition or verb + adverb sequence. Grammar books and linguists tell us that there is more cohesion between the component parts of the phrasal verb than there is between the verb + preposition, or the verb + adverb sequence. This cohesion however is semantic and it is not reflected structurally; the degrees in its strength are therefore not evident to the learner. When he fails to realise that the constituents of the phrasal verb are fixed and idiomatic in

meaning, he makes attempts to derive the meaning of the whole phrasal verb from its parts. Some verbs lend themselves easily to this as both the verb and the particle keep their individual lexical meanings. Most phrasal verbs however are not of this type and the learner becomes conscious of all kinds of incongruities that affect his learning process adversely.

When both the verbs and the particles keep their individual lexical meanings, the learner has few problems. Early in his language learning career he has learnt that up is the opposite of down. This makes complete sense to him and he assumes that the two particles must contrast in all identical environments. When he reads sentences like

He put up at a friend's for a while.

He had the dog put down.

he is terribly confused because he fails to realise that the above phrasal verbs are idioms and he finds that the particles are not directly contrastive. The particle in the phrasal verb loses its basic meaning associated with its adverbial or prepositional original and acquires instead some vague aspectual significance.

We have seen that the verb as well as the particle may lose their basic meaning because of the idiomatic nature of the phrasal verb, and both take on some vague aspectual significance. For instance in a set of phrasal verbs that have run as a basic verb we get

run off = print
run in = drive slowly so as not to damage machinery
of the car.
run on = talk incessantly.

Clearly in the above examples the denotation of the basic verb 'run' is lost. The learner is therefore very frustrated by his

inability to find order in this type of linguistic data. The problem is that phrasal verbs have to be learned as lexical units. In addition, the position of their constituents in the sentence has also to be learned. When not only one, but both of the constituents of the phrasal verb lose their dictionary meanings completely and denote what cannot be associated with either of its two elements in the remotest kind of way, the situation becomes very complicated for the learner. Moreover the whole process of combining a verb with a particle to form a new idiomatic unit is non-existent in Arabic. The adverbial particle as a class of words functioning in the production of idiomatic combinations does not exist in Arabic. The learner however is aware of the partial overlap between most English prepositions and their corresponding prepositions in Arabic and as a result he is liable to force some kind of equivalence upon the word sets. The effect of this is the imposition of equivalence on units that are not in reality equivalent, and an aggravation of the inability to recognise the idiomatic nature of, and the strong cohesion between the constituents.

There is an uncertainty in the mind of the learner as to when a particle should be attached to a verb and when it should be omitted. This leads to a haphazard use of the phrasal verb when a basic verb alone is needed, and vice versa. The learner uses dress up for dress in (6a), ended up for ended in (6b) and mixed up for mixed in (6c) as well as found out for found in (6d). The source of this tendency seems to be the existence in English of sets of phrasal verbs and single-word verbs which appear to be freely variant, and which to all practical intents and purposes denote the same thing. Rowe and Webb⁽¹⁾ call these sets Double Forms. Fowler⁽²⁾ observes that some phrasal verbs and single-word verbs (or what he calls "parent verbs") seem to cover much the same semantic ground.

"The difference in meaning between check and check up on,

(1) Rowe & Webb, (1961), P.199

(2) Fowler, (1965), p.451.

close and close down, face and face up to..... are subtle"

The difference may be 'real' but 'subtle' to the native speaker of English; to the learner, it is completely lost being, as it is, much too subtle to be distinctive in a foreign-language learning situation. The formation of this impression - that the phrasal verb and its matching single-word verb are freely variant - leads to two types of error that are connected

- a) the use of the adverbial particle when none is needed.
- b) the omission of the particle when one is required
as we see from sections (6) and (7).

In some of the citations the learner fails to match a verb with the appropriate particle as in

- (8a) This kind of friends only like to show up what they own.
- (8b) I was very tired and put it over till the next day.

One reason for this type of error would be the failure of the learner to recall the correct parts of the idiom. In that case these errors are due to what Chomsky would call "memory limitation", and hence they should be classed as performance errors.

Alternatively the learner could be making an attempt at coining a phrasal verb on the model of a similar phrasal verb and possibly deciding on particular combinations because he assumes that verbs that mean rather similar things should take the same particle to express similar meanings. This is one process that we shall suggest below⁽¹⁾ for the matching of wrong prepositions to verb nuclei. If we accept this argument, then in (8c)

- (8c) I screamed so that he could slow up but it was too late.

the learner is coining slow up on the pattern of pull up together with regard to the assignment of adverbial particles.

(1) See Chapter V PP.283-286

This explanation reinforces our previous assertion that the learner fails to recognise the idiomatic nature of the phrasal verb, as a 'fixed combination'. He, instead, treats the constituents of the phrasal verb as free forms operating very much on the pattern of the verb + preposition combination.

The foreign learner finds great difficulty in the use of verb + particle constructions for several reasons. The area is quite complex from the point of view of syntax and semantics. Added to this is the fact that these constructions are characteristic of spoken English and represent a great number of idiomatic phrases and colloquialisms. For this reason we notice that the learner uses these constructions only at later stages when he has had more contact with both written and spoken English. As he begins to break the shackles of the set sentence patterns that he has been taught to use, and as his vocabulary increases, he uses more fluent and informal English. During this process he tends to use more verb + particle constructions and falls into error.

C H A P T E R V

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Introduction

Words which belong to the class traditionally called prepositions are small in number, although grammarians differ in their estimate of them.⁽¹⁾ In spite of this they have more direct involvement in grammar than many other word-classes and hence occur more uniformly through texts and conversations of all sorts. If we take the nouns garden and air, or the adjectives beautiful and happy, we may come across many texts or conversational situations without them; one will hardly find them in a book on mathematics. Whether they occur or not depends largely on the context, or the subject matter of a book. It is very unlikely however that we find a text or conversation without such common prepositions as of and for.

Prepositions as a separate class need not be common to all languages. They may be dispersed among other form-classes in different languages. What seems to be shared in many languages are the relations they help to establish in the language. Discovering what a preposition means independently of any linguistic context is difficult and almost impossible. Dictionaries⁽²⁾ typically define a preposition in terms of other prepositions which can substitute for it in various contexts; they do not indicate what the preposition "denotes". This shows the need to treat prepositions and their meanings as a system of relations. Inside, for example, means something mainly in relation to in, within, into, outside etc. Therefore in the most general terms a preposition expresses a relation between two entities.

(1) See Fries, C., (1952), Chapters VI and X, and Strang, B., (1968), Chapter X

(2) See the Concise Oxford Dictionary and the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage, 1972

Grammarians traditional and modern have found it difficult firstly, to give a definition for prepositions, and secondly to sub-classify them. In attempts at defining and sub-classifying prepositions, some bring adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections under the same label and thus avoid an actual precise definition.⁽¹⁾ Others⁽²⁾ group together conjunctions and prepositions only. Curme⁽³⁾ and Close⁽⁴⁾, although they are prepared to give a definition, give it in purely notional terms only. Kruisinga⁽⁵⁾ and Palmer and Blandford⁽⁶⁾ on the other hand, give a formal definition for prepositions but adopt a notional approach in their later sub-classifications. The difficulty for the grammarian lies in the fact that prepositions are very directly involved with both semantics and syntax.⁽⁷⁾ Quirk and Mulholland⁽⁸⁾ take one complex preposition, in spite of, and show how difficult it is to define where in relation to grammar and meaning the preposition actually stands.

So far most grammarians have considered prepositions as parts of greater units. In doing this the emphasis has mostly been on what follows a preposition and not what precedes it.⁽⁹⁾ Out of the different approaches adopted by grammarians towards prepositions came different attitudes towards the question of the distinction between adverbs and prepositions discussed in the last

(1) Jespersen, O. (1924)

(2) Long, R. (1961)

(3) Curme, G.O., (1931)

(4) Close, R.A., (1962)

(5) Kruisinga, E.C., (1932)

(6) Palmer, H.E., and Blandford, F.G., (1924)

(7) All form-classes are involved with meaning since the ultimate function of a language is to convey meanings by the forms functioning in that language, but prepositions seem to be more involved with both than many other form-classes.

(8) Quirk, R., and Mulholland, J., (1964), "Complex Prepositions and Related Sequences", English Studies, Vol.44, pp 64-73

(9) This has serious consequences where teaching prepositions is concerned and also theoretically, where the discussion as to which node the preposition belongs, the NP node or the VP node. This however will be dealt with later.

chapter. Jespersen⁽¹⁾ talks of "complete" and "incomplete" particles, Kruisinga⁽²⁾ discusses "pure prepositions" while Strang⁽³⁾ thinks that there is a specially close relationship between adverbs and prepositions. She thinks that although the distinctive features of prepositions have established the tradition that they must be treated as distinct from adverbs, they are really at one end of a continuum which has the central adverbs at the other. To quote her⁽⁴⁾

".....nearly all the one-word prepositions can also be adverbs and in that case all we are distinguishing is that the same forms used without object are adverbs, with objects are prepositions."

Although she states this, she very cautiously says that there is as much to be said for, as against the division of adverbs and prepositions. Ghadessy⁽⁵⁾ notes that although the same particle can be used as a preposition and as an adverb, not all prepositions have adverb homonyms. He gives as examples of, at, from, to, for and with. The division between adverbs and prepositions does not seem to be very clear-cut. Formally, however, one can pick out distinct patterns where prepositions function as prepositions and not as adverbs, and analyse them in terms of the substitution of one preposition by another. The overlap of the prepositions substitutable for each other can point to similarities in meaning.⁽⁶⁾ The most common patterns in which prepositions function as prepositions are:

- 1) NP + Prep. + NP
The Nile in Cairo is very wide
- 2) V (intransitive) + Prep. + NP
She sat in the lobby

(1) Jespersen, O., (1924)

(2) Kruisinga, E.C., (1932)

(3) Strang, B., (1968)

(4) Ibid, p. 193

(5) Ghadessy, M., "Prepositions and Prepositional Patterns", IRAL, Vol. XII, Nr. 4, November 1974.

(6) Clark, H.H., (1968), "On the Use and Meaning of Prepositions", Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour, Vol.7, pp 421-431 and Ghadessy, M. (1974)

- 3) V (transitive) + NP + Preposition +NP
I put the books on the shelf
- 4) V + adjective + Prep. + NP
He is happy about it

Syntactically prepositions and prepositional phrases may function as:

- 1) Adjunct
- 2) Disjunct
- 3) Conjunct

Of these functions those of adjunct and postmodifier are the most common. As conjuncts, prepositional phrases are largely limited to expressions or idiomatic phrases, e.g. of course.

Prepositions can be simple or complex: at, in, etc. are simple while in spite of and instead of are complex. Strang points out that there are formal differences between "morphemically simple, and complex prepositions", and items larger than the word. The boundary between simple and complex prepositions seems to be an uncertain one. Although in most cases a preposition when simple is identical in form to its corresponding prepositional adverb, and a complex preposition loses its final element when transferred to the function of adverb, the difficulty lies in making an absolute distinction between complex prepositions and constructions which can be varied, abbreviated and extended according to the normal rules of syntax. Strictly speaking, a complex preposition is a sequence that is indivisible both in terms of syntax and in terms of meaning. We can vary on the shelf by (the door) to on the shelves by (the door), but we cannot vary in spite of to *in spites of. In this respect in spite of qualifies as a complex preposition whereas on the shelf by does not. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ suggest that there is a scale of 'cohesiveness' running from a sequence which behaves in every way like a simple preposition, to one which behaves in every way like a set of grammatically

(1) Quirk et al (1972), pp 302-304

separate units. This complexity is typical of prepositions.

Modern theoretical linguists have not found it easy to describe prepositions in terms of modern linguistic theories. Explorations by Rosenbaum,⁽¹⁾ Bennett,⁽²⁾ Fillmore,⁽³⁾ Leech,⁽⁴⁾ and Halliday⁽⁵⁾ are enlightening, but they are neither comprehensive nor conclusive. This difficulty is reflected in the native speaker's doubt and uncertainty about the use of prepositions in certain contexts. Is sentence (a) in the following for example, more correct than sentence (b)?

- (a) He is leaving to Cairo tomorrow
- (b) He is leaving for Cairo tomorrow

If both are correct and acceptable in certain contexts, which is more used? Is there the slightest degree of difference in meaning? Many more questions could be raised, but the point has been made clear that in English prepositions are complex. Considering this, it is rather unwise to make any generalisations about prepositions. One can only say that they belong to the category of the lexis that is structural and not lexical, as they do not refer to ideas, processes, qualities or objects. Rather they are essential in building up a system of relations (semantic, syntactic or both) between other elements of the syntactic structures.

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- (1) Rosenbaum, P.S., (1967), pp 81-99
 - (2) Bennett, D.C., (1968), "English Prepositions: A Stratificational Approach", Journal of Linguistics, Vol. 4, pp 153-172
 - (3) Fillmore, C., (1969) "Toward a Modern Theory of Case" in Reibel and Schane, (1969), pp 361-375
 - (4) Leech, G.N., (1969). Chapter VIII
 - (5) Halliday, M.A.K., "Language Structure and Language Function", in Lyons, J., (ed.), (1970), pp 140-165

The native-speaker, by exposure in everyday life to hundreds of prepositional expressions is apt to surmount the majority of difficulties with the preposition. The situation for the foreign learner is entirely different and his problems with the English prepositional phrase construction are formidable. Firstly, to him, the collocation of different prepositions with the various parts of speech in English, seems, at least on the surface, to be very arbitrary. His experience does not prove the contrary. When he looks at the two adjectives angry and upset for example, he sees that, although they belong to one category both on the semantic and the grammatical level, the first is followed by the preposition with and the second by by. If he asks himself why, neither his logic, his native-language, his textbook nor his teacher will help him very much. In Arabic, both adjectives are followed by the preposition equivalent to from. In school textbooks in general, explanatory material regarding prepositions is scarce. Textbook writers have a tendency to gloss over difficult areas and hence very little guidance is given where it is most needed. In the government prescribed books in Egypt,⁽¹⁾ prepositions are introduced in the texts without any explanation. An unfortunate side effect of some 'modern' approaches to language teaching, amongst them the aural/oral approach followed in these books, has been a tendency to underestimate the complexity and importance of grammatical rules in certain areas of the language. They also tend to teach the written language rather late. Prepositional errors mostly occur on the level of production.⁽²⁾ This means that they are difficult to use rather than to understand. Language production needs understanding of grammatical rules as well as of meaning, for it to be correct. However, we find that Allen⁽³⁾ dedicates 8 out of 180 pages in his book to prepositions and adverbials. One page introduces prepositions and the remaining 7 pages are made up of exercises

(1) See Appendices I and II

(2) See Duskova, L., (1969), p 28

(3) Allen, W.S., (1958), Section 21

headed "Put in the suitable Prepositions". This is not much help to the learner. Although Allen gives more space and consideration to prepositions than most other textbook writers in his other book Living English Structure,⁽¹⁾ the book is not used in Egyptian schools any more. In this latter book, his advice to the learner only confirms the arbitrariness of English in the area of prepositions. He says that the proper use of prepositions can only be achieved by learning them with their collocations, i.e. in relation to the noun in the same phrase, or to the verb which may require one of them.⁽²⁾ The learner therefore must remember (somehow), which preposition to use with a certain verb or noun. Teachers on the other hand, take Allen's attitude for granted and hope that learners will eventually get the knack of using prepositions correctly, without their being taught.

In the absence of guidance, and of precise rules governing the distribution of prepositions with adjectives or verbs, each of the numerous 'adjective + preposition' or verb + preposition' collocations becomes an idiomatic unit that has to be learnt separately. Considering that there are very many of these constructions and that they cannot be avoided altogether because they are essential to communication, this is no mean task for the learner's memory power. Chomsky tells us that memory limitation is more characteristic of the human being's language acquisition device (LAD) than memory power. It is no wonder that the learner cannot remember all collocations. Moreover, prepositional errors tend to persist in the language of the learner because on the level of communication, they do not provide a great hindrance to the understanding of an utterance. An error in the pronominal system would provide more

(1) Allen, W.S., (1956)

(2) Allen, W.S., (1956) p 301

of a barrier in communication for example; whether the learner provides to or for in a sentence, he is more easily understood than if he produces

*Body (somebody) come in the house

or

*I was glad to meet themselves (them)

The foreign learner therefore is not to be blamed for multiple errors, uncertainties and incorrect assumptions about English prepositions, but it is essential to find a way to help him.

So far we have dealt with the complexity of English in the area of prepositions. Arabic contributes its share in this area to the confusion of the learner, both on the semantic and the syntactic level. Arabic groups all words which are neither verbs, nouns or adjectives under the heading of Huru:f, particles or functionals.⁽¹⁾ Whereas nouns, verbs and adjectives are open-list classes, functionals are mostly closed-system items. Prepositions belong under the heading of functionals. Abdel Malek⁽²⁾ defines prepositions as closed-system items that are few in number but have a high rate of recurrence both in S.A. and in colloquial Egyptian Arabic. He divides them into prepositions, and preposition classifiers. Prepositions are difficult to define and identify as a word-class because functionals have an ambivalent role in Arabic grammar. The preposition Hatta is not only a preposition meaning until and up to, but it also has the role of a clause subordinator with the values in order that and so that. In addition it plays the role of a modifier even. In classifying prepositions Palmer⁽³⁾ recognises five inseparable prepositions (i.e. written as one

(1) Huru:f is literally 'letters of the alphabet'. The word is used as a grammatical term for functionals because some of the most characteristic members of this class consist only of a single consonant plus vowel.

(2) Abdel Malek, Z. (1972), Part II, Chapter II

(3) Palmer, E.H., (1874), pp 165-166

word with the following noun) and eight separable ones. He finds that

"There are many others which are commonly regarded as prepositions, but which are really nouns, as 'inda = "with", fawqa = "above", wasTa = "in the midst", etc. These are not properly reckoned as particles". (1)

He therefore sets up another class of "other words used as prepositions".⁽²⁾ In fact, Palmer is right because there is in Arabic a type of preposition which is really a noun in the accusative of place or of time. In the syntax the prepositions are treated as a kind of object indicating time when or place where an event takes place.

e.g. fawqa-l-kursiyi = over/on/above the chair
qabla-z-zuhri = before noon

Because these prepositions are lexical items considered 'adverbial nouns' by Arab grammarians, and because they function as object, the use of other prepositions before them in structures is possible:

e.g. min fawq = from above
?ila-l-khalf = to behind
?ila-l-?ama:m = to in front of

The result is, as we can see, that some of the constructions are acceptable in English like 'from above' but others like '*to in front of' are not. English would normally use one preposition to establish such relations. For the Arabic speaker, the use of one preposition only in English for a relation which is more specified in the Arabic prepositional system, may allow for a certain ambiguity.

'Adverbial nouns' of place and time can be substituted for prepositions with no change in either meaning or grammatical

(1) Palmer, E.H., (1874), pp 165-166

(2) Ibid, p 197

structure. In in its temporal/locative meaning as in 1970, or in March, corresponds to the Arabic preposition fi. Arabic can dispense with fi and use the adverbial noun sanata meaning in the year, or shahra meaning in the month of.

- e.g. 1) wulida fi 1970
He was born in 1970
2) wulida sanata 1970
He was born in 1970

The two sentences are identically structured,

- 1) V + Prep. + substantive
- 2) V + adverbial noun + substantive

and they mean the same thing. Consequently the preposition fi has the same structural status as the adverbial noun sanata and could be evaluated as a substantive with the value 'antecedent period'.

Confusion on the semantic level is very possible, because, although some prepositions have the same basic meaning in Arabic and English, the very same preposition in Arabic could have several other meanings and uses which do not correspond to those of the English preposition. A case in point is the preposition from. In its spatial/directional sense as in

I went from the school to the club

this preposition has the Arabic equivalent min. But min has several other meanings that do not correspond to from. It could indicate

- 1) genus or origin
e.g. thiyabu min Hari:r
(literally this means 'clothes from silk' i.e. made of silk)
- 2) Division
e.g. al-Haqqa min-al-ba:Til
(literally this means 'the right from the wrong' i.e. distinguishing between right and wrong)

This illustration using only one preposition, shows clearly how often a wrong English preposition may be used if thought of against an Arabic linguistic background.

What has been said so far illustrates that both English (L₂) and Arabic (L₁) could contribute to the occurrence of error in the learner's use of prepositions. There are however similarities between both languages. For both one can classify prepositions according to the relations they try to establish. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ divide them into

- 1) Place
- 2) Time
- 3) Miscellaneous

Place helps to establish space relations, Time is concerned with temporal relations, while Miscellaneous is concerned with other relations that can be sub-categorised into Cause, Instrument, Goal, Origin, etc. Spatial and temporal prepositions can be classified as either Static (referring to a certain point in space or time) or Dynamic (referring to activity or duration in space or time).⁽²⁾ For the latter, three relational semantic components are included:

- a) beginning of activity / 'Source'
- b) duration of activity / 'Path'
- c) end of activity / 'Goal'

It may be assumed on the empirical ground of frequency of occurrence, that some prepositions are basically spatial such as: on, above, across, below, under, behind, along, in front of etc. Others such as: after, before, until, since and till are basically temporal, while still others are basically spatio-temporal such as: at, in, from, by, for, to, throughout etc. The rest of the prepositions basically establish relations other than spatio-

(1) Quirk et al (1972), p 306

(2) Bennett, D. (1968) passim

temporal: e.g. of, with, like, instead of and except. In Arabic grammars the basic meaning of prepositions is always explicitly stated. The learner is bound to make a one-to-one meaning correspondence between Arabic and English prepositions. Once this meaning correspondence is established, the learner will extend it to other situations where either the Arabic or the English preposition is employed to set up a completely different relation. This is where interference and confusion takes place.

In examining the data it was not difficult to pick out prepositional errors since in most cases the degree of deviation from the normal form was such as to leave little doubt of its unacceptability. However there was a scale of deviant forms. In the case of forms displaying a low degree of deviation it was hard to decide whether or not to regard them as errors. These were mainly characteristic of Stage III in the developmental study. Compare the following arranged in order of increasing deviation:

- 1) She talked with us for a long time (to?)
- 2) One day as I was looking from the window I saw a blind man crossing the street. (out of?)
- 3) The first question they ask about is if I have a flat. (about is here unnecessary)
- 4) It was spread in all the place. (all over)
- 5) We catch by much fish. (caught a lot of)

In (1) we could not consider with as an error because you can speak with people and to people; it was also not clear from the context whether the learner knew the difference between speak with (confer) and speak to (address). It is however acceptable and does not hamper communication and so we decided that it was not deviant. Example (2) is not very deviant because from the window is used by native speakers, but the more correct use is out of. However, there could be transfer from $L_1^{(1)}$ Example (3) is

(1) This error could be the result of interference from L_1 as in Arabic the preposition min = from is used to mean both from and out of. Yet this is one case where actual translation into English does not provide a great deal of deviancy.

ambiguous. I believe what the learner meant is "they ask me if I have a flat", and not "they want to know about the question of my possessing a flat". The preposition was therefore considered unnecessary and it was taken as an error. Example (4) is a developmental error as the learner knows what he wants to say and has used the wrong preposition and the wrong Voice of the verb; again it could also be due to mother-tongue interference.⁽¹⁾ Example (5) is wholly incompatible with English structure. With the exception of (1) all were treated as erroneous, but there is a considerable difference in the grossness of the error as we can see. The criteria employed to decide whether a form is erroneous or not are those of appropriateness in the context, acceptability to the native speaker, and the extent to which communication is affected.

In the process of classification, there was a large group of recurrent systematic errors that seemed to reflect a defect in competence namely where the omission of preposition, use of preposition when not needed, and the incorrect use of the more common prepositions like in, for, to, at, by, on and with, are concerned. However it was noticed, especially in the developmental study, that there was a large number of nonce mistakes which one could not regard as 'mistakes' in performance or slips of the pen. If mistakes in performance are defined as 'easily perceived and corrected by the learner himself if his attention is drawn to them', these certainly do not fall into that category. They are mostly concerned with the less common prepositions and prepositional idioms. This shows that the learner is endeavouring to bring his language closer to that of the native speaker. Prepositions by the very nature of their frequent occurrence in texts are bound to be an area where nonce mistakes abound ⁽²⁾ anyway.

(1) Here the learner could be directly translating the Arabic phrase fi-kuli-maka:n.

(2) See Duskova (1969, p.15) who registers 66.6% of prepositional errors as nonce mistakes.

In classifying, describing and explaining errors that can be traced to transfer from Arabic, there is no question of going into a contrastive analysis of the whole prepositional system of English and Arabic. Most of the studies made on Arabic in this area have been carried out on traditional lines and are unsatisfactory, and those for English are not very complete in many aspects. Besides, so varied are prepositional meanings that only a presentation of the most obvious semantic similarities and contrasts can be attempted here.

The errors in the prepositional phrase are attributable to three sources:

- 1) The sheer complexity of English
- 2) Interference from Arabic
- 3) The textbook.

The sections are numbered consecutively and the errors in each section are marked (a), (b), (c) etc. so that error 1 (a) means Section 1, sentence (a). However, in Section 3 the necessity of dividing this section into other subsections makes it plausible to have the main section as 3, the subsection as 3a, and the sentence as 3a.1, as we have done before.

1. Use of a Preposition where None is Needed

- 1(a) On the surface religion contradicts with science.
- 1(b) We reach at a busy street.
- 1(c) We must discuss about everything with each other.
- 1(d) The first question they ask about is if I have a flat.
- 1(e) I joined to the Faculty of Medicine.
- 1(f) I entered to the Faculty of Education.
- 1(g) Everybody is looking forward to his own benefit.

- 1(h) Travel makes us meet with people.
- 1(i) I spend my time with reading.
- 1(j) The student of anatomy cuts up into his sample.
- 1(k) To provide one or two children with everything is better than having a dozen of children.
- 1(l) Faith is to remember God in all the time.
- 1(m) I met him for several times.
- 1(n) We enjoy with/by the fresh air.
- 1(o) We admire by the beautiful sea.
- 1(p) We catch by much fish.

Cross-sectional Study	=	401
		35
Stage I	=	15
Stage II	=	14
Stage III	=	

2. Omission of the Preposition

- 2(a) Does science really contrast () religion. (with)
- 2(b) We have to arrive () a high degree of development. (at)
- 2(c) I know him so I must sympathise () him. (with)
- 2(d) We could travel to the moon and learn () its properties. (about)
- 2(e) Each person must search () the persons who have common interests. (for)
- 2(f) I think everybody ought to think () this problem well. (about)
- 2(g) People started looking () what had happened. (at)
- 2(h) A doctor must think of God and ask () his help. (for)
- 2(i) Being responsible () another living creature is a new feeling. (for)
- 2(j) Scientists must train () many years. (for)

Cross-sectional Study	=	801
Stage I	=	75
Stage II	=	16
Stage III	=	7

Most of the errors in these two sections are due to ignorance of rule restrictions. Most rule restriction errors may be accounted for in terms of analogy. Analogy seems to be a major factor particularly in the misuse of prepositions. Here the question of uncertainty in the linguistic analysis of English prepositions mentioned earlier is important. Linguists seem to be in doubt as to which higher node the preposition belongs, the NP node or the VP node. Chomsky⁽¹⁾ and Fillmore⁽²⁾ seem to think that it is very often part of the NP. On the other hand, many verbs require certain prepositions after them and in this case the preposition is obviously part of the VP. Prepositions therefore might have a 'backward' relation with a preceding verb or a 'forward' relation with a subsequent noun. If linguists are in doubt, the learner is likely to associate the preposition to the inappropriate node.

Because all grammarians, whether they give a notional or a formal definition for a preposition, have emphasised that a preposition is a part of a greater unit, and because they have laid emphasis mostly on what follows a preposition and not on what precedes it, verbs and their collocations are not given due attention. The stress on what follows a preposition is carried over to teaching techniques in the classroom and the learner finds difficulty in assigning verbs to the correct subcategory as regards their prepositional collocation. The learner realises that certain verbs are followed by prepositions and concludes that the preposition belongs to the VP node. He then assumes that verbs closely associated in meaning should be followed by the same preposition. He produces an error because he is not aware of the restriction that verbs denoting similar meaning, do not of necessity operate in the same prepositional frame. Some verbs with similar meanings require a preposition in the one case but not in the other. The apparent similarity in meaning of reach and arrive at makes him produce:

(1) Chomsky, N. (1957, 1965)

(2) Fillmore, C., (1968)

1(b) We reach at a busy street.

The analogy works also in the opposite direction and he produces:

2(b) We have to arrive a high degree of development.

Matching contradict with contrast with he produces:

1(a) On the surface religion contradicts with science

2(a) Does science really contrast religion?

Matching talk about with discuss he writes:

1(c) We must discuss about everything with each other,
and to pity with to sympathise with he happily produces:

2(c) I know him so I must sympathise him.

Hence the learner either produces a preposition when none is needed or he omits the preposition where it is needed. It is therefore necessary that the teacher differentiate quasi-synonymous lexical items in terms of the prepositions that go with them.

The denotative meaning of a word sometimes lends itself to association with a particular preposition. If another word happens to denote a similar meaning the learner uses the same preposition and produces an error. The denotative meaning of to ask is to enquire about and so the learner writes:

1(d) The first question they ask about it is if I have a flat

Associating to learn with to study he makes the error in citation 2(d):

2(d) We could travel to the moon and learn () its properties.

Although intra-lingual interference between items in English may be the cause of error in 1(d) yet one is not very sure if this is the real source. The learner might be using a direct translation from the Arabic yas?alu 'an = to ask about. This is not possible however where 1(c) and 2(d) are concerned. The preposition which follows the verb discuss in Arabic is not 'an = about but fi which is equivalent to in.

In 2(d), although the verb to learn is followed in Arabic by 'an = about, the learner does not use it at all. Hence the error is due to the complexity of English in the area of prepositions.

To join suggests attaching to and we find the learner producing 1(e) I joined to the Faculty of Medicine. We strongly suspect that this error stems from mother-tongue interference rather than analogy for the learner has also produced:

1(f) I enter to the Faculty of Education

In SA the expression 'joining an institution' is expressed by verb + preposition + noun.

e.g. ?iltaHaqa-bi-kuliyati-l-?a:da:b

This is literally "He joined to the Faculty of Arts". In colloquial Egyptian Arabic the same expression is expressed by using verb + noun

e.g. dakhalt-kuliyet-l-?a:da:b

This is literally "I entered (to) the Faculty of Arts". Although the Arabic verb dakhala (to enter) is not followed by a preposition, the directional sense of the English preposition to is included in this dynamic Arabic verb. The school textbook gives the meaning of the verb 'to join' (an institution) as 'to enter'. Thus the learner assumes that 'to join' means only 'to enter'. Associating 'to enter' with dakhala he always adds 'to' after 'join' and 'enter' whenever he uses them in English. It must also be noticed that dakhala can be followed by the preposition ?ila = to. The learner may be adding the preposition to after 'join' and 'enter' in English because he feels that it is missing.

Another source of error is when a verb is used without a preposition to denote one meaning and with a preposition to denote a totally different meaning. The assumption of the learner is that the verb with or without the preposition means the same thing. He then produces citations like:

2(e) Each person must search () the person who have common interests.

He does not differentiate between to search for i.e. to look for, and to search a person or place.

2(f) I think everybody ought to think () this problem well.

The confusion in 2(f) is between the verb to think as in 'I thought deeply' and to think about something. Another confusion takes place between look, look at, and look forward to, and between ask and ask for:

2(g) People started looking () what had happened.

1(g) Everybody is looking forward for his own benefit.

2(h) A doctor must think of God and ask () his help.

In 2(g) the act of looking is confused with looking at something (i.e. the concept of target is missed out). In 1(g) looking for is confused with looking forward to something i.e. anticipating something with gladness. In 2(h) the act of asking is confused with the act of requesting something.

Sometimes the error is caused by the learner matching a preposition to the nucleus of a content word and then generalising the collocation to apply to all other formations in which the nucleus appears. When this happens the preposition is acceptable with one part of speech, but not with another part of speech containing the same nucleus as the former. Generalising the collocation of with with nucleus meeting as in "We had a meeting with the staff" (noun), he produces the error in 1(h).

1(h) Travel makes us meet with people.

where the nucleus 'meet' is here found in the verb. Generalising the collocation of the preposition of in structures such as

"He has the responsibility of looking after the children/
the office etc."

the learner produces

2(i) Being responsible of another living creature is a new feeling.

Generalisation can work in other ways. Reading structures like 'to spend time with friends' the learner assumes that he can replace friends with any other noun. He then produces

1(i) I spend my time with reading.

The word for reading in Arabic is al.qira:?a and it is a noun. In English however the verbal noun reading may function exactly as the noun friends in certain sentences, but it can never be preceded by 'with'. Although in Arabic this is possible, the source of error cannot be mother-tongue interference as the appropriate preposition to use is fi = in and not ma'a = with.

The fact that some verbs are followed by various prepositions with a change in meaning each time the preposition changes confuses the learner. Error 1(j) is interesting because it shows the great complexity present in English as regards phrasal verbs and prepositional verbs. The verbs to cut into and to cut up have different meanings. The first means 'to interrupt' and the second (which is a phrasal verb) means 'to cut into pieces'. In citation 1(j):

1(j) The student of anatomy cuts up into his sample.
the learner (we presume) wants to say that the student of anatomy cuts his sample, which is the human body, into different pieces for examination. (This conclusion as regards meaning was reached because the learner continues to say that Islam prohibits this because it means molesting the dead.) To do that, the student of anatomy sticks his scalpel deep inside the body. So he uses the preposition into after cut up to give the meaning inside the body, and thus produces an error because he has amalgamated the two verbs together.

In the following citation

1(k) To provide one or two children with everything is better than having a dozen of children.
the learner does not know the rule restrictions pertaining to some quantitative and partitive nouns in English. Nouns like dozen when preceded by a numeral or other indication of number (in our case 'a' meaning 'one' dozen) frequently have zero plurals. In general the zero forms are relatively informal,

except as premodifiers when there is usually no alternative. Premodifiers in noun phrases also do not take of between them and the noun they modify unless that latter noun is particularised.

e.g. a dozen of these glasses
is perfectly correct but not

* a dozen of glasses.

If the quantitative noun is put in the regular plural i.e. dozens, then it can be followed by of

e.g. dozens of glasses.

The learner seems to be confused between the use of the two plurals and what can, and what cannot, follow each plural.

The error in l(1)

Faith is to remember God in all the time
is due to mother-tongue interference. It is a direct translation of the Arabic fi-kuli-waqt = all the time. Whereas in Arabic the expression has the preposition fi = in, in English the predeterminer all cannot be preceded by the preposition as the expression all the time carries within it the temporal in.

The adjective several in English indicates 'a number of'. The Arabic equivalent is 'idda(t). The preposition for in English is used in the temporal sense to denote 'period of time' or 'duration of time'. In Arabic li = for when used temporally designates a relationship to 'a point in time'. The error in l(m) I meet him for several times is therefore not caused by mother-tongue interference. The reason is a confusion in the learner's mind regarding the adjective several. When used with a noun like years or months, several denotes 'a number of years' which in the learner's mind is connected to the temporal idea of 'a period of time'. In this case it is preceded by for. However the noun times has no notion of 'duration of time' attached to it at all. It denotes 'number' only and cannot be preceded by for which establishes a temporal relation.

The learner perhaps is confused by, and confuses, the two meanings that can be denoted by the singular word time and the plural times. The words have a 'temporal' connotation and a 'numerical' connotation. As a result he uses a preposition connected with 'period of time' with times denoting 'number'. On the whole it seems that the learner is not at all confident of his use of the preposition for in its temporal sense. In

2(j) Scientists must train () many years. (for)
he misses out the preposition when it should be included to denote 'period of time'. But this may be due to the fact that the verb to train in Arabic (darraba) is sometimes not followed by a preposition⁽¹⁾.

Arabic causes a great deal of interference where prepositions are concerned especially when certain verbs in Arabic have to be followed by prepositions while their English equivalents do not. The verb to enjoy = tamatta'a has to be followed by the preposition bi = with/by hence the error in

1(n) We enjoy with/by the fresh air.
The same applies to verbs like 'admire' which have to be followed by the preposition bi in

1(o) We admire by the beautiful sea
which is ?u'gibna bi-l-baHr-l-gami:l. We can find no explanation for the error in citation 1(p)

1(p) We catch by much fish.
The learner either does not know when or when not to use prepositions after verbs or he has not learnt the correct collocations of prepositions.

When the question of which higher node the preposition belongs to is explained better, the learner will make more sense of its distribution as he will be more aware of what part of the sentence it belongs to. Teachers and linguists can then produce teaching material for the learner if they are more sure them-

(1) See section 3(g) in this Chapter for more information on the preposition for.

selves. The learner omits prepositions altogether because it is characteristic of any foreign language situation that the learner try to reduce his linguistic burden. Hyper-correction on the other hand can account for his inclusion of a preposition when it is not needed. The learner may feel that the meaning is incomplete without a preposition and so he includes it in his ignorance of rule restrictions. Arabic may help him to make errors because where one preposition corresponds to different prepositions in English, or vice versa, great confusion can arise.

3 The Use of the Wrong Preposition

3a Locative in at on inside etc.

- 3a.1 We make friends anywhere in the university and in the school. (at)
- 3a.2 When the car was at the middle of the street.....(in)
- 3a.3 I was at Alexandria and visited the beach. (in)
- 3a.4 I want to go in London in next Summer. (to)
- 3a.5 I am planning to travel in England. (to)
- 3a.6 When I came at Alexandria I go to the beach. (to?)
- 3a.7 She will invite her at her place. (to)
- 3a.8 The sun was shine and the sea was quite in the beach. (on)
- 3a.9 After the swim we walked at the beach. (on)
- 3a.10 After this I went at the home. ()
- 3a.11 I was happy and went at home. ()
- 3a.12 Boys tease girls at streets. (in the streets)
- 3a.13 They dislike to study inside school but they like the university. (at)
- 3a.14 After that I went to home. ()
- 3a.15 Students must go in/to abroad to study. ()
- 3a.16 We can learn good things from outside and bring them to our country. (abroad)

- 3a.17 The board hung upon my desk. (above)
3a.18 One can ~~share~~ ideas among both of us. (between)
3a.19 God's will must be spread between men. (among)
3a.20 Over that I was hungry and cold. (on top of)
3a.21 We copied the timetable of the lectures we will
have all the year around. (all round the year)
3a.22 The first thing to put in mind is kindness
beside good manners. (besides)

Cross-sectional Study	=	94
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	5

Discussion and Explanation

In this section the greatest number of errors occurred. So as to make cross-reference easier, the errors will be discussed under sub-headings referring to semantic notions of Time, Place etc.

3a Place

The confusion between in and at in their spatial/locative sense is a common one as these prepositions seem to be close in meaning and use to the learner. The errors were found in abundance at all stages. The fact that the learner is not sure of when to use in and at, is proved by his alternative use of both. In SA the locative/spatial equivalent of in and at is fi as in

fi-l-kuliyati = at/in the university.

One could happily assign the cause of error to L₁ interference had not the learner used the two prepositions alternatively. A deeper investigation shows that the complexity of English in the area of relations of meaning between a number of prominent

prepositions of place, could enhance the occurrence of errors because a false concept is hypothesised about the use of at/in by the learner. A look at Quirk et al's⁽¹⁾ diagram will help to explain errors. In English at implies the notion of simple position or static location. In the phrase 'at the door', the door is envisaged as a dimensionless location or 'a vague point on the map' (to quote Quirk et al). No details concerning its shape or size come into focus. In also expresses static location, but in the citation 'there is woodworm in the door', the phrase 'in the door' conveys the idea that the door is seen as a three-dimensional object. Therefore, whereas at is used to express 'a point in location', i.e. surface, in is used with areas and volumes. The distinction involving these dimension types is 'perceptual' rather than 'real' and this adds to the difficulty where language use is concerned.

At is always a big problem for the Arabic speaking learner. When it has the sense of in it is rendered by several Arabic prepositions:

- (in) fi-l-kuliyati = at the faculty
(on) 'ala-l-na:Siya = at the corner
(at/with/by) 'inda-T-Tabi:b = at the doctor's

The textbooks introduce in and at in their spatial/locative sense. The teachers point out that whereas in is used for large territories, big cities, continents, countries etc., at is used for small towns, villages and smaller cities. The distinction involving dimension types between 'at the door' and 'in the door' mentioned above are not explained. It is also not pointed out that for towns, smaller cities etc., in or at are appropriate, according to meaning or point of view. The idea of at meaning 'inside a place' is strengthened in the learner's mind by his mother-tongue. To him the preposition fi means both in and at and he happily produces errors 3a.1⁽²⁾ and

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), pp 307-309

(2) The second error in 3a.1 will be discussed in its appropriate place.

3a.2. The error is therefore due to several causes plus the fact that the learner does not know the rule restriction that applies to in and at with reference to them as buildings and institutions. He is unaware that when using in and at with reference to buildings, in refers to the building as a three-dimensional structure and actually means 'inside the building', while at on the other hand refers to the building in its institutional or functional aspect.

Citation 3a.3 could also be explained by our argument above. Although what the learner is trying to say is

"When I was in the city of Alexandria I went to the beach" to him, Alexandria is a smaller city than Cairo. He therefore uses at, because he is not sure of the correctness of in, as he has been taught otherwise. Since in his mind at and in mean the same thing anyway, he uses both prepositions alternatively without realising the difference in the relations they help to establish.

Although we have said that the Arabic preposition 'inda' could be used to mean at, it is never used to express the idea of in as in the expressions at school or at home. The appropriate preposition to use here would be fi = in. In the school textbooks, the expressions at school and at home are introduced in addition to the idiom 'to feel at home' and the verb 'to home'. At home, at school, at university etc. are idiomatic expressions. Although they are introduced in the textbooks as such, it is not made clear that their meaning and usage are restricted by rules in English grammar. The nouns in these expressions are among the number of nouns that take the zero article with dynamic verbs like go, static verbs like be, and prepositions like at, in and to, when they have the meaning 'institution' or 'building'. The learner unaware of the rule restrictions, produces citations 3a.10 and 3a.11. The learner is not aware that at in these expressions is not a simple preposition, but part of a unit which must behave syntactically and semantically as a single unit, and that it cannot function separately. The above argument accounts for the second error in

3a.1 "in the university" where in is used for at. It also accounts for citations such as at the school and at the home. The learner reads sentences like

'I took a look at the school'

'I want to study at the university'

and assumes that both at the school and at school are one and the same thing. By analogy he produces 3a.12. He assumes that if at home means in the home then at streets must mean in the streets. This is an over-generalisation frequently met with, and a result of over-learning and automatic over-drilling with little explanation provided. 3a.13 shows that inside is substituted for in where in is used wrongly for at in the expression at school.⁽¹⁾ On the other hand even the expression at school is in a sense wrong here, because what the learner is trying to say is

"They dislike school life but they like university life".

Citations 3a.4, 3a.5, 3a.6 and 3a.7 all involve the use of in and at where to should be used. The basic meaning of the preposition to that the learner is most acquainted with is the spatial/directional goal meaning. The Arabic equivalent to it in this basic meaning is ?ila which has the same dimension, and can also embrace the temporal relation like the English preposition. The errors seem to be the result of intralingual interference within English. The error in 3a.4

I want to go in London

is a result of mixing the two locative concepts of destination and position. With the dynamic verb to go, the notional meaning destination is usual.

e.g. "I went to London" (Destination/movement towards a location).

As a result

"I am in London (Position/static location).

(1) The error could also be due to the fact that fi indicates the act of staying "in", "within" and "inside" a place. It introduces the location in which the verbal action is completed.

The English preposition used with motional verbs + destination is to, while that used with stative verbs (to be) + position is in. The learner is used to associating London, a large city with in and not at. In his endeavour to get things right, he forgets about to in its directional/goal sense, and produces an error by using in. The same applies to error 3a.6 but in a slightly different way. The learner is trying to say:

"When I reached Alexandria, I went to the beach."

Instead of using the verb reach which would not have required a preposition, or arrive where he would have rightly used at, the learner used a dynamic verb which requires to hence producing an error. Citation 3a.5 can also be explained in terms of 'dynamic verbs + to' error, but 3a.7 is a bit complicated. The learner sees, and rightly so, that 'her place' means 'her home' or 'her house'. This, in terms of locative notions, is seen as a 'position reached' and therefore at or in must be used instead of to, which suggests motion and direction towards a place. What the learner does not know is that although invite is not a dynamic verb of motion, the implication in it is 'invite to come to her place', and therefore the idea behind it is still directional/goal and to must be used. Between the notions of 'position or static location', and 'destination or movement with respect to an intended location' a cause-and-effect relationship obtains; a misunderstanding of this relation causes the confusion.

Citation 3a.14 contains the preposition to where it is not needed. Here the textbook is at fault. The textbook⁽¹⁾ explains the verb 'to home' as 'to go home'.⁽²⁾ So the learner easily produces:

'I went to home'.

Because of the meaning of destination implied in the preposition to when accompanied by a verb of dynamic or motional meaning such as go, the learner finds nothing wrong in 'go to home'. Here the

(1) Living English, Book IV, Lesson 5.

(2) Ibid, p 129

non-existence of the lexical item home in Arabic adds to the difficulty. English seems to be unique in having the lexical item home.. The French foyer which is close, is not exactly the same. Arabic has one lexical item to mean both house and home. The learner therefore assumes that what he is saying is "I am going to my house".

This accounts for errors like 'I go to the house'⁽¹⁾ and 'I went to the home'.⁽²⁾ As if L₁ interference was not enough to create confusion, the textbook by giving an explanation such as 'to go home' for expressions like 'at home' and the verb 'to home' only makes things more confusing for the learner.

The preposition on in its spatial/locative sense seems to give the learner trouble when it is used to refer to dimension-types, especially in expressions which are set. In English it is difficult to explain the use of a preposition in terms of dimension type. At the seaside suggests a point of contact with the sea rather than a one dimensional coastline. On the beach sees the beach as a surface. In the beach does exist in the language. 3a.8 is incorrect because the learner may not be aware that both on the beach and at the seaside are set expressions. In set expressions one cannot vary the prepositions in the structures at will. But the learner may not be varying the preposition at all. He most probably uses in for at in the expression at the beach. At the beach is not incorrect in some contexts but here the context requires on the beach. In 3a.9 the learner uses at the beach again. He might be confusing the two expressions on the beach and at the seaside in meaning, where both are seen as a one dimensional coastline. Assuming that at the seaside, on the beach and at the beach are practically the same in meaning, he then assumes that they are substitutable in use. It is interesting that the learner should produce at and in where on should be used because the expression in Arabic is literally on the seaside. There can be no mother-tongue influence here. It is also

(1) Chapter VIII on Lexis

(2) See Chapter III for other sources of error

interesting to note that the errors with on occur only when the learner confuses this preposition with at or in. On used in structures such as

'Put it on the table'

does not give the learner trouble. This might be because in Arabic 'ala which corresponds to on in its spatial/locative meaning, functions exactly as on does in English in such structures as

e.g. al-kitabu 'ala-T-Ta:wilah
The book is on the table

This however is not the case with the prepositions upon and above. On and upon are very similar. In Arabic they are rendered by fawq and 'ala

e.g. fawqa-l-kursiyi = on the chair/upon the chair
'ala-l-kursiyi = upon the chair/on the chair

But fawq in SA also expresses the meaning of above. Confusion arises because there is only one preposition in Arabic to express the meaning of the two prepositions upon and above in English. Not realising that in English upon actually means 'lying on a surface' and above indicates the notion 'on a higher level than' the learner produces 3a.17.

'The board hung upon my desk'

Similarity in form and function between two words in English is another cause of error. Many adverbs and prepositions are one and the same, and whether they function as adverbs or as prepositions is not clear to the learner. A case in point is the word abroad. In Arabic the learner is used to adverbial nouns of place and of time. The adverbial noun al-kha:rig is used for abroad and literally it means 'the outside' i.e. the places outside one's own country. In citation 3a.15 the learner feels that the locative NP has the preposition marker in in its deep structure, (Fillmore 1968). He then assumes that the locative adverbial should also have the same prepositional marker.

Therefore

'The students must go in abroad'

seems to him a fairly correct sentence. But the fact that he also uses 'to abroad' shows that he regards the adverb as a noun of place. He takes the adverbial and treats it as a locative NP because they both function as complements. He adds the preposition to the adverbial because he feels that the latter is an NP and would be incomplete without a preposition to refer to direction and/or location.⁽¹⁾ In 3a.16 the error is exactly the same as in 3a.15 except that the learner uses outside instead of abroad. This is because both in SA and in colloquial Arabic the word for abroad is literally outside.

Similarity in meaning between among and between creates confusion. Hence we get citations 3a.18 and 3a.19. The learner cannot tell the difference in meaning between both and invariably treats them as free variations. He is not aware that between is used to express an abstract relation between two participants, and among is used for more than two participants. Over and on top of are prepositions that express relative position in a vertical direction. Hence we get in English expressions such as 'over and above this' meaning 'on top of this' i.e. in addition to this. The learner, in using citation 3a.20, uses over instead of on top of in free variation because in his mind they both reflect the same concept.

Sometimes the fact that two or more forms look and sound alike may be a source of confusion. This is the case with round and around and beside and besides as citations 3a.21 and 3a.22 show. Around means surrounding and not all through the year. Beside, a preposition of relative position meaning near, is

(1) He also correctly uses to after the dynamic verb to go.

confused with besides meaning as well as. The similarity in the way these items are spelt and the way they sound makes it very difficult for the learner to keep them apart.

3b Time

Temporal in, at, on etc.

- 3b.1 In that day I got up early. (on)
- 3b.2 At the first day we swimming. (on)
- 3b.3 At the evening I went home. (in)
- 3b.4 On the morning, I got up early. (in)
- 3b.5 At the English lecture the doctor told us our time table. (in, during)
- 3b.6 Afternoon we played cards. (in the)
- 3b.7 At the next Summer I go to Alexandria again. ()
- 3b.8 The lecture will start from for o'clock. (at)
- 3b.9 In some day I had a friend. (some time ago)
- 3b.10 But in a day I found she was lying. (one day)
- 3b.11 Girls are allowed in the age of sixteen to leave home. (at)
- 3b.12 In/at sometime/in/at sometimes we spend the whole day swimming. (sometimes)

Cross-sectional Study	=	84
Stage I	=	7
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

The prepositions in, at and on in their temporal/locative sense also present a problem to the learner. In in this sense corresponds to the preposition fi in Arabic. As has been pointed out earlier in this Chapter,⁽¹⁾ Arabic can dispense with fi and

(1) See p. 276

employ the noun 'sanah' adverbially as sanata to give the meaning in the year. This also applies to phrases such as in the morning, in the evening, at night etc. Where at is concerned, Arabic does not have an equivalent to expressions such as at six o'clock, but it uses the adverbial noun sa:'ata meaning at the hour. However the adverbial 'inda = at can be used in expressions like

'inda-l-ghuru:b = at sunset
'inda-l-fagr = at dawn.

For on in its temporal/locative sense in such phrases as "On Monday" and "On Sunday", Arabic does not use 'ala: = on, but uses the noun yawma adverbially to mean "in the day".

e.g. sa-?uqa: biluka yawma-l-?aHad
I shall meet you on Sunday

In English the prepositions at, in and on indicating 'time when' have two 'dimension types', mainly 'point of time' and 'period of time'. At is used for points of time, (chiefly clock time), and also idiomatically for holiday seasons such as in 'at the weekend'. It is used for the phrases 'at night', 'at the time' etc.⁽¹⁾ On is used with phrases referring to days; otherwise, in, and less commonly during, is used to indicate periods of time as 'in the evening', 'during that week' etc. When in English in is used in the temporal/directional sense in such expressions as 'in five minutes', Arabic does not employ fi but normally uses prepositions such as ba'ada = after, and khila:la = during. These help to make meaning more explicit.

sa?antahi: minu khila:la (or ba'da) daqi:qatayn
I'll finish it during (or after) two minutes.

(1) See Quirk et al, (1972), pp 158-160 for the use of these expressions of time with at in and on.

The learner is aware that although SA uses adverbial nouns English uses prepositions with temporal expressions. His errors are due to 1) L₁ interference, 2) ignorance of rule restrictions applying to the use of in and at with notions of 'period of time' and 'point of time' respectively. Not knowing that in English on is used with phrases referring to days he produces 3b.1, and 3b.2. Although he has acquired some system of using in, at and on for time, he uses the wrong preposition with 'morning', 'night', 'evening' etc. because he is not sure of the rules of that system. He also does not know when and when not to use deictics with expressions of time.⁽¹⁾ He is at the stage of experimenting with the prepositions. Hence citations like 3b.3 and 3b.4 occur. The similarity in meaning of temporal in at and on adds to his difficulties. An interesting point about 3b.4 is his use of on. The learner reads expressions like

'On the morning of June 1st.....'

'On Sunday morning I.....'

He uses on with morning because he does not know that in expressions like the above, there is an exceptional use of on with a complement, referring to a part of the day rather than the whole day. Even if he is aware of this rule restriction, English can still complicate things for him. In spite of the fact that phrases like 'early evening', 'late afternoon' etc. are parts of a day, yet they are preceded by in. Hence the learner's alternative use of in and on with expressions of time. It is doubtful whether the learner can give the rule if he is corrected. He is still testing hypotheses about prepositions in English. Citation 3b.5 shows that it is not only his knowledge of using in and on that is incomplete. He does not know that during is used for 'periods of time' as well as in. Instead he uses at,

(1) The set expressions used for expressing time in English sometimes use deictics and sometimes not.

which to him probably means 'in the lecture'. The use of expressions of time should be given more care by the teacher especially where the notions of 'point of time' and 'period of time' are concerned.

Error 3b.6 shows L₁ interference. This error is characteristic of the cross-sectional study. It does not exist in the developmental study, nor, interestingly enough, in the data of the learners who come from foreign-language schools in the cross-sectional study. The learner does not use any preposition before the word 'afternoon' because in SA, this word is actually made up of Prep. + definite article + adverbial noun = ba'ada-l-zuhri. It is considered as one unit defined by the definite article meaning 'afternoon'. Because he is aware of a preposition in the actual word and he sees that in English the preposition 'after' is present in the word, he does not think it necessary to use a second preposition. It is interesting that only the word 'afternoon' was used without a preceding preposition, while other words like 'day', 'evening', 'night', 'noon' usually occurred with the wrong preposition rather than none at all.

Another important prepositional rule which is not part of the learner's competence is that prepositions of time are absent immediately before expressions with words like last and next, deictics such as this and that, and the quantifiers some and every. This is the rule broken in 3b.7, (and 3b.1 in certain contexts.) By analogy the learner produces 'the next summer' from such constructions as 'the next day' and does not realise that with words referring to a time before or after a given time in the past or future, the omission of the preposition is necessary. It must be admitted that in the area of expressions of time English has a lot of exceptions and no fixed rules. Because of the limited contact with L₂ the learner has not learned to manipulate the expressions correctly.

In citation 3b.8 the learner produces

The lecture will start from four o'clock

What he is trying to convey is the concept of 'point of time' where the appropriate preposition to use is at. However he has used from under the influence of his mother-tongue. In SA min = of, from, is used in a temporal meaning to express the time 'from which' or 'since which' the action takes or has taken place i.e. the point at which an event starts. This time relation is expressed in English by at and therefore the learner is at fault.

In 3b.9 the whole of the expression in some day is wrong and the error stems from the mother-tongue helped by the text-book in use in schools. Living English Book II explains the English expression some day as yawman-ma which literally means in Arabic one day. When the preposition fi = in, is placed before yawman-ma to give fi yawmin-ma, the Arabic expression could be used to mean 'some time ago' or 'one day'. The learner concludes that some day is identical with one day according to the explanation given in the text-book. He then uses both expressions interchangeably. From the Arabic he adds the preposition fi = in as he feels that some day is incomplete and needs a preposition for specification of period of time. Some of course does not accept a temporal preposition before it. By writing

In some day I had a friend,

what the learner thinks he is saying is

Some time ago I had a friend.

In 3b.10 the learner uses *in a day to mean one day. There he uses a literal translation from the Arabic

fi-yawm (mina-l-?ayam)

which means one day. The expression in Arabic is made up of preposition + undefined noun (+ preposition + definite article + noun). The addition of the preposition in English comes from the Arabic. The noun yawm is undefined and is actually a day. By combining them he has produced *In a day.

The error in 3b.11 is again due to Arabic. Whereas English uses the preposition at in connection with a point in one's age, the Arabic uses the preposition fi = in. Therefore an expression like 'at the age of sixteen' would be in Arabic fi-sin-il-sadisa 'ashara. This is literally 'in the age of sixteen'.

A common error is that found in 3b.12. There are two types of error involved. The first is that of the learner using sometime and sometimes in free variation thinking that both of them refer to the same notion. However sometimes is an adverbial of frequency and sometime is a 'time-when' adverb. It is because they both look and sound alike that the learner doesn't differentiate between them. The second error is that the learner, conceiving them to be connected with time, adds the preposition at and in to them and produces an error because the meaning of sometimes is on some occasions and of sometime is at a point of time in the future. We must remember that 'some' in phrases using 'some' words is really a determiner and cannot be preceded by a preposition. Once more the learner is confusing the form and function of adverbs and prepositions as he did when he used them in the locative sense.

3c Other Uses of in, at and on etc.

- 3c.1 Knowledge is poured in the student's head. (into)
- 3c.2 I will stop anyone from meddling into my affairs.
- 3c.3 If we have a look on great friendships they are not very much. (at)
- 3c.4 If we look to the word friendship what does it mean? (of)
- 3c.5 People started looking what happened. (at)
- 3c.6 It is hard to make friends with a girl in your own age. (of)
- 3c.7 She was saying bad words on her friend. (about)
- 3c.8 How often had he been given a hand on return. (in)
- 3c.9 I tried to express my opinion in that subject. (on)

- 3c.10 I see it in another point of view. (from)
3c.11 She was in a strain. (under stress?)
3c.12 I am, in nature sociable. (by)
3c.13 I think a lot at my future. (of)
3c.14 The choice of friends is difficult in both sexes. (for)

Cross-sectional study	=	63
Stage I	=	7
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

Clearly in citations 3c.1 and 3c.2 the learner is mixing up the two prepositions in and into. In Arabic the compound preposition into is rendered by compounds of the type 'preposition + adverb' meaning "to the inside of" = ?ila-da:khil. But quite often, only the Arabic equivalents of the English prepositions to and from ?ila and min respectively, are used. In this latter case, the directional sense of the English preposition is included in that of the dynamic Arabic verb.

dakhala ?ila-l-bayt

He went inside the house

(literally He entered to the house)

In English, into like in, is used for either area or volume i.e. three dimensional space. However into needs a dynamic verb of motion, and in citation 3c.1 to pour was used with in producing an error. In could be used with static verbs as well as dynamic ones. The learner may know that both prepositions are used with area or volume, but he does not know the rule restriction which applies to the choice of verbs. In citation 3c.2 the verb meddle can only be followed by in or with and cannot occur with into.

Citations 3c.3, 3c.4 and 3c.5 show that the learner does not know that where the prepositional phrase is complementary to the verb, at must be used in combinations such as look at to express 'intended goal or target'. We have a great tendency to believe that in 3c.3 the learner was translating the Arabic idiom

yulqi:naTHra 'ala

which is literally

to throw a look on

i.e. to have a look at. In 3c.4 the translation from Arabic is obvious as 'look to' = naTHarna ?ila is used in Arabic when the idea of 'target' or 'intended goal' is expressed. 3c.5 points out that the learner can be influenced by colloquial Arabic which sometimes does not use a preposition to convey the sense of target. As we see the learner either uses the wrong preposition or none at all because in addition to L_1 interference, he is not sure of rules governing prepositions in English.

The next two citations 3c.6 and 3c.7 are direct translation from Arabic. In 3c.6 'in your own age' is the colloquial Arabic expression 'fi nafs-s-sin'. In Arabic, the preposition 'ala' could be used to mean on or about. This, in a sense, is similar to English where a book 'on literature' is a book 'about' literature. However in SA the notion on literature is expressed by fi (=in) literature. In colloquial Arabic though, one can say 'an al-?adab = on/about literature'. The learner produces the error 3c.7 because 'ala' can either mean on or about. What is more interesting is that if the preposition 'ala = on' is used in colloquial Arabic in relation to speaking about a person, the connotation is usually bad, while if 'an = about' is used, the connotation is not derogatory. Hence we get the learner producing

'She was saying bad words on her friend'.

In citations 3c.8 and 3c.12, the learner is using the wrong preposition in idiomatic expressions or prepositional idioms. Again he does not seem to realise that they are part of a unit and cannot be changed for other prepositions for they cannot

function syntactically as individual items. 3c.9 and 3c.10 deserve special mention. The learner knows the expression 'in my opinion' and 'in my (point of) view'. He therefore uses in instead of on and from respectively because he believes that 'opinion' and 'point of view' always collocate with in. He disregards that 'point of view' needs a 'directional' preposition like from and that 'opinion' as a noun, can only be followed by on or about as it means 'view on'.

The last two citations 3c.13 and 3c.14 cannot be explained by us. The learner seems to have his own way of expressing certain ideas through prepositions. Maybe in 3c.13 the learner thinks of the future as 'target' or 'goal' and so uses the preposition at after the verb think as he would use it after the verb to look. This seems to be the only plausible explanation.

3d From: Miscellaneous Use

- 3d.1 The high class wear things from gold and the poor die from lack of food. (of)
- 3d.2 I prefer Alexandria from Cairo. (to)
- 3d.3 I said that I was not from this kind. (of)
- 3d.4 That day from the best days of my life. (one of)
- 3d.5 It is better to have friends from the same age. (of)
- 3d.6 It is hard to find a friend from millions of people. (out of)
- 3d.7 In reality she hates me and envies from me. (no preposition needed)
- 3d.8 He warned us from it. (of)
- 3d.9 I think that routine is an old problem caused by the years Egypt suffered from the Turkish and British occupation. (under)
- 3d.10 From this friendship the two families will meet. (through)
- 3d.11 Our Arab nation has lived from the thirteenth century. (since)

Cross-sectional Study	=	64
Stage I	=	6
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	5

Discussion and Explanation

The preposition from is presented to the learner basically in its spatial/directional sense indicating the source of an action. In Arabic the preposition which has the same basic meaning is min.

mina-l-bayti ?ila-l-madrasah

from the house to the school

The same preposition is used to express temporal relations.

mina-S-Saba:Hi ?ila-l-masa:?

from the morning until the evening

No significant errors have occurred in this area. But this Arabic preposition has many other meanings which do not correspond to those of the English from. It is in these other meanings that interference occurs. Min can indicate 'origin' or 'genus' hence the error in 3d.1 'things from gold' i.e. made of gold. With verbs of making, of is used indicating the material. Another meaning of min is contrast or comparison.

?ayna-?anta-mini:

You cannot compare yourself to me (literally where are you from me)

Hence whenever there is contrast or comparison, where the verb in English should be followed by the preposition to, the learner provides from = min. This accounts for 3d.2. Min can also have the meaning 'some of'.

Min-hum man-?akala:

Some of them have eaten

(literally from them who have eaten)

It could also show the relation that subsists between the part and the whole in this sense

al-Tibu-'ilmun-mina-l'ulu:mi:

Medicine is one of the sciences

(literally one from the sciences)

Hence we get the errors in 3d.3 and 3d.4⁽¹⁾ where the learner means "I am not one of this kind" and "That day was one of the

(1) Notice that in this citation the error is not only that of the wrong preposition but also one of omitting the copula. (See Chapter VII)

best days in my life" respectively. This could also account for 3d.5 where friends are part of (from = min) the same age group. 3d.6 occurs because min is used to mean both from and out of in Arabic. Also the learner possibly has the idea of 'to choose a friend from millions of people' and hence uses from. In 3d.7 the Arabic verb is responsible for the direct translation of min into from. If one is 'jealous of' someone, it is expressed in Arabic as

yagha:ru-min

jealous from

The error there starts with a wrong identification in meaning between 'to envy' and 'to be jealous'. Then the occurrence of from, from the Arabic min following the verb to be jealous is added to the verb envy by analogy. From this we can see that where an Arabic preposition has other meanings that do not correspond to the English one, a great deal of L₁ interference occurs. Citation 3d.8 is also a result of L₁ interference as the verb to warn in Arabic is followed by the preposition min. The errors in citations 3d.9 and 3d.10 are more sophisticated and were characteristic of the developmental study. The learner has a developed system of using prepositions and yet traces of L₁ influence still appear. 3d.9 could be considered correct because people 'suffer from' certain diseases etc. But here the more correct preposition is under. To suffer under foreign rule is almost an idiomatic expression and the learner does not know it. He therefore uses from which is also used in Arabic. 3d.10 shows that the learner wants to use a preposition that indicates the sense of 'result'. He should have used through but in his experience through gives the sense of 'passage' in a locative meaning. He uses from because in Arabic the preposition used is min-khila:la literally from through. He chooses from because it is closer to the meaning of 'as a result of' than through.

When since is employed in English, it is usually followed by either 1) a temporal noun phrase, 2) a V-ing clause, 3) a noun phrase with a verbal noun. The preposition from on the other hand indicates 'source' and functions as an adjunct when it occurs

in a prepositional phrase. In 3d.11 the learner uses from instead of since for two reasons. In colloquial Arabic min = from is used instead of mundhu = since which is much more formal. In SA min = from, in its temporal meaning is capable of expressing the time 'since which' an action has taken place.

3e Subject Matter

About

3e.1 I have lots of experience about this question. (of)

Cross-sectional Study	=	53
Stage I	=	6
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

In this citation the learner knows that about is used with the meaning 'on the subject of', or 'concerning'. This preposition certainly combines with a considerable range of verbs and adjectives when used in this sense. However the noun experience can only be followed by the prepositions in or of. The learner not knowing the correct collocation uses about as it is close to the word 'concerning' and he is there helped by his mother-tongue which uses the preposition fi in the sense of about to express 'subject matter'. The original meaning of fi = 'in' figuratively understood, develops into the notion of 'on', 'about', and is therefore used to introduce the subject matter on or about which one intends to focus.

3f Means, Agentive, Reaction, Passage etc.

With, by

3f.1 I went to Cairo with my friend's car.

3f.2 I was interesting in a book of/for Al-Hakim. (by)

3f.3 Friendship between people with different nationalities is easy. (of)

- 3f.4 We have to be faithful with ourselves. (to)
3f.5 It can't be exchanged by anything. (for)
3f.6 I was shocked with the scene. (by)
3f.7 You are going to be faced by work by problems and
by needs. (with)
3f.8 I passed by all these experiences. (through)
3f.9 A friend must stand near/beside his friend in
everything. (by)

Cross-sectional study	=	81
Stage I	=	6
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	7

Discussion and Explanation

We saw that when two prepositions are similar in meaning and/or form in English, the learner does not distinguish between them in use. As regards meaning there is always confusion between with and by with the respective notions of 'instrument' and 'means'. 'I came with a train' is a common enough error as well as 'I cut it by a knife'. In addition to this, with in its instrumental use has an equivalent in the Arabic bi. bi may also be used to mean by in colloquial Arabic. In SA bi meaning by is used with verbs of motion indicating a directional sense. This being the state of affairs, the learner can only produce errors. Under such pressure from his mother-tongue and apparent similarity in meaning where English is concerned, he does not differentiate between the concepts of 'means' and 'instrument' and produces 3f.1.

The 'agentive' in English passive sentences is expressed by a 'by-phrase'. This poses a special problem for Arabic speakers. In SA there is no equivalent of the English phrase "by somebody" or "by something". Arabic grammar treats the passive form of the verb in Morphology under verb inflection, and very little is said about it in Syntax. From our readings of

Arabic grammar we have deduced that the passive form in Arabic is expressed by several forms of the verb other than the passive. Round-about syntactic structures can also lead to the concept. In addition, the active voice is always used in Arabic, and the passive is only resorted to 1) when there is no interest in the agent, 2) when the agent is too well-known to deserve mention, 3) when the emphasis is either on the action itself or on the recipient. If we say,

kutiba-l-kita:bu

{The book was written

{The book has been written

it is obvious that someone must have written the book. What is important is that the book was written; and if we want to say something about the agent i.e. the writer of the book we can always express it in a sentence using the active voice.

e.g. Instead of

This book is written by al-Hakim

we can say

al-Hakim wrote this book.

The name for the passive in Arabic is al-majhu:l = the unknown which implies that there seems to be no reason why the agent should be mentioned. Summing up Arab grammarians' attitude towards the passive, Bulos⁽¹⁾ says

"The majhu:l form is that form where the agent is not only unknown, but should not be revealed, even though it might be known."

If such is the attitude, no wonder there is no particular syntactic structure devised for indicating the agent in passive sentences. A 'by-phrase' is usually translated into Arabic by the current phrase min qibal = on the part of, by. The absence of a structure indicating the agent renders 'by phrases' in English somewhat superfluous in the learner's mind. When he tries to say a book was written 'by somebody' he uses the preposition li which is used to denote authorship. Hence we get 3f.2 where

(1) Bulos, A., (1965), p 31

the learner uses of to express the fact that the book is written by Al-Hakim. To him, the book 'belongs to' Al-Hakim, i.e. it is equivalent to the meaning 'written by Al-Hakim'. Why he uses for and of alternatively will be discussed in the next subsection.

Outside the passive clause proper, agentive and instrumental 'by-phrases' can occur after adjectives which are participial in form and passive in meaning. In 3f.6 with is used instead of either at or by because bi in Arabic expresses both by and with and the learner does not make a difference where their use is concerned. 3f.7 can be explained in exactly the same way.

Arabic having no exact equivalent of the verb 'to have', possession is expressed by several prepositions.

'inda = with
ma'a = with (in the company of)
li = to, for

e.g. 'indana kutubun

We have books

al-kitabu-li

The book is mine

The learner uses the preposition 'inda meaning with to mean 'who have' or 'who are in possession of'. This is very like English where with can express the notion of 'having' in structures like

'The girl with the red dress'

Citation 3f.3 is not very deviant but somehow, if the preposition of had been used, the sentence would have sounded more correct. This might however be personal prejudice as it is a fact that teachers who are non-native speakers of the language they teach, may be more fussy about errors than native speakers about their own language. Whereas the adjective 'faithful' in English is

followed by to, in Arabic it is followed by ma'a = with. 3f.4 is a collocational error stemming from the Arabic adjective. 3f.5 is also a collocational error this time resulting from the Arabic verb yubdilu-bi = to exchange; bi which follows the Arabic verb is translated by the learner into by in English.

3f.8 is a bit complicated. What the learner is trying to say is 'I passed through all these experiences'. Both by and through can express the meaning of 'passage'; but so can the preposition past. There is an ambiguity here as to whether the learner wanted to use through and used by because both indicate 'passage', or whether he is making an error in the use of to pass by as a verb. Most likely the confusion is between the use of by and through in the sense of 'passage' and the learner does not know that with the meaning to experience, the verb to pass must be followed by through to give the intended meaning. In citation 3f.9 the learner is trying to express the meaning of 'to support someone' through a prepositional phrase. The three prepositions by near and beside when used literally convey relative location in the spatial/locative sense. However when used metaphorically, only the preposition by is appropriate to convey the meaning of 'support' in English.

In Arabic the preposition bi had the original meaning of by and at expressing proximity. This preposition is one of the inseparable prepositions written as one with the word following it. bi is capable of introducing expressions of adverbial value. Hence it is used in expressions such as

bi-l-qurbi min = near
bi-ga:nib = beside/by

The learner therefore uses by, near and beside in English in free variation whether he uses prepositions in a literal or a metaphorical sense.

3g Possession

- 3g.1 We must be gentle in our treatment to people. (of)
3g.2 Give the book for me. (to)
3g.3 The book which I give to you..... ()
3g.4 They are only aiming for their self contentment. (at)
3g.5 He will be surprised of my visit. (at)
3g.6 They waiting for an entrance examination of the department of English. (to)
3g.7 The farmer needs boys to help him for cultivating his land. (with)

Cross-sectional Study	=	82
Stage I	=	6
Stage II	=	9
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

Arabic speakers have trouble in differentiating between the use of the prepositions of, to and for especially where the notion of 'possession' is concerned. The possessive use of of is rendered in Arabic by the inflectional medium of al?idafah (which includes the genitive) without need for a preposition.

e.g. ba:bu-l-bayti = the door of the house

The above Arabic phrase has no preposition in it but since it expresses the idea of 'belonging to' it is connected in the learner's mind with the preposition of in English. In colloquial Arabic another word is used to express possession, mainly bitaa', meaning 'belonging to'. Prepositions generally govern the genitive in SA. The preposition li is equivalent to the English prepositions to and for. Li is generally connected to the word it governs.

e.g. li-Muhammadin = to, for Muhammad

If li is used to express 'possession' then in English for can indicate the same relation when used in structures such as

This book is for you
when offering a book to someone.

'I have a book' would be in SA li-kita:b (literally 'for me (there is) a book'). The learner therefore tends to use the prepositions for, to and of in free variation to express possession, as in Arabic they are expressed by li or ali?Dafah. In English these prepositions cannot be used in free variation. In 3g.1 the only correct preposition is of and in 3g.2 only to is possible. In 3g.3 the preposition to is unnecessary. When the learner uses to instead of of it is because to and for are expressed by one preposition li in Arabic, and both indicate 'possession' like of in English. When he uses for for to, it is because he thinks that both can be used in free variation because they are expressed by only one preposition in his L₁. In 3g.3 the learner includes a preposition when it is not needed because in Arabic

al-kitabu-alladhi?u'Tihi-laka = the book which I give you is literally 'the book which I give to you'. The cause of error stems from the necessity of having the preposition in the Arabic construction whereas in English the preposition is unnecessary.

The errors in 3g.4 and 3g.5 are errors of collocation of particular prepositions with certain verbs. To aim for is wrong because for is used when the idea of 'intended recipient' is meant, and not that of 'target or goal'. At expresses intended goal or target, in combinations such as aim at, where the prepositional phrase is complementary to the verb. At is also necessary in 3g.5 because the idea intended is 'emotional reaction'. The idea could have been conveyed by a straightforward 'subject + verb + object' construction:

e.g. 'My visit will surprise him'.

But the learner used the passive construction which requires the preposition at to replace the agentive preposition by. Here, at signals the relation between the emotive reaction and its stimulus. Surprised in this context is a participial adjective and it is with such adjectival forms that at characteristically combines.

e.g. amused at.

One would have expected the learner to use the preposition about instead of of in this citation, as the idea of stimulus can alternatively be expressed with about:

e.g. annoyed at/about.

But the learner used of because in his mind he had the idea 'he will be surprised because of my visit'.

In making the error in 3g.6 the learner seems to have in his mind the idea that the entrance examination 'belongs to' the department of English. He thus disregards that the prepositional complement following the adjectival entrance must be followed by the preposition to in its directional/goal sense. In 3g.7 the learner seems to correctly know that for is used to express a notion of 'purpose'. Having read structures like

'He'll do anything for her'

i.e. in order to please her, he thinks correctly that for can be used in such a way. However his rules of English grammar are inadequate because, whereas for in such a construction as the above, can be paraphrased by a clause with the clause marker in order to, it must be followed by a verb in the infinitive and not by the progressive aspect of the verb. Since he has used 'cultivating', the preposition which should precede it must either be with or in to convey the idea 'to help someone with a task, or in accomplishing a task'.

4 Graphological Deviations

- 4(a) They never say infront of you their true opinion
- 4(b) Inspite of this they don't believe in God.
- 4(c) She came quickly inorder to see her daughter.
- 4(d) Friends are always inneed of each other.

Cross-sectional Study	=	71
Stage I	=	4
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The graphological errors are mostly characteristic of the cross-sectional study and Stage I and Stage II. The tendency is to write the preposition and its object as one word.

e.g. inneed of, infront of

The learner, having been exposed to these complex prepositions as units, seems to have apprehended correctly that these sequences are units. However he does not realise that the rules of English orthography dictate that the constituents should be separated. Orthographic separation is arbitrary, and anomalies such as writing into as one word and out of as two, merely emphasise the arbitrariness of the distinction. For the learner, there is no phonetic indication that the preposition in should be separated from its object need or front when written. In the aural/oral approach, the learner mostly listens to his teacher speaking and reading. He, in turn, speaks and reads more than he writes in the early years of language instruction. He therefore hears the prepositional structures more than he actually produces them in writing. When he reads, he notices that into and instead(of) are written as one word. He may or may not notice that for example in front of is written as three words, and here the confusion arises. He may, by analogy, produce infront of from instead of. He is not sure of orthographic rules. To add to his confusion Arabic script is different to English. Since the learner hardly ever reads scripts in free hand-writing (except his own), he may assume that the conventions of printing, and not of English orthography, dictate that the constituents of the complex preposition be separated. He therefore sometimes produces the correct graphology and sometimes not. Another possible reason for the learner producing orthographic errors is the fact that in Arabic, there are five prepositions that are written as one word with the following word - the 'inseparable prepositions'. This may encourage him to write the preposition and its object as one word. However, orthographic errors are developmental and are eradicated by constant exposition to L₂, like spelling errors. In Stage III

no graphological error was found. The teacher should point out graphological anomalies as sometimes they can cause serious grammatical errors as in the use of 'everyone' and 'every one', 'sometime' and 'some time'. (see Chapter III).

The discussion of errors in this chapter however long it may be, does not cover nonce mistakes found in the data. Some errors we could not find explanations for. Mostly they seem to occur because the learner has not learnt the correct collocations for the various prepositions.

On the whole the errors are mainly due to the complexity of English in the area of the prepositional phrase. The fact that Arabic has sometimes one preposition to express the meaning of several English prepositions or vice versa helps towards the creation of error. A few errors are caused by the textbook. The teacher should be very careful where the teaching of prepositions is concerned. Pointing out the slight differences in the use and relational meanings of prepositions may help the learner in his use of them. Where certain verbs collocate with certain prepositions in Arabic the learner has a tendency to use the equivalent of the Arabic preposition with the English verb, when English either uses a different preposition, or no preposition at all. Teachers should point out that English verbs that have the same meaning as Arabic ones, are not necessarily followed by the same prepositions used with the Arabic verb. The different 'perceptual' dimension types referring to Place and Time where the use of Locative and Temporal prepositions are concerned, must be carefully and subtly taught so that the confusion is lessened for the learner. In English, teachers should differentiate quasi-synonymous lexical items in terms of the prepositions that follow them. Where two prepositions look and sound alike, teachers should make a point of pointing out the difference in meaning, form, and use.

C H A P T E R V I

THE ADJUNCT

Introduction

So far we have found it relatively uncomplicated to isolate noun phrases, verb phrases and prepositional phrases for analysis. However, the linguistic structures that realise the functions of the 'adjunct' or 'adverbial' vary in form, and are by no means clear-cut. If ever there was a 'portmanteau' or 'umbrella' term in Linguistics, it is 'adjunct'. The items that are thrown together to make up this class include those that do not seem to fit anywhere else. Sometimes it is difficult to see how they even come to belong under the single name of 'adjunct'. On reading what various grammarians have to tell us about the 'adverbial' or 'adjunct' we find that there is a certain vagueness as to the delineation of that term in their minds and they tend to vary as to what is to be included under it.

Mario Pei⁽¹⁾ defines the 'adjunct (word)' as

"A modifier; a word or word group that qualifies, amplifies or completes the meaning of another word or word group but is not itself one of the chief elements in the sentence, (all and well in 'All Americans eat well')."

According to this definition and its illustration, both the classes of words that are traditionally known as 'adjective' and 'adverb' fit under this portmanteau term of 'adjunct'. Pei⁽²⁾ does not confine the term adjunct to adjectives and adverbs. He considers the item class in the structure 'class distinctions' as a "substantival adjunct". According to him it is

".....a noun used as an adjective without a suffix or other change;"

therefore some nouns can function as adjunct. Paul Roberts⁽³⁾ applies the term 'adjunct' to any word which modifies another word

(1) Pei, M., (1966), p.6

(2) Pei, M., (1966), p.264

(3) Roberts, P., (1964)

or word group. Strang⁽¹⁾ believes that closed-system determiners and open class adjectives are adjunct-words which characteristically pattern with nouns and noun phrases. In discussing items that are adjuncts to verbs, she mainly talks of adverbs and adverbials. Berkoff⁽²⁾ narrows the domain of the adjunct by applying the term only to adverbs and adverbials:

" The part of the sentence that contains an adverb,
or a group of words functioning like an adverb will
be called the Adjunct"

Greenbaum⁽³⁾ tells us that various form-classes may be Adjunct, but he devotes his book to some of the functions of the adjunct that are realised by adverbs.

Strang's⁽⁴⁾ definition of the various form-classes that function as adjunct brings out clearly why linguists are vague as to the delineation of that term:

"The classes considered in this chapter⁽⁵⁾ are those not primarily or exclusively functioning in either the noun or the verb phrase. They are rather a mixed bag⁽⁶⁾ but that at least they have in common and there are family resemblances though there is no criterion applicable to all..... There are two main kinds, those fully incorporated into the structure of clauses and those not so incorporated. We shall begin with those that are incorporated and among them again we find two main kinds which can be roughly labelled as adjunct words, and relationship words."

Strang's relationship words turn out to be what we traditionally call prepositions. The adjunct-words are what traditional grammarians have termed 'adverbs'. The most important point to notice about Strang's quotation is that the adjunct words are a "mixed bag" and that "there is no criterion applicable to all....." This has consequences not only where the delineation of the term

(1) Strang, B., (1968), Chapter VIII, p.124 and Chapter X, p.181

(2) Berkoff, (1963), p.34

(3) Greenbaum, S., (1969), pp. 1-2

(4) Strang, B., (1968), p.181

(5) Ibid, Chapter X

(6) My underlining.

'adjunct' is concerned, but also for the learner himself as we shall see presently.

From the above we conclude that the term 'adjunct' definitely includes adverbs and adverbials. All grammarians we have quoted have included the adverb as a form-class functioning as adjunct, whether they agree as to the inclusion or exclusion of other form-classes or not. In fact the term 'adjunct' for the function of adverbs may be found in the works of traditional grammarians such as Poutsma⁽¹⁾ and Kruisinga⁽²⁾. The recent use of the term 'adjunct' covering the functions of the constituents of a clause that are not Subject, Verb or Complement is found in Hudson⁽³⁾. Having already discussed prepositions, noun phrases, and verb phrases, we find it convenient therefore to adopt the definition of the adjunct as an adverb and/or an adverbial. Examples of adjuncts are:

- a) He stated his opinion clearly.
- b) Slowly, she began to move.
- c) She quickly realised the difficulty.
- d) I went away last week.

Since adjuncts are realised by adverbs and adverbials, it is worthwhile finding out how linguists have defined firstly adverbs, and secondly adverbials.

Sledd⁽⁴⁾ defines an adverb in the following way:

"An adverb is a word which consists, like quickly of the positive degree of an adjective plus the derivational suffix -ly and which cannot be compared itself."

Quirk et al⁽⁵⁾ are less sure of this purely morphological definition:

(1) Poutsma, (1926), 29 ff., 691 ff., and (1928) 320 ff.

(2) Kruisinga, (1932), p.123.

(3) Hudson, (1967).

(4) Sledd, (1959), p.187.

(5) Quirk et al, (1972), p.267.

"Because of its great heterogeneity, the adverb class is the least satisfactory of the traditional parts of speech. Indeed, it is tempting to say simply that the adverb is an item that does not fit the definitions for other parts of speech..... The most common characteristic of the adverb is morphological: the majority of adverbs have the derivational suffix -ly. Both the -ly suffix and the less common -wise suffix (clockwise, moneywise) are productive suffixes by means of which new adverbs are created from adjectives (and to a minor extent from participles) and from nouns respectively. But as we noted..... some adjectives have an -ly suffix, while many words that we would undoubtedly wish to place in the traditional adverb class (eg. often, here, well, now) lack this termination."

Quirk et al's definition seems to imply three important points. Firstly, it implies that the word class 'adverb' is not homogeneous and thus not very well defined. Secondly, the adverb has a great deal of affinity to other word-classes particularly adjectives. Thirdly, morphological criteria are not sufficient for identifying a word as an adverb. Adverbs have always presented a problem to linguists and no one has yet given a completely satisfactory and ordered account of their form and function. Although adverbs have a certain coherence they are by no means uniform. Some adverbs are structure words while others are content words. Some classes of adverbs can be set up according to morphological criteria and some others according to the positions they take in larger utterances. Many of them occur in more than one class, and some of them change their meaning according to the way they are used. Strang⁽¹⁾ again sums up this complicated situation:

"Some of the members are variables, most are not; some of the members are confined to this position and function (the third and only post-verbal position in the structure SP)(2), most are not; if more than one adjunct functions with a single head they fall into positional sub-classes; and the various differences do not much coincide, so that it is impossible to make a really neat presentation..... When we come to make distinctions within the general class of adverbs it will be useful to think in terms of a spectrum of functions rather than a spectrum of form-classes....."

(1) Strang, B., (1968), p.182

(2) My brackets.

Criteria of function are as important as criteria of form for adverbs. In English an item may belong to more than one class and this is very characteristic of adverbs and adjectives. Moreover, we cannot identify an item as belonging to a certain class merely by considering its potentialities for inflection and affixation. The form of a word does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function. Classes of words should comprise items that have a similar syntactic function rather than merely a resemblance in form. Christophersen and Sandved⁽¹⁾ confirm this by discussing adjectives and adverbs under two main headings. Under "Inflectional Classification of English Words" they include adjectives and adverbs, and under "Positional Classification of English Words and Word Groups", they include adjectivals and adverbials, i.e. items functioning as adjectives and adverbs. Quirk et al group and discuss adjectives and adverbs together in one chapter⁽²⁾. They believe that neither constitutes a well-defined form class and neither class is homogeneous. They warn that although adjectives and adverbs have traditionally been considered separate parts of speech and consequently word-classes, grammars vary as to what is to be included under each of these classes. Some adjectives are 'central' adjectives while others are on the borderline between 'adverb' and 'adjective' and are called 'peripheral' adjectives. Peripheral adjectives satisfy some criteria that are used for identifying adjectives and some that are used for identifying adverbs. If we take the item ablaze⁽³⁾ in

Their house is ablaze.

we find that ablaze satisfies two of the five criteria that apply to adjectives

- 1) Like adjectives, ablaze can function predicatively after seem.
Their house seemed ablaze.

(1) Christophersen & Sandved, (1969)

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), Chapter V

(3) Example from Quirk et al, (1972), pp. 232 - 234

- 2) Like adjectives, ablaze cannot function as a direct object if it is required to take the indefinite article or the zero article. Neither of the following sentences are possible:

*I like ablaze.

*I like an ablaze.

- 3) An item is an adjective if it can be premodified by the intensifier very.
- 4) An item is an adjective if it can accept comparison whether inflected or periphrastic. When we consider criteria (3) and (4) we realise that the two features, premodification by very and ability to take comparison, generally coincide for a particular word and are determined by a semantic feature, the gradability of an item. Gradability is a feature that cuts across word classes. Many adjectives are gradable just as many adverbs are gradable. These two classes, adjective and adverb, use the same feature to realise the gradability of an item, in particular premodification by very, and comparison. Hence these two features neither distinguish adjectives from adverbs, nor are they found in all adjectives and adverbs; e.g. we cannot have

*Their house was very ablaze.

- 5) Adjectives are distinguished positively by their ability to function attributively. Ablaze does not fit criterion (5) at all. We cannot have

*The ablaze house.

Ablaze therefore, is not a central adjective but a peripheral one.

The similarity between adjective and adverb in form and function leads the learner to error.

Adverbials ⁽¹⁾ are of several formal types, the

(1) Roberts, P., (1964), pp.95-96

most common being adverbs (single words), prepositional phrases and noun phrases. Any of these may function as adverbials of place, manner, frequency, time etc. This classification of the functions of adverbials depends ultimately on formal features of the grammar, such as the positions which the adverbials can grammatically occupy and the words that substitute for them in transforms.

Sledd⁽¹⁾ tells us that:

"Roughly, our adverbial is a word or larger form which occupies a position that our adverbs regularly occupy - for example, 'slowly' in He spoke slowly or 'thus' in He answered thus. More precisely, the positional class of adverbials includes no forms in nominal, verbal, or adjectival positions but only adverbs and forms typically replaceable by adverbs or by such uninflected words as then, there, thus."

Sledd gives examples of an 'adverbial'

- " 1) The bandages were then removed.
- 2) The ballet seemed quite good.
- 3) No, we can't deliver it immediately.
- 4) The moccasin is more dangerous than you think.
- 5) That glutton lives to eat.
- 6) They wrecked the building as promptly as they could."

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ give, in our opinion, a better definition of an 'adverbial'. There are two types of syntactic functions that characterize adverbs:

- 1) Clause constituent.
- 2) Modifier of adjective and adverb.

An adverb may function in the clause itself as adverbial, as a constituent distinct from subject, verb, object and complement.

(1) Sledd, (1959), p.187

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p.268

As such, it is usually an optional element and hence peripheral to the structure of the clause

- e.g. a) John always loses his pencils.
b) I spoke to him outside.
c) Perhaps my suggestion will be accepted.

We notice there are differences between the adverbs in the above sentences, particularly in their position and their relationship to other constituents of the sentence. Adverbial functions are realised by⁽¹⁾

- 1) Adverbs (including adverb phrases).
e.g. They very often praised Tom.
- 2) Noun phrases (less common)
e.g. We'll stay next door.
- 3) Prepositional phrases.
e.g. We'll stay at a hotel
- 4) Finite verb clauses.
e.g. We'll stay where it is convenient.
- 5) Non-finite verb clauses in which the verb is
 - a) infinitive e.g. Peter was playing to win
 - b) -ing participle e.g. Making a lot of noise they praised Tom.
 - c) -ed participle e.g. If urged by our friends, we'll stay.
- 6) Verbless clauses.
e.g. While in London, we'll stay at a hotel

Although it is true that some adverbial functions can be realised by the whole range of the above structures, others are chiefly realised by only certain structures; e.g. connection between clauses is usually effected by adverbs and prepositional phrases. Adverbials can be divided into two classes, distinguished

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.421

by whether or not they are integrated to some extent into the structure of the clause. Those that are integrated into clause structure are termed adjuncts. Those that are peripheral to clause structure are subdivided into disjuncts and conjuncts, the distinction between these two being that conjuncts have primarily a connective function. Greenbaum⁽¹⁾ says that the functions of the adjunct that are realised by adverbs are what have been called by writers on English grammar 'sentence modifiers'⁽²⁾. Many writers appear to include among these the adverbs that are felt to link sentences, such as therefore and nevertheless but others treat them as a separate class. Sweet⁽³⁾ treats them as 'half-conjunctions' and Curme⁽⁴⁾ treats them as 'conjunctive adverbs'. Sledd also includes as adjuncts nouns in adverbial positions after verbals as in the sentence

He works nights,

as well as dependent clauses which are introduced by forms in -ever i.e. whenever, whichever, whatever, etc. The most numerous and typical adverbial clauses are those introduced by subordinating conjunctions like because, if, since, though and when. Greenbaum tells us that grammarians are not in general agreement on what to include among sentence modifiers. Moreover, they either fail to be precise about the criteria to be employed in assigning adverbs to this class, or fail to provide any criteria.

The main function of an adjunct in English is modification. Modification is again not an easy area of the grammar. Roberts⁽⁵⁾ finds it necessary to include chapters on "Some Problems on Modification" (Chapter 42), "Ambiguity in Noun Modification" (Chapter 28) and a further four chapters on Sentence Modifiers in his book. A structure of modification contains a head and a modifier. The head may be a nominal and the modifier a single-word

(1) Greenbaum, S., (1969), p.2

(2) Jacobson, (1964), pp. 28-33

(3) Sweet, (1891), pp. 143-144

(4) Curme, (1935), pp. 74-75

(5) Roberts, P., (1964)

adjectival. However this is not the only type. There are other kinds of modifiers with a nominal head, and there are other kinds of heads.

- e.g. old car (nominal car as head and old as modifier).
- can remember (remember as head and can as modifier).
- very good (adjectival good as head and intensifier very as modifier).
- much better (adjectival better as head and intensifier much as modifier).
- very quickly (adverbial quickly as head and intensifier very as modifier).
- party spirit (noun as modifier in a nominal headed structure of modification).

The above however are only single word modifiers. Modifiers can also be whole phrases or clauses.

- e.g. (phrase) The girl in the corner is my sister.
- (clause) The car repaired by that mechanic is mine.

Some modifiers are sometimes derived from underlying strings that are not very obvious. It has long been known for example that attributive adjectives are usually derived from underlying relative clauses with predicative adjectives. It has also been shown that many attributive adjectives cannot have such a source. An 'early riser' does not come from 'riser who is early' but from an underlying structure in which the adjective is represented as an adverb, i.e. 'someone who rises early'.⁽¹⁾ This is another point that confuses the learner. Moreover sentence modifiers are related to punctuation which is not one of the learner's strong points. The learner is given the most rudimentary instruction on punctuation. Dangling modifiers occur because of the complexity of the deep structure underlying the surface structure where modification is concerned. In such cases the learner does not depart from the grammar in kernel sentences. He rather goes wrong in the transforms, as in modification heavy transformations act upon deep structures to produce surface structures.

Considering Sledd's and Quirk et al's definition of adverbs and adverbials, the long and short of all our efforts to specify the

(1) Bach, E., (1968), p.102

boundaries of the term 'adjunct' seems to be, that we can safely put together all errors involving traditional adverbs, sentence modifiers, intensifiers, limiters, sentence linkers and binders, and any linguistic item that has any kind of modifying function, under this 'portmanteau' term of 'adjunct'. Amidst all the uncertainty that envelops this area we are certain of two things only. Firstly that a number of the grammatical items we could have treated under the heading of 'adjunct' have already been dealt with in one or another of our preceding chapters. Examples of such items are prepositional phrases, determiners, adjectives etc; and other items which could be treated under the heading of adjunct we think are better treated in the next chapter dealing with the Sentence/Clause Level. Such items are sentence linkers such as 'although' and 'but', and conditioning elements such as those involved in constructions of the form

"so + adjective + that"

Secondly in an area as complicated and as vague as this, where the linguist, the grammarian and the teacher find it difficult to define a word-class and its functions, the learner is bound to find great difficulty and fall into error.

For the purpose of this thesis therefore, the definition of 'adjunct' will be whatever errors have been left over in the data, other than the errors we shall discuss under the sentence/clause level in our next chapter.

Adverbs in Arabic

The Arabic language is exceedingly poor in adverbs, the common way of rendering an adverb being to use the corresponding adjective in the accusative.⁽¹⁾

e.g. qadima baTi:ʔan = he approached slowly

(1) Cowan, D., (1958), p.63

It also uses the verbal noun of the verb in question qualified by an adjective to form an absolute accusative.

e.g. qadima qudu:man baTi:?an = he approached slowly

Abdel Malek⁽¹⁾ in a more formal analysis defines the Arabic adverb as a Class IV form which functions as a modifier. He calls the suffix -an which is added to nouns or adjectives to form adverbs in Arabic, "an adverbializer".

e.g. 'a:datan = usually
?abadan = ever

In Arabic therefore, like in English, adverbs are derived from adjectives by the addition of a suffix which syntactically places the adverb in the accusative case. Adverbs in Arabic do not only modify verbs. As is the case in English it is preferable to call them 'adjuncts', for pointers like ha:tha = this, and forms which, besides indicating that an utterance is a question e.g. mata = when, function as modifiers. Other adverbial forms indicate place e.g. huna = here, time e.g. ghadan = tomorrow, degree e.g. faqaT = only, and manner e.g. sari:'an = quickly. We notice that as in English the adjunct class in Arabic is connected to adjectives, prepositions and nouns since it functions as a modifier.

Mitchell⁽²⁾ draws our attention to the fact that in colloquial Arabic, forms like foo? = above and taHt = below are distinguished by the fact that adjectives may be formed from them by the addition of a suffix -aani

e.g. taHtaani = lower
foo?aani = (the one) above

These forms he terms 'adverbial particles'. They differ from adverbs in that certain of the latter, e.g. qiddan = very, are

(1) Abdel-Malek, Z., (1972), pp. 127 - 133

(2) Mitchell, T.F., (1976) (First published 1962), pp. 51-52

regularly associated with adjectives, while others such as the time words

dilwa?ti = now
bukra = tomorrow

never appear with a following noun or pronominal suffix as they are frequently associated with a preceding particle.

In Arabic adjectives as well as substantives can be used as adverbials. Some adjectives, because of their frequency of occurrence in the adverbial accusative, have become independent of their original usage and have acquired a special function and meaning.⁽¹⁾ Frequently, however, adjectives are found independently, performing the function of an adverbial modification. Since they are not used as adjectives, they do not agree in gender or number with any noun item of the sentence, but are in the masculine singular following the part of the sentence they modify

e.g. laqad taghayara kathiran = He has changed a great deal.

The use of the substantive as an independent adverbial developed from its use as an adverbial accusative. It differs from the adverbial accusative mainly because the independent adverbials do not modify a nominal part of the sentence, but rather the statement as such, independently from the nouns involved and from the syntactical nature of the statement, whether it be a verbal or a nominal sentence.

e.g. hal ?ana Haqqan zawguki? = Am I truly your husband?

At times the cognate accusative is missing being represented only by its modifying adjective. In such cases, it can be considered as an adverbial and the construction actually an elliptical one.

(1) Cantarino, V., (1975), Vol. II, pp. 245-250

e.g. ?inana qad ?intaDHarnakum Tawilan = We have been waiting for you a long time.

This connection between adjective and adverb and/or adverbial also confuses the learner.

The differences and similarities between Arabic and English in the use of adjuncts will come out more clearly while we are discussing the errors found in the data, especially in the section on the "Wrong Use of Adjuncts".

I The Use of Adjectives instead of Adverbs and Vice Versa.

- la) These days everything moves quick.
- lb) I want to learn English good and become a translator.
- lc) I want to tell you that I am good and in health.
- ld) No one can live lonely.
- le) It is naturally to have friends.
- lf) In generally we can make friends at the club and in society.
- lg) This proverb is very really.
- lh) Their truely characters do not show at first.

Cross-sectional Study	=	265
Stage I	=	22
Stage II	=	8
Stage III	=	5

Discussion and Explanation

A developmental study of the errors made by Fante speaking Ghanains⁽¹⁾ blames the Ghanain learner's tendency to use adjectives instead of adverbs on the international composition of the teaching staff in Ghana, and on the intrusion of the American culture and idiom through the media of show business and tourism. To us, this explanation does not hold water although it might just be possible. Firstly the Egyptian learner also tends to use adjectives instead of adverbs and his teachers are all Egyptians and not Americans or

(1) Sackayfio, N.A., (1974), M.Phil Thesis, University of London. (Unpublished).

Canadians. If he has any foreign teachers at all during his educational career they are more likely to be British than North Americans. Admittedly the American idiom does also find its way to the Egyptian learner through the media and books. The Egyptian learner is exposed to many American films at the cinema, as well as American gangster and western-type serials on television. Cheap 'westerns' are on sale in bookshops in great quantities. In such films, serials, and books, expressions like "She looked good" and "Shoot quick" abound, but although this may bring about an error like (1a) it can hardly bring about errors like (1b) and (1c).

In our opinion the more probable cause of the error is a difficulty inherent in the English language itself. Firstly, not all adverbials are adverbs; both nouns and adjectives may occupy adverbial positions in English, as in (a) and (b) respectively.

- a) He works nights.⁽¹⁾
- b) He talks loud.

Sentences like (b) have nothing incorrect about them. There is no need to substitute (c) He talks loudly, for (b). The possibility of such substitution merely justifies the statement that loud, an adjective, is an adverbial in (b). The only reservation about (b) is that it may be unusual in written British English.

Christophersen and Sandved⁽²⁾ point out that in colloquial English the adjective 'quick' is quite often used as an adverbial after verbs denoting movement.

- d) Come quick.
- e) Run as quick as you can.

Otherwise the adverb is used:

- f) He quickly threw it away.

(1) Sledd, (1959), p.123

(2) Christophersen and Sandved, (1969), p.168

There is a special problem attaching to some adjectives like cheap(ly), hard(ly), easy/easily, quick(ly), slow(ly). From these adjectives one can form adverbs by adding the derivational suffix -ly. Here we have a number of adjectives that sometimes occur as adverbials, and from these adjectives we can derive adverbs, which are also normally used as adverbials; and to complicate the matter still further, some of the adverbs and one or two of the adjectives may also be used as intensifiers. Thus we have

- g) aim high (with an adjective used as an adverbial)
- h) esteem somebody highly (with the corresponding adverb used as an adverbial)
- i) It was highly amusing (with the same adverb used as an intensifier).

The difficulty for learners in cases like these is of course to decide when to use an adjective and when to use the corresponding adverb as an adverbial, or as an intensifier. In most cases one simply has to point out that in such and such a combination this or that form is used.

If the colloquial British idiom allows the use of quick after verbs of movement, can we consider (1a) erroneous? Certain items that function as adjectives are also used to define, in some way, the process denoted by the verb, which is a typical use of adverbs.

Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ tell us that

"An example is quick in He came back quick. If in its adverbial use, the item is not restricted to a position after the verb or (if present) the object, it undoubtedly belongs to both the adjective and adverb classes. For example, long and still, which commonly function as adjectives, are in pre-verb position in the following sentences and must therefore be adverbs:

Such animals have long had to defend themselves.
They still can't make up their minds whether to go or not.

Furthermore the item clearly represents two different words if there is a semantic difference between the words

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 237

in the two uses as with long and still. But in a number of other cases, neither difference applies.

In many such cases the adjective form and a corresponding -ly adverb form can be used interchangeably, with little or no semantic difference except that some people prefer the adverb form:

He spoke (loud and clear
 (loudly and clearly.

He came back (quick
 (quickly "

In other cases there is no corresponding adverb form of the same lexical item, so that only the adjective form is available:

They are running fast

They are working late

The adverb lately does not correspond to the adjective form late in the above sentence. Only a limited number of adjectives have adverbial uses. We cannot say,

*She buys her clothes careful.

Adjective forms like quick differ from the corresponding adverb forms in 3 ways:

- 1) The adjective form is restricted to a position after the verb or, if present, the object.
- 2) It is restricted in a nominalisation realised by a participle clause containing a direct object.
- 3) It cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence though this is possible for some corresponding adverbs. We cannot have

1. *He slow drove the car.
2. *His slow driving the car annoyed her.
3. *It was slow that he drove the car.

We come back to (1a) and ask is it or is it not erroneous? The mind boggles. We shall arbitrarily take it to be erroneous if only because it is not consistent with the rest of the learner's

language. It is a colloquial form in a predominantly standard idiom.

In the introduction to this chapter we have pointed out that both adjectives and adverbs function adverbially as modifiers. Moreover we cannot tell whether a word is an adjective or an adverb by looking at it in isolation as its form does not necessarily indicate its syntactic function. Morphologically, the potentialities for inflection and affixation of adjectives and adverbs may sometimes lead one astray. Adjectives it is true, inflect for the comparative and superlative, but some adverbs such as hard (harder, hardest)⁽¹⁾ can be similarly inflected. Some suffixes are found only with adjectives e.g. -ous⁽²⁾, but many adjectives which are quite common have no identifying shape. Examples of these are hot, fat, little, and good. Many adjectives provide the base from which adverbs are derived by means of an -ly suffix but some do not allow this derivational process. There is no adverb *goodly derived from the adjective good. The situation becomes very confusing for the learner at this point.

Teachers, textbooks and the teaching methods used, do not help in any way in lessening the complexity of this area. On the whole, when teachers in schools teach adverbs they tend to over-simplify matters by telling learners that most adverbs are formed by adding -ly to the respective adjective. If the learners are lucky, the teacher will tell them that the suffixes -ward and -wise are also added to nouns to form either adverbs of manner, or adverbs of direction. In the approach used by the textbook writers and the government in Egyptian schools, explanation of grammatical points is not encouraged and the learner just learns the adverbs as they come up in the reading texts, and he is drilled in using them through pattern practice. He will thus notice that slowly comes from slow, quickly comes from quick etc, and that they are adverbs of manner. As a result, if the learner comes across the item kindly, he will not know that it is one of the few adjectives which are themselves derived from an adjective base, and that it is an

(1) This leads to error types found in Section 2.

(2) See Quirk et al, (1972), Appendix I, p.1004

item functioning also as an adverb. Similarly he will not realise that some words not ending in -ly, like often, now, there and well, are actually adverbs. The teachers themselves are not sure of the rules that cover this area. Textbook writers have a tendency to ignore complicated grammatical areas especially where the link between form and function is concerned. By over-simplifying a complex and controversial area such as this, they confuse the learner instead of helping him. The result is that he confuses adverbs and adjectives where form and function are concerned. Not really understanding the difference between adjectives and adverbs and their functions, and not being very sure if items are adjectives or adverbs, the learner either over-generalises the rule of the derivational -ly suffix and thus produces errors like those in section 2, or he concludes that it does not really matter whether one inflects the apparent base form or not, when he sees that adverbs like thus, now and even are not inflected but are still adverbs.

The error in (1b) and (1c) shows that the learner does not recognise the adverb well as the appropriate adverb form from the adjective good. He seems to know that there is no item goodly in English and so does not use it. In fact the item well in English can be rather confusing as it has several functions and meanings and can occur both as adjective and adverb. There are cases in which an adjective is used after a verb or object where we might expect an adverb. Leech⁽¹⁾ points out that in such a case, the adjective is considered to be a complement and not an adverbial at all.

e.g. a) The food tasted good. (i.e. the food was good to taste).

Both good and well are adjectives but with different meanings in

- b) Those cakes look good (look as if they taste good)
- c) Your mother looks well (in good health)

We have seen that the difference between an adverb form and an adjective form does not always involve a difference in meaning

(1) Leech, G.N., (1975), p. 196 and p. 220

(see error 1a). In the case of (1c) however, difference in meaning occurs. Whereas adjectives generally can be used both attributively and predicatively, some groups of adjectives are usually restricted to predicative position. One such group is 'health adjectives'

e.g. I feel faint.
You look well.

In (1c) what the learner means to say is "I am well health-wise". He therefore should have written either

'I am in good health'
or
'I am well'.

Instead he is confused and writes

I want to tell you that I am good and in health.

The source of confusion is that well and good are both adjectives. When well is used to mean 'in good health', it is inflected like good for the comparative and the superlative giving 'better' and 'best' respectively. Generally, people associate good with better in the health sense; thus 'he is better' is equivalent to 'he is well again'. This similarity in meaning, function and form between good and well confuses the learner. Furthermore, in a sentence like

He has done it well

well is an adverb meaning 'in a satisfactory way'. This to the learner can be 'in a good way'. Well in that context also has the comparative and superlative forms 'better' and 'best'. Again this similarity undoubtedly enhances the learner's confusion. But 'I am good' does not mean 'I am well'. The learner seems to feel this and he unconsciously adds ".....and in health" to

his sentences, to explain in some way that he means 'good' in the health sense, (i.e. well). Again the complexity of the function and form of adverbs and adjectives is responsible for the error.

In English we have classes of verbs that must be followed by certain constructions. Intransitive verbs for example may be followed by adverbials but not by ordinary noun phrases or by adjectives. Transitive verbs are always followed by noun phrases, and verbs like become and remain are followed by substantives. The verb to be can be followed by either an adjective, a noun phrase or an adverbial.

In (1b) the learner wants to say

"I want to learn English to a good (in the sense of 'thorough') extent so that I may become a translator".

Although the learner knows what he means to say, he does not realise that differences in meaning are supported and conveyed by differences in form. He uses a di-transitive verb 'learn' which takes the NP 'English' as object and it can be followed by an adverbial of manner. The classification of the functions of adverbials depends ultimately on formal features of the grammar, such as the positions which the adverbials can grammatically occupy, and the words that substitute for them in transforms. As regards position, all adverbials may occur at the end of verb phrases. When several adverbials occur in a single verb phrase, the normal order is **MANNER, PLACE, TIME**. Transformationally, an adverb of manner transforms into a question with 'how'. The learner's use of the adjective good will not allow the transformation into the question 'to learn how?' Rather it would allow the transformation into 'what kind of English?' Thus good does not modify the verb 'learn' but the NP 'English' and is therefore not an adverbial. However the correct adverbial 'well' would allow the transform into a question with 'how?', thus showing that well modifies the verb 'learn'. Positionally this adverbial of manner comes at the end of the VP.

An adjective (like good) usually stands before the noun it modifies unless it is used predicatively. However the sentence

"I want to learn good English....."

has a meaning which is different from

"I want to learn English well so that....."

On the other hand, the L₁ may have something to do with this error. In Arabic good is gayyid. The adverb gayyidan when written in Arabic simply adds an '?alif' (which is the first letter of the alphabet) to the adjective and this '?alif' is pronounced /-an/ when in final position. The colloquial for good is kuwayyis, and to this word no inflectional suffix is added at all to form the adverb. Thus the learner translates kuwayyis into good and writes it down. We notice that in both SA and colloquial Arabic, as well as in English, adverbs and adjectives are very similar; this similarity in both L₁ and L₂ helps the learner to create errors. The citations in (1a) to (1c) are erroneous because the actual area of adjectives and adverbs is ridden with complications in English. It is this complexity where both form and function are concerned that leads the learner to use adjectives instead of adverbs.

In (1d) the learner uses the adjective lonely when he should have used alone. On the surface the item lonely which ends in -ly looks more like an adverb than does alone, if we are to follow the rule of the derivational suffix -ly forming adverbs from adjectives. This is one reason that confuses the learner into committing errors. To add to the learner's confusion the similarity in meaning between the items makes them identical for him. The Concise Oxford Dictionary⁽¹⁾ gives the following meaning for alone:

(1) The Concise Oxford Dictionary, p.34

"alone, predicative adjective and adverb.
Solitary; standing by oneself.....
(adv). only, exclusively."

For the item lonely the same dictionary says

"lonely, adjective, solitary, companionless,
isolated,....." (1)

In fact the word alone can be used as an adverb, but not the word lonely. If used as an adverb, alone does not mean 'solitary' but rather 'solely', 'without help' (2). Lonely on the other hand is an adjective which means 'sad from want of companionship', 'deserted', 'apart from fellows or companions' (3). The Webster gives the adverb from lonely as lonelily but we do not think that this is of very frequent usage in British English. Another adjective which also means 'solitary' is lone which is contracted from alone. To the learner both lonely and alone mean the same thing. In form both can be adjectives. From the point of view of function only one item can function adverbially and that is alone. The adjective alone functions adverbially after the verb live in the citation

One cannot live alone

because the transform used is again that of a question with 'how?' Lonely however can only transform into a question with 'what?' It is an adjective which can function attributively as well as predicatively, whereas alone cannot function attributively. It is therefore a 'peripheral' and not a 'central' adjective. This confuses the learner who does not know the criteria for either adjectives or adverbs.

In citations (1e) to (1h) the learner uses adverbs instead of adjectives. Again the main source of error seems to be confusion because of the similarity in either form or function and/or meaning

(1) Ibid, p. 704

(2) The International Webster New Encyclopedic Dictionary, p. 30

(3) Ibid, p. 562

between the items in question. In (1e) the learner uses 'naturally', a disjunct, instead of the predicative adjective natural. The learner comes across

- 1) It is natural to have friends.
- 2) Naturally, one has friends

Both 'It is natural' and 'naturally' mean the same thing as far as he is concerned - i.e. 'happening in the ordinary course of things'. The only difference of course is in the function of both items. Naturally is an attitudinal disjunct which conveys the speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying. It conveys some attitude towards what is said, and in the case of naturally the implication is that what is going to be said in the sentence is judged to be appropriate or expected. Naturally is paraphrasable by 'as might be expected' or 'of course' and does not correspond to 'it is natural' (1). This is because many adverbs as attitudinal disjuncts correspond to other structures, and sometimes to more than one structure. One can say

- (1) Naturally one should have friends
and
- (2) It is natural that one should have friends

However the meaning of both sentences above is not the same. Whereas in (1) we mean 'Of course one should have friends', in (2) the factual basis of what is said is asserted. The learner uses 'naturally' and 'natural' interchangeably. He does not realise that with disjuncts, the deep structure is usually different to the surface structure of the sentence. The deep structure must be understood and transformed into a certain pattern that gives the correct meaning. At this point the learner goes wrong. He does not distinguish between the meaning implied by the surface structure of naturally and it is natural. Considering that the learner generalises the rule of the application of the derivational suffix -ly because of his confusion with adverbs and adjectives, he is bound to fall into error.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 515

In (1f) the error is interesting because the learner mixes up the prepositional phrase in general with generally the disjunct. The learner seems to think that it is not important whether he adds the -ly suffix to an item or not. Had he left out the preposition in he would have been using the disjunct generally correctly to mean "I am speaking generally when I say that....." But the error clearly shows that the learner has some experience of the language. He knows that both 'generally' and 'in general' are adverbials and he has no doubt as to their meaning. He adds the -ly suffix to the item 'general' in the prepositional phrase as he generalises the rule of applying an -ly suffix to adverbs and adverbials.

The error in (1g) shows that the learner does not differentiate between the adjective 'real' meaning 'occurring in fact', and the emphasizer 'really' which means 'positively'. Again the emphasizer 'really' can have either a scaling effect as in

He really likes her = he likes her very much

or a heightening effect as in

He really was there = he actually was there

The learner seems to be confused by the meaning of the adjective (which is 'actually true'), and of the adverb (which is 'in reality'). Had he used the item 'true' he would have been safe. The use of the two different forms however, brings out totally different meanings.

The learner's errors are not restricted to the use of adverbs instead of adjectives in a predicative position. As (1h) shows, he uses adverbs instead of attributive adjectives. Most of the grammatical errors learners make in writing occur not in kernel sentences but in transformations of the kernel, in which they lose sight of, and confuse, the kernel relationships. An attributive adjective is usually derived from an underlying relative clause with a predicative adjective. Thus

(a) 'Their true characters'.....

derives from

(b) 'Their characters which are true'.....

By application of the deletion transformation to (b) we get a single word modifier. Applying the transformation for noun modifiers we get

D + N + modifier \Longrightarrow Det + modifier + N

This gives us (a)

Their true characters

The learner goes wrong as modifiers can be either adjectives or adverbs. Bach points out that many attributive adjectives come from underlying structures in which the adjective is represented as an adverb. Somewhere, somehow, the learner's mind is confused because of this complexity in modification and he mixes up adjectives and adverbs.

2 Wrong Use of Adverb-Form Inflections

- 2a) I missed my parents hardly and even the streets of my town.
- 2b) He studied very hardly for the exams but he was unlucky.
- 2c) This is true and if the government does not act fastly there is no solution.
- 2d) I seldomly go to Alexandria in the summer but this year I go there.
- 2e) In the nearly future I will be a teacher.

Cross-sectional Study	=	158
Stage I	=	14
Stage II	=	8
Stage III	=	4

Discussion and Explanation

In order to discuss the errors in this section clearly we must bring up the point of homonyms. Homonyms are items that have the same written and spoken form but differ in meaning; i.e. Bear (denoting an animal species) and bear (signifying 'carry'). The two items are homonyms since there does not appear to be any connection between the two meanings. The classic instance of homonyms among adverbs is fast. This identical form represents two different items, one with the meaning quickly and the other with the meaning firmly. Items also can belong to more than one class, or even to more than one sub-class within a class in English. Some adverbs have exactly the same form as adjectives for example:

- 1) an early train (adjective)
- 1a) The train arrived early (adverb)
- 2) a hard task (adjective)
- 2a) We tried hard to convince them (adverb).

These items are identical in their spoken and written forms but differ syntactically. They are therefore 'syntactic homonyms'. These homonyms confuse the learner to a great extent especially when, as is the case with hard, these syntactic homonyms have as well another adverb form in -ly but which has an entirely different meaning.

The learner uses an adverb-form inflection on words that should not be thus inflected for adverbial function for several reasons. Firstly he knows that adverbs are derived from adjectives and so he over-generalises this rule. He assumes that hardly is an adverb derived from the adjective hard. He does not realise that there is also an adverb hard as well as an adverb hardly, both used with very different meanings. The adverb hard means severely. Hardly however means not quite or scarcely. The existence of an adjective hard meaning any of firm, solid, difficult, unfeeling, rough to the touch, containing mineral salts (of water), inflexible etc, does not make the confusion any the less. In fact where the adverb hard is concerned, severely is only

one of its meanings. It could also mean close or near as in the expression hard on his heels. As for the adverb hardly, its meanings range from with difficulty, harshly, rigorously, unfavourable to scarcely and not quite. The problem here is not only one of confusion between form and function, but also one of confusion because of the homonymy between the adjective hard and the adverb hard. The word however represents two different items, one with the meaning difficult and the other with the meaning severely.⁽¹⁾ Moreover syntactically they are two different forms. This confuses the learner and the fact that the adverb form hardly exists reinforces his error. This shows that the learner is unaware of the correct meaning of hardly and also of its function and uses in (2a) and (2b).

Christophersen and Sandved⁽²⁾ have pointed out the special problem attached to adverbs like hard, cheap, clear, quick, wide etc, where the foreign learner finds difficulty in choosing between the use of an adjective or an adverb, as an adverbial, or an intensifier. The adverbs hard and hardly are very often confused by foreign learners of English anyway.

The same cause of error applies to fastly in (2c). Fast is one of a few forms which occur both as an adverb of manner and as an adjective. The learner thinks that fast is only an adjective and not also an adverb. He therefore derives fastly from the adjective as he has been taught, to give the meaning of quickly. Whereas the adjective fast means rapid, firmly fixed etc, the adverb means firmly, securely or tightly as well as quickly. Fastly as an item is not mentioned either in the Concise Oxford Dictionary nor in The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage. Strangely, it occurs in Cassell's Compact English Dictionary⁽³⁾ with the meaning of quickly.

In (2d) the confusion continues and the learner assumes that seldom is an adjective from which he derives an adverb *seldomly. Having got used to the idea that adverbs usually end in -ly he does

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- (1) C.f. Chapter VIII where hard is always used for difficult in the wrong context.
- (2) Christophersen and Sandved, (1969), pp. 169-170
- (3) Cassell's Compact English Dictionary, (1956), p.141

not recognise that seldom is already an adverb. In fact there were several errors in the data concerning the adverb often wrongly derived as *oftenly, but they were too few for us to include them here. However this proves that the learner could sometimes not recognise adverbs such as well, often and seldom as actual adverbs, because most teachers make a point of the fact that adverbs end in an -ly suffix. However, adverbs are divided into sub-classes. What Strang⁽¹⁾ calls 'pure adverbs' or words especially distinctive of the class because they do not have any other function but as adverbs, are the items here, now, there, often, seldom, perhaps, still, once, always etc, which do not have an -ly suffix. It is the class of variable adverbs that can be described in terms of its morphological structure that takes an -ly + an adjective base, and not all adjectives give rise to adverbs of this form. This is only one sub-class of adverbs. Oversimplifying a complicated area such as this can only lead the learner to error. Adverbs are not a very well-defined class anyway and it is extremely difficult to give rules for their form and their occurrence in all contexts. Near is an adverb meaning in proximity, in space or time. Near, the adjective, means close, closely related as well as close to in space and time. The learner again does not make a difference between the adjective and the adverb. He derives the adverb nearly from the adjective and thinks that it means proximity in time, while in fact the adverb nearly means almost. (2e).

On the whole, it appears that the learner's problem in the past two sections is basically a confusion between form and function. The fact that the adjunct class is rather a "mixed-bag" and that neither adjectives nor adverbs are well-defined as word-classes helps the learner to confuse them. Their similarity in function helps him to mix them up where form is concerned. The main misconceptions of the learner are:

- 1) The overgeneralisation of the rule of creating adverbs from adjective roots.
- 2) The occurrence of some uninflected adverb forms like hard and fast as well as their inflected forms as adverbs, e.g. hardly, leads the learner to mix them up and conclude that it does not really matter whether one inflects the base form or not.

(1) Strang, B., (1968), p. 182

3) This second assumption of the learner is somewhat strengthened by the occurrence of the American and the British colloquial uninflected adverb form 'slow', 'quick', in sentences like 'Come quick' and 'He went slow'. The learner's confusion between form and function is very similar to his confusion with the adverbial particles in phrasal verbs.

3 The Wrong Use of Adjuncts

a The Use of Too and So for Very and Vice Versa

3a1) Travel is so useful for everybody.

3a2) It is so hard to gain a friend.

3a3) He found himself so happy.

3a4) I miss you too much.

3a5) Farmers like too many sons to help them on the farm.

3a6) I am very lazy to go there.

Cross-sectional Study	=	95
Stage I	=	6
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

In addition to the wide range of intralingual errors which have to do with faulty rule-learning at various levels, there is a class of developmental errors which derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. Many courses progress on a related assumption, namely that contrasts within the language are an essential aid to learning. This is related to a contrastive approach to language teaching.

"Presenting items in contrast can lighten the teacher's and the student's work and consequently speed up the learning process." (1)

(1) Hok, R., (1964) "Contrast: An Effective Teaching Device", ELT, Vol. XVII, pp. 117-122

What Hok is stating is very true in some situations. The idea that contrasts within a language can be used so as to aid the learner in learning items and their use more easily can be applied successfully while teaching adjectives like 'thin' and 'thick', 'slim' and 'fat' for example. But whereas 'slim' and 'fat' and 'thick' and 'thin' are direct opposites and contrast well, items like 'very' and 'too' are not exact opposites in meaning. They are rather contrastive in degree and show a gradation along a scale of intensity of meaning. Intensifiers like 'very' and 'too' are at one end of a degree scale while others like 'rather' and 'quite' are at the other end of the scale. Their meaning therefore is thought of in terms of a cline. Using the 'contrasts' approach with these items only leads to confusion rather than to clarification.

The confusion is attributable to premature contrastive presentation. The learner feels that the members of pairs such as too and very are synonyms despite every attempt to demonstrate that they have contrastive meanings. This false concept hypothesized, is sometimes strengthened by the way too and very are presented by the course designers who intend to establish a contrast, but in doing so, they completely confuse the meaning of the two forms. Consider the following presentation of a lesson⁽¹⁾ in which the occurrence of too, very and so are presented to the learner:

"The idea that everything is made up of very small particles or atoms, was known to the Greeks over two thousand years ago..... Atoms are too small to be seen, even with a powerful microscope..... Atoms are so small, and their numbers are so great, that it is not easy for the mind to grasp such numbers."

This passage in the lesson is followed by language exercises one of which is the following:

"Notice 'Too small to be seen = so small that we cannot see it'. Write five sentences using tooto"

From this presentation, and from the viewpoint of the learner, too, very and so have the same meaning. Thus we have the parallelism

(1) G. C. Thornley (1964) Lesson 18, pp. 87 - 92

between:

Atoms are very small. They are numerous. They are too small to count and see. They are so small they cannot be counted or seen.

How could a learner following such a presentation avoid saying:

Atoms are so small
Atoms are very small that they can't be seen.
Atoms are too small

Perhaps too would be more safely taught out of association with very and in contexts where it does not appear to be a substitute for very, but not in structures showing 'too + adj + infinitive'.

e.g. This is too heavy to lift.

Although Allen⁽¹⁾ introduces too as an adverb of excess used with the infinitive, he succeeds in establishing confusion between too, so and very by offering the following exercises.

"Use too and the infinitive to express the following ideas.

This soup is very hot; I can't drink it. This soup is too hot for me to drink.

"Use either too or enough and the infinitive to express the following ideas:

This room is small; we can't all get in. This room is so small that we can't all get in. This room is too small for us all to get in"

In his attempt to make clear that too + infinitive has a negative meaning, while enough + infinitive has an affirmative meaning he succeeds in causing confusion. This type of exercise leads to errors (3a1 - 3a6). Constant attempts to contrast some related areas of English can thus have quite different results from those we intend. A safer strategy for instruction is to minimise opportunities for confusion by selecting non-synonymous contexts for these related words, by treating them at different times, and by avoiding exercises based on contrast and transformation where

(1) Allen, W.S., (1958), Exercises 93 - 95, pp. 103-106

this is necessary.

There is hardly any explanation given in the textbooks on the use of too, very, so and such. Very is an expression of Degree which acts as a premodifier of adjectives or adverbs etc. But not all adjectives, verbs, adverbs etc, can be modified by a degree adverbial. Only gradable words whose meaning can be thought of in terms of a scale can be modified. Very indicates extreme position on this scale.

So and Too have also got a modifying function. Too indicates 'excess' and is usually followed by an infinitive clause. It carries therefore overtones of degree like the intensifier very. So (that) is a degree or amount construction and it expresses a meaning similar to enough and too. But the so construction also adds a meaning of 'result' expressed without a 'that-clause'. This similarity in concept and meaning seems to confuse the learner and he does not need more confusion from the textbook. The 'that' of the clause is always separated from so and the learner does not associate so with that and uses the modifier alone without the clause hence producing errors.

3 The Wrong Use of Adjuncts

b Miscellaneous

3b1) My dear I tried to ring you up several times but you were always away. (out)

3b2) Too, the country has to care for the students (also)(again)

3b3) I was astonished to find going to university is very different than going to school. (from)

3b4) Long ago Egypt was far away from education. (not a place where education was found)

3b5) I did not like her manners and also her talk. (neither/nor)

Cross-sectional Study	=	86
Stage I	=	5
Stage II	=	0
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

The wrong use of miscellaneous adjuncts has several causes:

- 1) mother-tongue interference.
- 2) similarity of form and function and meaning between certain adjuncts in English.
- 3) A combination of both the above.

If we consider the use of away in (3b1) we find that away and out have a certain similarity in meaning and use in English. The difference between them is slight and perceivable only by the native speaker. The error of using one for the other is further enforced by the fact that only one item serves for both in colloquial Arabic (barra). The meaning of away is given as at, to a distance while out is described as denoting position or movement away from.⁽¹⁾ The meaning given in Arabic for out is literally away from. Moreover we have the expression in English away from home i.e. not only 'not in' but actually travelling on business or holiday etc. This expression is translated into Arabic as away from his house. To be out also means to be away from the house as far as the Arabic speaking learner is concerned. He therefore uses both out and away in free variation. He does not realise that being away usually means not being in one's house for a couple of days at least, while being out usually means being away from the house for part of the day, even if it is the greater part. What he means in citation (3b1) is

Every time I rang, you were out

and not

Every time I rang, you had travelled somewhere

This confusion is strengthened by the fact that the colloquial Arabic item barra = out, outside, is used for both the English out and away.

(1) The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage, (1972)
p. 81 and p.848.

The learner mixes the items too and also and again when they denote addition. When too, also and again denote 'addition' their Arabic equivalent is either ?ayDan and/or kadha:lika. The item too has more than one meaning in English, one of them being also, as well or in addition. Because of this the learner presumes that he can use it in free variation with also and again since he knows that all are adverbs. The preferred positions of these adverbials differ. Also prefers mid-position while too is better put in end-position. Again varies in position. The placing of an adverbial depends partly on its structure and partly on its meaning and on its function. Besides the fact that all three items can denote 'addition', all three items can have different functions. Sometimes they are used as additive adjuncts and sometimes as additive conjuncts. Again is very complicated where its function is concerned. Greenbaum⁽¹⁾ describes the function of again as follows:

"The additive conjunct again indicates that a new point is being added in an exposition, and the new point is a reinforcement of what has been said before....."

Greenbaum points out that the additive conjunct has two homonyms, an additive adjunct and a temporal adjunct. We can illustrate the differences between them by giving Greenbaum's examples (p. 47).

- (1) Again, the psychologist can observe the child at work and at play.

Here in (1) again is an additive conjunct indicating no more than that another point is being made.

- (2) The psychologist, again, can observe the child.....

Again in (2) is an additive adjunct, implying that someone besides the psychologist can observe the child.

- (3) The psychologist can again observe the child.....

(1) Greenbaum, S., (1969), p. 47

Again in (3) is a temporal adjunct paraphrasable by 'once more'. Because again the temporal adjunct can occupy initial position, the additive conjunct would require to be followed by a comma in written English to avoid ambiguity.

The conjunct also is restricted to initial position. Like again (conjunct) it indicates that an additional point is being made. As for too, Greenbaum says:

"In my idiolect too cannot occupy initial position and only functions as an additive adjunct. Some people, however, seem to be able to use it in that position as an immobile additive conjunct..... In my idiolect, also would have been used instead of too for this position....."

The position Greenbaum is talking about is that of initial position where too is used as an additive conjunct. The fact that the three items can function as both adjunct and conjunct, and the very complicated semantically conditioned distributional pattern associated with the items cause the learner to confuse the use of the three items, particularly that the concepts behind the three items appear to cover much the same ground. Whenever the meaning or the distribution of an item in the L₂ cannot be neatly pinned down, the possibilities of confusion are great for the learner.

In citation (3b2) the learner wants to say

Again (also, in addition) the country should care for its students

A reinforcing additive conjunct rather than an additive adjunct should be used. This is seen by the fact that the learner added the comma after too in his sentence.

It is also with the concept of 'addition' that error (3b5) is concerned. If too and as well have a positive meaning where 'addition' is concerned, neither and nor have the corresponding, negative meaning. The learner wants to say:

(1) Greenbaum, S., (1969), pp. 52-53

I did not like her manners and I did not like her talk (conversation) too.

The coordination of the two negative sentences above are better put if a correlative coordination structure is used. Correlative coordination structures can be either expressed positively by using either/or, and not only/but also, or negatively by using neither/nor. The learner thinks that by using a negative clause (or sentence) plus also in the sense of 'addition', he will convey a negative meaning where addition is concerned. The result is an error, as also is not rightly used with negative structures.

The error in (3b3) is a result of the concept of comparison and the way it is used in the mother-tongue. We have already pointed out in the last chapter that where the concept of comparison is concerned, the prepositions min and 'an, which are both equivalent to the English from, are used to replace the word than in an Arabic comparative structure. In English a post-modifying phrase or clause introduced by than can indicate the 'standard' against which the comparison is made

e.g. (a) I am taller than you (are)

In Arabic either the prepositions min or 'an are used, depending on the context. The above sentence (a) would be in Arabic

?ana-?aTwal minaka

The item different in Arabic is followed by the preposition 'an = from. We therefore get the learner transferring citation (3b3) direct from his L₁.

Direct transfer from L₁ is again behind the error in (3b4). The learner translates an Arabic expression (used also in English) into L₂. In English when a person is totally ignorant, one can say of him

He is far from being educated

However one does not say:

He is far away from education

In Arabic this is possible and the literal translation of (3b4) is

fi-l-ma:Di-ka:nat-misru-ba'i:da giddan 'an-t-ta'li:m

What makes it possible to use 'far away from education' in Arabic is the fact that both away and very are translated into the Arabic giddan = very. In English very is an intensifier whereas away is a particle connected with the concept of 'distance'. In Arabic there is no particle to express the concept of 'away'. If an item like far needs to be intensified, Arabic simply uses very far = ba'idan giddan; far away therefore is equal to very far or ba'ida giddan as far as the learner is concerned. ba'ida giddan is translated into far away by the learner thus giving the erroneous citation.

3 The Wrong Use of Adjuncts

c Use of Adjuncts when None are Needed

3c1) You will find all the students very quite good.
(only one intensifier is possible).

3c2) I knew her only during the exam ().

3c3) But friends who are not good enough I cannot keep
them. ().

Cross-sectional Study	=	79
Stage I	=	7
Stage II	=	0
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

The error in (3c1) is baffling. We could not decide which heading to put it under - Duplication of Adjuncts, Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts or Use of Adjuncts when None is Needed. We decided in an arbitrary way to include it under the last heading. Quite and very are degree adverbs and their use is mutually exclusive because, as we have said before, they are almost at two opposite ends of a scale. Does the learner mean:

- a) You will find the students quite good
- or
- b) You will find the students very good

we ask ourselves? For 'the students' cannot be 'rather' good and 'very' good at the same time. We think that the error here is twofold. The learner is firstly confused by the meanings of the item quite, and secondly, he commits an error of wrong positioning.

Quite can mean 'entirely' as in quite right, and 'rather' as in I am quite hungry today. On the other hand it could mean 'considerably' as in He is quite good at playing the piano. When it means 'considerably' it collocates with scale words and when it means 'absolutely' it goes with limit words. In Arabic quite in the meaning of 'entirely' is literally fi'lan or bidu:na shak. In this case quite can be translated or paraphrased by 'without doubt'. We think that what the learner really meant to say is:

You will find that, without doubt, the students are very good = sawfa-tagid-T-Talaba fi'lan mumta:zin

He therefore translates fi'lan into quite giving:

You will find the students quite very good

At some point in his language learning career the learner has heard the expression:

He is quite good

meaning

He is considerably good.

Wanting to use an intensifier he produces:

They are very quite good.

Although we are doubtful of this explanation it seems to us the only plausible one.

In (3c2) the error is again due to Arabic and to the learner's ignorance as to the use of only. What he is trying to say is:

I did not know her before I sat for my exams, as it was during the period of our examinations that we first met.

In other words, it was while he was sitting for his exams that he met her. Had the learner used while + an adverbial clause he would have avoided the error. However he uses during to express the idea of period of time. He adds the limiter only before during thinking that this will imply that he had not met the person previous to the examination period. This is a direct translation of the colloquial Arabic:

?abeltaha-bas-fi-fatrit-l-mtiHa:na:t

In (3c3) the adjunct enough is not necessary. Enough, is a word indicating 'sufficiency'. The norm to which it refers can be indicated by a to + infinitive clause

I'm good enough to be your friend.

The viewpoint or standard from which the sufficiency is judged may be expressed by a for phrase

This is good enough for me

Often, where the meaning is obvious, reference to norm and view-point is omitted:

He is good enough (i.e. good enough to be my friend)

This omission however depends on the context. The context of citation (3c3) neither calls for an omission, nor for the adverb enough. What the learner is saying is "if friends aren't good, (in the sense of kind and decent and helpful as friends) I cannot keep them as friends". No norm of sufficiency is implied, and therefore enough is not necessary. Why the learner adds it is because he has not mastered the semantic rules involving the use of this adjunct. He seems to use the item enough to mean 'to a great extent' rather than 'sufficiently'. On the other hand he may be trying to say

If friends aren't sufficiently good then.....

3 The Wrong Use of Adjuncts

d Errors in the use of Miscellaneous Phrases as Adjuncts

- 3d1) As regards the red, it is the colour of love, fire and blood. (as for) (regarding)
- 3d2) In this time Egypt has many problems. (at present).
- 3d3) In the end, I ask God to keep you (lastly).
- 3d4) During later years the country has made progress. (In the last few years).
- 3d5) He asked me to do it another time. (once again).

Cross-sectional Study	=	62
Stage I	=	5
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

Prepositional phrases can function as disjuncts. The phrases with regard to, as to and as for, generally refer to 'reference' and so does the item regarding. In (3d1) the learner wants to say 'as for red it is the colour of love.....etc'. He mixes up the complex prepositions as to and with regard to and brings out the amalgam *as regards to mean as for or regarding. The similarity of denotation and function confuses him. He has not sorted out the prepositional phrases for himself yet.

Citation (3d2) is a direct translation of the L₁

fi ha:dha-l-waqti = (literally in this time).

The expression is equivalent to at present or at the present time in English. The learner is not sophisticated enough in his L₂ usage to use such expressions spontaneously and finds it more easy to use the expressions of his mother tongue. Again in (3d4) the learner translates the expression

fi khilala-s-sanawa:ti-l-?akhira = (literally during the last years)

from Arabic into English. He however confuses last with later. There are two main groups of time-when adverbs, those that identify a point or period of time directly (e.g. now) and those that identify a time indirectly by reference to another point of time understood in the context (e.g. next). Later belongs to the latter group. Following a noun phrase of time measure, later refers to a point of time in the past as measured from the present moment.

e.g. I met him three months later.

Last can be sometimes considered as a general 'ordinal' which can precede or follow ordinal numerals, or expressions like few. The two items are represented in Arabic by one item, ?akhir(m) or

akhira (fem). The learner mixes later and last because of the one-many relation between Arabic and English. What confuses him more is his use of during. During and in are more or less equivalent in meaning, but during tends to be used where the VP denotes a state or habit and so implies duration. This concept of duration confuses the learner and makes him employ during rather than in. He ends up producing

During later years

for

In the last few years

Again the learner's use of another time to mean once again (3d5) is a translation of the Arabic marratin-?ukhra = another time. The word ?ukhra in this sense, like again, denotes 'repetition'. Marra is time. Whereas another time implies the meaning of 'addition' once again implies 'repetition'. The difference between the two is very subtle as seen in:

- 1) He's written another two novels (i.e. two more novels)
- 2) He wrote that essay once again (i.e. repeated it)

In (3d3) a prepositional phrase is used for a listing conjunct last(ly). One can list a series of points by such adverbs as first(ly), next, last(ly) etc. Ending his letter to his parents the learner wants to say

Lastly, I ask God to keep you in his care.

He translates from his mother-tongue the colloquial expression

wa fi-l-?akher ?argu:-min-alla:hi-?an yaHfaDHukum

The translation is evident because he does not add 'in his care' to citation (3d3). While this is necessary in English, it can be dispensed with in Arabic.

4 Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts

- 4a) For to chose a friend you must very well know many people.
- 4b) He only wants children to work.
- 4c) We can find rarely a faithful friend.
- 4d) Do I wherever I go have to see you?
- 4e) I would like also to translate scientific books.
- 4f) They in the countryside do not feel about this problem.
- 4g) I thought of my future hopes that I must realise on the way to the faculty.
- 4h) We went home after a lovely day to eat dinner with great happiness.
- 4i) I spent a nice day with my friends in college at the beach.
- 4j) To my surprise the lorry was not affected only in front of it a little damage.

Cross-sectional Study	=	231
Stage I	=	18
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	6

Discussion and Explanation

Once again the wrong positioning of adjuncts is due to the complexity of this area in English. In any English sentence, there is a striking regularity about the relative position of elements; subject comes first, verb second, while object and complement are in a post-verbal position. The adverbial is less tied. It can appear initially, finally, between subject and verb, and between operator or auxiliary and predication. Although adjuncts are relatively mobile in English, there are rule restrictions that govern this mobility and the positions they can take in sentences. These rules are determined by semantic considerations since one

cannot avoid thinking in terms of modification, though one must not forget that meaning is reflected structurally as well. Furthermore, intonation plays a large part in determining the meaning and position of certain adjuncts. Once the learner has more contact with English, he realises that the adverbial is very mobile. His experience of adjuncts however is not enough for him to use them all correctly and in the correct position. He overgeneralises the mobility potential of all English adjuncts on the basis of his experience with some of them only, and presumes that adjuncts can occur in almost any part of the sentence. What encourages him in this faulty assumption is the fact that he reads sentences like the following:

- a) She gradually began to realise the difficulty of the situation.
- b) Gradually, she began to realise the difficulty of the situation.
- c) She began to gradually realise the difficulty of the situation.
- d) She began to realise the difficulty of the situation gradually.

In the above examples, the different positioning of the adjunct does not significantly affect the basic meaning of the sentence. But consider:

- e) He wisely refused to spend his money.⁽¹⁾
- and
- f) He refused to spend his money wisely.

Sentence (e) could be paraphrased as

'He refused to spend his money and that was wise',

while sentence (f) could be paraphrased as

(1) Christophersen and Sandved, (1969), p. 167

'He refused to spend his money in a wise way'.

Here, there is a considerable difference in meaning between the two sentences achieved by the change of position of the adjunct.

Adjuncts fall into different classes and sub-classes, and this can also have restrictions on their occurrence or non-occurrence in certain positions. The grammar of a sentence, as well as its meaning, may be affected by the position of the adjunct. One cannot place an adjunct like well in mid-position in some sentences for example. We can say

g) You speak English well

but

h) *You well speak English

is unacceptable.⁽¹⁾ The limitations on the positioning of adjuncts are therefore bound up with relevant grammatical and semantic features that have to be learnt well. At this point it is worthwhile looking at what learners are actually taught about the positions of adjuncts in English sentences.

Elementary textbook writers usually keep silent about the position of the adverbials, and after reading Greenbaum and Jacobson, one appreciates their silence. Mostly, however, textbooks have the following to say about adverbial positions:

"A great number of adverbs tell us one of three things about the verb:

- 1) How the action took place (Manner): quickly, well, in ink.
- 2) Where the action took place (Place): today, outside, at home.
- 3) When the action took place (Time): today, then, last year.

In a normal sentence these adverbs would appear in this same order:

(1) See Citation (4a)

Example: He spoke well at the debate this morning.
The adverb of time can also come at the beginning
of a sentence instead of at the end. This gives it
a little more emphasis, but is a good place to put
it if we want to avoid a long tail of adverbs. With
verbs of movement the adverb of place (or direction)
becomes a kind of object, and so comes immediately
after the verb, before any adverbs of manner.

Example: He went to the station by taxi.

It is usual to put more exact expressions before
more general ones.

Example: He was born at six o'clock on a cold
December morning in the year 1850" (1)

Allen then follows this explanation by an exercise headed:

"Put the given adverbs in their correct places".

As far as we are concerned Allen has done well in comparison
with the writers of the Living English Series who mention nothing
about adjunct positioning at all, and hope that the learner will
get to know the correct positions through drill and contact with
the language. They do not realise, that left to himself, the
learner will generally try to simplify complicated areas of the
L₂ for himself. Contact with the L₂ shows him that the adjunct
is mobile. An overgeneralisation of the mobility of all adjuncts
makes their use simple for him and lessens his linguistic load
tremendously. The danger is that the incorrect assumption may
create the wrong rules for the use of adjuncts, which can become
fossilized if communication is not seriously hampered.

Quirk et al⁽²⁾ distinguish four positions of adverbials, in
particular for the declarative form of the clause.

- 1) Initial position before the subject.
- 2) Medial position I (a) immediately before the operator
or (b) between two auxiliaries.
- 3) Medial position II (a) immediately before the verb, or (b)
before the complement in intensive 'be' clauses.

(1) Allen, W.S., (1958), p. 10

(2) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 426

- 4) End position (a) after an intransitive verb, (b) after an object or complement.

They explain that clauses and most prepositional phrases normally occur in end position though initial position is not uncommon. Medial positions are rare for clauses and most prepositional phrases, and when they appear in those positions they are regarded as parenthetic. Mobility is highest for adverbs and short prepositional phrases in certain functions, and medial position I tends to be restricted to these. If there are no auxiliaries present, medial positions I and II are neutralised. If the subject is ellipated, initial position and medial position I (or both medial positions) are neutralised. End-position includes any position between clause elements after the stated elements.

e.g. I paid immediately for the book.
I paid for the book immediately.

According to the Living English Series and the attitude of its writers, the learner is supposed to grasp all the above without being taught it.

Jacobson⁽¹⁾ gives a clearer view of how complicated this area is. According to him adverbials may occupy any of the following positions:

- A. 1) front position
- 2) mid-position
- 3) end-position
- B. 4) pre-position
- 5) post-position
- C 6) adjacent position
- 7) anticipation
- 8) postponement.

He points out that front, mid, and end-positions are not really accurate descriptions of the positions of adverbials in sentences, but:

(1) Jacobson, (1964), p.60

"They only denote the relative positions in relation to other sentence elements, especially the subject and the predicate nucleus" (1)

He says that adjunct positioning is mainly determined by the semantic relationship between the adjuncts and whatever linguistic units they modify. This means a reliance on the governmental features in the English sentence. Therefore

"..... the placement of an adverbial is usually the result of several factors in combination and.....there is a great deal of interrelationship between them..... A factor like prominence for instance, is obviously connected with such factors as meaning, the type of sentence or clause, and the form of the various sentence elements." (2)

Considering, then, the complexity of this area, we fully realise why textbook writers either keep silent about it, or just give the few positions where adjuncts are likely to occur. After all they are not writing a book on adjuncts, but a textbook for learners.

Although adverbs do fall into classes that we may term 'place', 'time' and 'manner', one must not be misled into thinking of this distinction as referring in simple literal terms to 'time' and 'place'. By a process of metaphor, language allows us to map abstract notions on to outlines otherwise concerned with the physical world. In neither

1) at a disadvantage
nor

2) at six o'clock

is there any question of being 'at' a place; but on the basis of sentences like

3) She is at a good school

(1) Ibid

(2) Jacobson, (1964), p.60

and

- 4) Meet me at ten o'clock

we class sentence (1) as 'place', and sentence (2) as 'time' since

- 5) She is at a disadvantage

is grammatical, while

- 6) *She is at six o'clock

is not. This kind of complexity is to do with notions that are 'perceptual' rather than 'real' and are typical of adverbs and prepositions. The learner finds this type of notion very difficult. Also difficult is the fact that there are rule restrictions that govern the distribution of certain adjuncts with certain classes of verbs. Whereas carefully may occur freely with dynamic verbs it cannot occur with static verbs. The positioning of adjuncts is therefore governed by syntactic and semantic features.

It is not therefore surprising that the learner simplifies his linguistic load and this in two ways:

- a) he assumes that when there is one adjunct in the sentence he can place it anywhere.
- b) when there are many adjuncts in a sentence they can be written in any order.

Manner, means and instrument adverbials usually occur in end-position. In the passive however, mid-position is common. Contrast the position of well in the following active and passive sentences

He put the point well

The point was well put

We cannot however have

*He well put the point

One of the syntactic features of well as an adverb of manner (4a) is that it can occur only after the main verb.⁽¹⁾ If it is moved to another position in the sentence, it must function differently for it to be correct, as each adjunct is restricted in its particular function to a particular syntactic position. Consider Greenbaum's example⁽²⁾

- a) Well, David may play chess.
- b) David may well play chess.
- c) David may play chess well.

Well in (a) and (c) may accompany any form of the verb group but this is not true for well in (b). We cannot have

*David well plays chess

Well in (b) co-occurs obligatorily with certain auxiliaries. For the lexical verb play these are restricted to may and might. Well in (c) can serve as a response to an interrogative transformation of the clause introduced by How:

How did David play chess? Well.

This is not true for well in (a) and (b). Well in (c) is restricted to certain verbs and certain classes of verbs.

e.g. *David may be the leader well

Well is one of those adverb adjuncts that modifies a verb. In general these adjuncts can

(1) Greenbaum, (1969), p.4.

(2) Ibid.

- (1) be the focus of clause interrogation

Does he play chess well or does he not play chess well?

- (2) be the focus of clause negation

He doesn't play chess well. He plays chess badly.

- (3) It cannot occur initially in an independent tone unit with a negative clause.

*Well, he does not play chess.

This type of adjunct sub-divides into a number of groups according to the positions they can take. Since well (which is an adjunct that means 'in such a way that the results are good') is a 'manner + result' adverb, and receives the information focus of the sentence, it must occur in end-position and not between auxiliary and verb. This is the error in (4a).

Focusing adjuncts make explicit either that what is being communicated is restricted to a part that is focused, (in which case they are called Restrictive Adjuncts) or that a focused part is an addition, (in which case they are called Additive Adjuncts). Both constitute a fairly limited set of items. Only is a restrictive adjunct which restricts the application of the communication exclusively to the part focused. In spoken English most focusing adjuncts when positioned between the subject and predicate can usually focus on more than one part of the sentence, the part focused being intonationally marked.

e.g. I only saw her today

can mean any of:

- 1) Nobody but I saw her today.
- 2) I did nothing else but see her today.

- 3) I saw her but nobody else today.
- 4) I saw her today but not at any other time.

The meaning depends on where we lay the focus in the sentence. Formal written English is influenced by the traditional teaching that urges the placing of restrictive adjuncts in positions that will avoid ambiguity. The position of only in the following, conveys unambiguously the interpretations required:

Only I saw her today

i.e. a) Nobody but I saw her today.

I saw only her today

i.e. b) I saw her today but nobody else.

What we have said above for the restrictive adjunct only applies also to additive adjuncts like also. The position with additive and restrictive adjuncts can be very confusing for the learner. Only the context can make clear which interpretation is required. Judging by its context, only in citation (4b), focuses on the wrong item thus giving the interpretation

He wants children and not anyone else to work

This is because focusing adjuncts are commonly positioned before the verb when they focus on some part of the predicate other than the verb. What the learner really means however is

The farmer (he) begets children only because he wants them to work in the fields with him.

Thus only is positioned wrongly. In (4e) what the learner means is

I want to translate scientific books in addition to other kinds of books.

Also should therefore take end position. The citation as it stands means

In addition to other activities I would like to translate science books.

Rarely (4c) is a frequency adjunct. More specifically it is a time frequency adjunct which expresses indefinite low frequency. Most frequency adjuncts are normally positioned finally. However adverbs of indefinite frequency can occur at medial positions I and II. Rarely is placed wrongly in (4c) because it should occur between the auxiliary and the main verb so that it may modify find to give the meaning 'the frequency of finding a faithful friend is low'.

Wherever is a simple subordinating conjunction which introduces a clause. It has got the meaning of an adverb of place and should be placed in final position, especially in an interrogative construction like (4d). Again the prepositional phrase functioning as adverbial of place in (4f) should either occur initially or finally. Medial position is occupied by very few place adverbs the most common being here, there and compounds with -where, i.e. elsewhere, everywhere etc. Position adjuncts normally indicate the place of the referent of the subject and if present, of the object. In such cases, the position adjunct is restricted to end-position.⁽¹⁾ This is the case in (4f).

In (4g) the position of the place adjunct changes the meaning of the sentence and renders it ridiculous. What the learner means is

On the way to the faculty I thought of my future hopes which I want to realise.

By placing the adjunct in final position the meaning is changed into

I must realise my future hopes on my way to the faculty and at no other time.(2)

(1) Quirk et al, (1972) p. 481

(2) C.f. section 6 on the Dangling Adjunct.

This of course is ridiculous. The difference between the two meanings is that between a sentence modifier and an adverbial that modifies a verb only. Whereas in citation (4g) the adjunct in final position modifies the verb realise, if it had been placed initially followed by a comma it would have modified the whole sentence as it is meant to do.

The error in (4h), (4i) and (4j) is that of piling prepositional phrase adjuncts upon one another in any order in the sentence. The result is that one adjunct may modify the wrong part of the sentence and the meaning is either blurred or made nonsensical. e.g. in (4i) what the learner means is

'I spent a nice day with my college friends at the beach'.

By using two place adjuncts one after the other, the meaning becomes unclear.

Generally, when more than one adverb proper occurs in a clause, there are certain restrictions on the order in which they can appear so that the sentence may make sense. It is however extremely difficult to give rules for all contexts and this renders the learner's task more difficult.

5 Duplication of Adjuncts

- 5a) In upper Egypt, the people there do so for the sake of revenge.
- 5b) A good friendship makes me so much happy.
- 5c) Indeed, no doubt every person will be happy when he achieves his hopes.
- 5d) It is because of overpopulation that is why there is poverty.
- 5e) I had not seen her since two months ago.
- 5f) During the school year time I was always busy studying.
- 5g) The present problem nowadays is the problem of over-population.

Cross-sectional Study	=	273
Stage I	=	23
Stage II	=	18
Stage III	=	10

Discussion and Explanation

The errors involving time in this section are mainly due to the complexity of English where the rules governing the distribution of adverbials with certain verbs and tenses are concerned. The learner has to sub-categorise verbs, know the notions behind the several tenses, consider aspect and the various auxiliaries, and then choose the appropriate adverbial. He grapples with the many restriction rules and fails to apply them. The confusion he is in results sometimes in the duplication of adjuncts, and the total effect produced is one of tautology. The learner's main error is that he applies rules that are mutually exclusive. Where duplication of adverbials of place are concerned the learner may be stressing the denotations of the adjuncts through duplication. We shall examine each error separately and try to find out the reason for the duplication of adjuncts.

There is a word denoting place-relationship. Some place-relators can function as pro-forms for place adjuncts, principally here (= at this place), and there (= at that place, to that place). The learner reads sentences like

My parents have been to Paris. I am going there in spring.

In sentences like the above, there substitutes for to Paris. However the item there substitutes for to Paris correctly because it is in a separate sentence. Had it been in the same sentence it would have been incorrect. The learner wants to stress the denotation of the place-adjunct 'in upper Egypt' in (5a) and so he produces the place-relater there as a pro-form for it. The error lies in that pro-forms occur in different clauses for place adjuncts

and both cannot be in the same clause. The result of his error is a duplication of adjuncts.

So is an intensifier used to modify either adjectives or adverbs. The learner comes across sentences like

- a) He did it so much better than our gardener, that I gave him the job.

On this basis he produces

- (5b) A good friendship makes me so much happy.

He does not realise that in sentences like (a) it is the comparative of both adjectives and adverbs, whether inflected or periphrastic, that can be premodified by amplifying intensifiers and sometimes by additional intensifiers of these intensifiers. We can say in English

so very very much better
but not
*so very very much good

The learner's error therefore is in his use of the positive degree of happy. On the other hand he couldn't have used 'so much happier than' because he had no standard of comparison implied in the meaning of his statement in (5b). He therefore should have used the intensifier very before happy, to give the correct meaning of his sentence. However, he wanted to stress the degree of his happiness and ended up by producing two adjuncts.

Some attitudinal disjuncts express the speaker's conviction of the truth or reality of what he is stating, e.g. certainly, indeed and undoubtedly. When these are positioned next to an item and not separated by punctuation in written English, they appear to focus that particular item to such an extent that they are felt to be similar to intensifiers like very, completely and thoroughly.

Indeed is a disjunct when it is at the beginning of a clause, even if there are no commas after it, and elsewhere in the clause when it is enclosed in a pair of commas.⁽¹⁾ Sometimes when it is at the beginning of a clause with a zero Subject then there may be ambiguity between the two functions of disjunct and intensifier of indeed, since there is no indication whether the word is to be read as bearing the nuclear tone or not. Indeed differs from other intensifiers in being post-positioned after items it is intensifying, usually in collocation with a preceding very, so or exclamatory how.

e.g. It depends very much indeed on his attitude.

The disjunct indeed expresses conviction and at the same time denotes that there is a confirmation, corroboration or reinforcement of a previous statement. The learner in (5c) wants to say

There is no doubt indeed that every person is happy if/when he realises his hopes.

The difficulty of the item indeed and its use both as disjunct and intensifier confuses him. He should have used indeed as an intensifier but he used it as a disjunct with another disjunct no doubt. What he intended by using it was intensification. At the same time he wants to denote his conviction that his statement is true. In between, he gets mixed up. It is not a very easy thing not to get mixed up in such cases anyway, as Greenbaum⁽²⁾ shows from his analysis of indeed as disjunct and intensifier.

In (5d) the learner wants to say 'because of overpopulation there is poverty in Egypt. 'Because-clauses' are very close to adjuncts. This is evident in the ability of 'because-clauses' to be the focus of cleft sentences;

e.g. It is because of the weather that I didn't go out.

(1) Greenbaum, S., (1969), p.132

(2) Greenbaum, S., (1969, pp. 127-132

'Because-clauses' are clauses of 'reason' or 'cause' and not of 'result'. The 'result' element in a 'because-clause' is introduced by a 'that-clause'. It is interesting that the 'result' relation is the converse of that of 'cause', so that the same meaning can be expressed by reversing the subordinate and superordinate clause relation and using a conjunction such as because:

e.g. He flew into a range because I took no notice of him.

These notions of 'cause' and 'result' tied to the use of because confuse the learner. After using that he adds another 'cause' element giving that is why and thinks that he is actually adding a 'result' element. However why denotes reason and not 'result'. The learner does not feel that the 'that-clause' is enough to express and denote result. By adding that is why he ends up with an error of duplication of adjuncts rather than a clarification of his meaning in the sentence.

Notions of time-when are expressed either by tense, aspect and auxiliaries in the verb phrase, or by adverbials. The adverbials can be of a number of types

e.g. I visited them (yesterday
(on Sunday
(a week ago
(last week

Since tense relates the meaning of the verb to a time scale, a verb may have different meanings. It can either refer to an event or to a state. This distinction is a conceptual rather than a real distinction; furthermore the same verb can change from one category to another, and the distinction is not always clear. This has a bearing on the choice of adverbials in sentences. We often specify 'state' meaning by adding an adverbial of duration. (e.g. for twenty years). We specify 'habit' (which combines 'event' meaning with 'state' meaning as a 'habit', in a sense, and is a 'state' consisting of a series of 'events') by adding an adverbial

of frequency or an adverbial of duration. Most types of meaning can be clarified by an adverbial of 'time-when'.

Ago following a noun-phrase of time measure refers to a point of time in the past as measured from the present moment.

e.g. We met a month ago

It is an adverb used for measuring time and has no equivalent in Arabic. When the notion of measuring time needs to be expressed in Arabic in sentences such as

We met a month ago

the preposition mundhu = since is used.

a) qa:baltuhu-mundhu-shahrin = We met a month ago

It is also possible to say in Arabic

b) qa:baltuhu-min-shahrin-maDa: = We met a month ago

where maDa: means 'has gone by'. The fact that one item in Arabic is used for both ago and since is not the cause of an error like the duplication of adjuncts in (5e). Rather the notions of time that the adverb since can be used to convey, confuses him. Since can denote either time-when or duration according to the type of verb meaning in the sentence in which it is used. This means that the learner has to make a choice between the use of since denoting 'period of time' and the use of since denoting 'duration of time'. This involves the learner with tense. The past tense represents a point or period of time which finished in the past. Ago is one of the adverbials in English that is used only with the past tense

e.g. I saw him a month ago.

The present perfect indicates a period leading up to present, or recent past time. Since is an adverbial that is typically used with

the present perfect tense.

e.g. I haven't seen him since last week

The use of since and ago is therefore mutually exclusive. Since expressing 'duration' has the meaning of (from a point X up to a point Y)

e.g. He's lived here since he was born
(i.e. from his birth up to now)

As a time-when adverb it can identify a time indirectly, by reference to another point of time understood in the context.

e.g. We met last month, but I haven't seen him since
(i.e. since that time).

It can also measure time between periods

e.g. I've seen him twice since last August (i.e. between August and now)

The learner, in (5e), wants to say

I had not seen her for two months

He uses since instead of for because the implication of 'duration of time' can be conveyed by both since and for. Then he is also confused by the notions of time in English. Whereas ago implies 'gone by' or 'past' since implies 'at some or any point in the period between a point of time X and that which is present'. To the learner the months have passed already and so he adds ago to his sentence which he thinks conveys the meaning

I have not seen her for two months

The phrase of duration 'during my school year' in (5f) indicates that the learner was studying hard as long as the period of the academic year lasted. The item time as used here means a period considered with reference to its events or prevailing conditions, i.e. 'school year' time. The mutual exclusiveness of the item time and the phrase of duration functioning as adjunct is lost on the learner. He feels he has to add the item time to specify the period of the academic year, but we cannot explain why. Perhaps the learner feels that reduplication or the piling up of quasi-synonyms gives the effect of stress, intensification and 'clarity'. Again the 'present' problem in (5g) means 'the problem at the present time'. 'The problem nowadays' also means 'the problem at the present time'. The learner adds nowadays to somehow reinforce the meaning of 'the present problem' or, to relate it to the specific period of 'now'.

The duplication of adjuncts points to two things:

- 1) The learner thinks that by using two adjuncts which are close in denotation he can stress the denotation of the adjunct or intensify it.
- 2) He sometimes feels that he hasn't expressed himself well enough by his using one adjunct only and so uses a similar adjunct to clarify his sentence meaning. This results in an error of duplication.

6 The Dangling Modifier

- 6a) After a while we went to the police station which were able to sieze the three men and we got back our money.
- 6b) We arrived to Alexandria early and being a sunny day, we went to the beach.
- 6c) A new year started after finishing the secondary stage and at first I was very excited to go to university.
- 6d) It is important in the great conferences and meetings to have translators so that they may understand each other.
- 6e) I wanted to be a doctor but the Faculty of Medicine which is 80% or more was more than I had in my average.
- 6f) This beautiful decoration created for me a happy atmosphere because my heart was happy by looking at those beautiful colours.
- 6g) Every man who does any work he must get his full right whatever it is in society which is not neglect him.
- 6h) By working scientifically progress is made.
- 6i) When we see new inventions we can teach people which will help our country to progress and many customs we take from them which enable us to get rid of bad habits which hinder our progress.

Cross-sectional Study	=	296
Stage I	=	43
Stage II	=	19
Stage III	=	6

Discussion and Explanation

The errors included in this section are those the learner tends to make while he is experimenting with complex sentence structure. When reading the learner's sentences, one gets the impression that he has not ordered his ideas properly before he began writing. He

seems to begin with one idea and then add on several others that come into his mind as he is writing, without giving any consideration to the structural unity of the matrix sentence, and the ordering of the parts within the whole. This is because the learner is trying his hand at longer constructions and ^{he} being inadequately prepared and lacking sensitivity for sentence structure in the foreign language, the final effect he achieves is one of rambling unordered confusion. When the teacher first reads these sentences he or she gets the feeling that something is wrong somewhere because the parts of the sentence do not hang well together. It is only after reading these sentences several times that he or she can pinpoint exactly in which detail the learner has gone wrong.

By its very nature, this is a problem that is not due to L₁ interference. It is rather a typical developmental problem connected with the learner's psychology of learning. It comes as a result of inadequate preparation for writing complex sentences. The learner has no sensitivity for sentence structure. He has an idea, and while writing it down he gets another one and throws it in, or tacks it on to the end of his sentence, and then continues with what he had to say at first, without much thought to sentence structure.

In the early stages of language learning the Egyptian learner is not given any written work. After about eighteen months of English he is taught to complete sentences through exercises like the following:⁽¹⁾

- "Complete the following sentences. Follow the example.
Example: I want an apron for the cooking lesson.
1. The teacher wants a map for.....
2. My sister wants a piece of material for
3. I want a new notebook for....."

He is also asked to answer questions on certain reading passages in short sentences.⁽²⁾ In the third year of English he is given

(1) Living English, Book II, Lesson 20, pp. 38-39

(2) Ibid, Lesson 72, pp. 142-143

guide words and asked to make sentences using them.⁽¹⁾ The learner's free writing and production of paragraphs remains controlled therefore until he starts secondary school, and we find that only in Book IV of the Living English Series⁽²⁾ is actual free composition writing ever attempted. By then however, the learner is used to short pattern-type sentences and he tends to use these for a long time afterwards. For this reason one finds that most of the compositions in the cross-sectional study are of the type exemplified below.

"My dear family,

I send all my love and best wishes to you. I hope that you are in a good health. I am happy in Alexandria. Yesterday I had spent a very interesting day on the beach with my friends. I swim in the morning. In afternoon I took a sun bath, and I played football. In the night I went to the cinema and saw a good film. I wish you are with me to enjoy this beautiful day at the beach.

Yours faithfully
.....X "

The compositions are therefore made up of short, curt sentences and the narrative is not a narrative at all, but a list of events. The reader of such compositions is left quite disappointed with the learner's style which lacks smoothness and has a curt jerky effect. Moreover the compositions are monotonous and structurally unsophisticated being mostly made up of simple sentences. The learner himself feels that if he writes short sentences formed on patterns that he has learned well, he is less likely to fall into error. This, in fact, is the idea behind teaching short sentences. But writing short sentences only, merely reduces the risk of constructional errors and does not eliminate them completely. A few more errors in a composition whose style is more fluent and smooth is better than the elementary style used by the learner in the cross-sectional study.

We find that the compositions of the specialists in Stages I, II and III are more smooth where style is concerned. This also

(1) Living English, Book III, Lesson 34, pp. 93-94

(2) Living English, Book IV, Lesson 4, p.15

applies to the learners of the cross-sectional study who have had more contact with English. These learners are more adventurous while writing and employ complex sentences and structures, which expose them to a greater risk of making constructional errors. In spite of these errors their style is more fluent and one feels that through trial and error they will eventually get the feel of sentence unity and good sentence balancing. More involved, hypotactic, balanced sentences will come with greater maturity, greater contact with the L₂ and a higher degree of overall competence.

Looking at the errors in (6a) to (6i) we find that they are mostly connected with modification. Modifiers are generally divided into two kinds, noun modifiers and sentence modifiers. Modifiers can be generated from kernel sentences by just three transformation rules - T-rel, T-del (or T-del-ing) and T-NM or T-SM.⁽¹⁾ T-rel makes relative clauses from base sentences; T-del shortens these to participial phrases, adverbials, adjectives and the like, T-NM shifts some of the modifiers to the position before the noun for noun modification; T-SM, parallel to T-NM, shifts the modifier optionally to the beginning of the sentence. It is T-NM and T-SM that automatically divide modifiers into noun modifiers and sentence modifiers. At this point one must mention punctuation. All sentence modifiers generated in this way are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, no matter what position they occupy; noun modifiers are not set off by punctuation marks. This, it must be remembered, is a very general rule. Obviously speakers of English do not consciously go through the steps T-rel, T-del, and T-SM when producing sentence modifiers. But as speakers of the language, they somehow know these rules and the relationships they represent. The learner however seems not to have mastered these rules yet.

Some sentence modifiers come from insert sentences which have the same subject as the matrix sentence.

(1) a) T-rel = transformation rule for relative clauses
b) T-del = transformation deletion rule.
c) T-NM = transformation rule for noun modifiers.
d) T-SM = transformation rule for sentence modifiers.

e.g. a) Thinking John asleep, Jim sneaked out.

The subject of both the matrix and the insert sentence here is Jim.
The sentence modifier

Thinking John asleep

comes from

Jim thought John was asleep

The matrix sentence is

Jim sneaked out

If in sentences of type (a), the subject of both matrix and insert sentences happens not to be the same, the result is ungrammatical. If we analyse (6b) we get the following:

Matrix sentence = (We arrived in (to) Alexandria early and) we went to the beach.

The insert sentence = *We were a sunny day
This gives us

We arrived to Alexandria early and being a sunny day, we went to the beach.

This is obviously a case of what Roberts⁽¹⁾ has called the 'dangling modifier'. The modifier 'dangles' because the insert sentence should be

It was a sunny day.

The subject (it) is not the same subject as that of the matrix

(1) Roberts, P., (1969), Lesson 38, pp. 330-339

sentence (we). Participial phrases used as modifiers derive from relative clauses. But modification by using a participial phrase does not seem to be the learner's strong point yet.

Most modifying adjuncts dangle because they modify the wrong element in the sentence. In (6a) the relative clause 'which were able to seize the three men' modifies 'the police station'. 'The police station' cannot under any circumstances seize anybody, let alone three men. The underlying insert sentence is

*The police station were able to seize the three men.

But the subject of the kernel sentence (i.e. the police station) cannot be replaced by the 'which' of the relative clause. The relative clause modifies the NP of the matrix string forming with it an expanded noun phrase. The learner has gone wrong because he has missed out the new subject 'the policemen' which should have been added by the use of a conjunction like and.

In (6e) the relative clause

".....which is 80% and more"

modifies the NP "the Faculty of Medicine". The Faculty of Medicine is not 80%. It requires an average of 80% or more for entry. Therefore the underlying insert sentence is not "The Faculty of Medicine, being 80% or more, I....." If we turn the relative clause acting as a sentence modifier into a participial phrase we immediately see where the sentence is ungrammatical. Participial phrases and the relative clauses from which they derive are sentence modifiers only and always if the transformation T-SM can be applied to them. A meaning distinction parallels this structural distinction. A noun modifier specifies or singles out the noun it modifies. A sentence modifier does not specify any noun but just adds another idea to the sentence. Here the learner singled out "the Faculty of Medicine" rather than simply added the idea that this Faculty required a high percentage of marks.

Again in (6d) the translators do not need to understand each other. It is the different people attending the conferences who need to understand each other. The modifier dangles again because it modifies the wrong element in the sentence. In (6c) the new year did not finish the secondary stage, but rather the learner or the writer of the composition did.

Sometimes a more sophisticated use of punctuation would have redeemed the dangling effect slightly. Citation (6f) would have dangled less if 'by looking at those beautiful colours' had been set off by commas. Similarly if 'whatever it is' had been set off by commas in (6g) the dangling effect would have been much less.

Sometimes we find that the insert sentence and the matrix sentence are both grammatical, but the joining of them is ungrammatical. The nature of the matrix puts some restrictions on the sort of insert that can be added to it. In (6h) the error lies in the fact that the insert sentence is

*progress worked scientifically

The solution to the problem of rambling sentences that produce dangling modifiers (particularly (6i)) can be avoided if teachers pay particular attention to the following:

- (a) after the first two years of English instruction, instead of concentrating on the simpler grammatically accurate sentences (which is a negative way of teaching sentence unity), teachers should teach and encourage students to use complex and coordinate sentence structures. However they must be careful to point out the importance of punctuation.
- (b) punctuation should be taught connected to the meaning and grammar of written English.
- (c) introduction of modifiers that include relative clauses, infinitives, participial phrases, etc and pointing out how they function.

- (d) showing them that sentence patterns can be varied and developed (in the correct way) while at the same time pointing out how easily one can make an error if one does not plan the ordering of one's ideas clearly before-hand. Increased contact with L₂, especially through reading, will help in the elimination of dangling modifiers.

CHAPTER VII

THE SENTENCE/CLAUSE LEVEL

The Difference between a Sentence and a Clause

Because modern descriptions of language begin with the primary unit of Sentence(S) and immediately re-write it as a Clause (Cl), we have decided to discuss the remaining relevant errors in our data under the single heading of 'Clause Level' only. However a distinction must be made between the Sentence and the Clause as they are two separate units on a rank scale. A sentence is a complex unit on a different scale from the utterance. The term sentence is used to describe those linguistic sequences that have internal but no external grammatical relations - which are grammatical structures, and self-contained ones.⁽¹⁾

There has been a great deal of attempts at definitions of a sentence⁽²⁾ by linguists, and how much dissatisfaction there has been with all the definitions is indicated by the number of attempts; for there is no need to redefine a term unless one is dissatisfied with one's predecessors' use of it. Basically the trouble with definitions of a sentence is that formal education has made people more conscious of what is a sentence, (i.e. that it is a grammatically self-contained structure in writing) than of what are the corresponding structures in speech. A written sentence is deceptively easy to identify and the danger is that people too readily assume that these written structures are identical with the grammatically self-contained units of speech. Although some styles of spoken English do have structures equivalent to those delineated as sentences in writing, others, very frequently used, do not. An example of spoken English will show the difference⁽³⁾. The (.....) indicate pauses of different lengths.

(1) Strang, B., (1968), p.71

(2) We have mentioned some in Chapter III, pp. 73-74

(3) Quirk & Smith, (1955), p. 182

"he - seemed of course he had that kind of n er
I I'm er I I er I I er er are you northern by any
chance I was going to say that kind of northern.....
er ... scepticism or at least questioning mind
which er ...but of course he would mislead you with
that he er he gave you the impression that he only
er you know he gave you the impression that he was...
sceptical and at "times" sceptical and nothing else
.....but I think he er ... I think he appreciated
the course these you know .. from one or two things
he said when I bumped into him."

The term sentence therefore applies to those structures that are common to written English of a direct, not highly wrought kind, and spoken English of a not too impromptu kind. This is because most is known about these two kinds. Plainly, sentences are meaningful structures made of other, usually, but not necessarily, smaller, meaningful structures. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ tell us that sentences are either simple (containing just one clause) or complex (containing more than one clause). A clause (Cl) is a unit that can be analysed into the elements Subject, Verb, Complement, Object and Adverbial. Thus a complex sentence containing two clauses can be analysed twice over into such elements, once for the independent clause and once for the dependent clause included within the main clause. It is useful to see the distinction between a sentence and a clause, so that it is seen that S(ubject), V(erb), O(bject), C(omplement) and A(dverbial) are elements of clause structure rather than elements of sentence structure.

From Quirk et al's definition a clause is a kind of structure that is sometimes co-extensive with a sentence and sometimes forming part of one. We therefore cannot speak of clauses as constituents of larger structures since a sentence may consist of a single clause. This justifies our procedure of analysing both clauses and sentences, under 'clause level' only.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 342

Differences in Clause Types

The fact that there are different functional as well as formal types of clauses has long been acknowledged. The traditional and old grammarians distinguished declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives. The structuralists decided that such notions as interrogative and imperative had too direct a relationship with semantics, and so they preferred formal criteria for classifying sentences and clauses. Since language is basically a means of communication, one cannot describe it successfully (whether for pedagogic or any other reason) without including both its semantic and formal aspects. We therefore sometimes divide the errors in our data into categories that are semantic and sometimes into formal categories.

Clause Types

The clause types that are found in a simple sentence involve the elements S V O C A. In their simple declarative form they can be:

(1) Type S V C

Mary is (kind
(a secretary

(2) Type S V A

Mary is (there
(at the club

(3) Type S V

The girl was screaming

(4) Type S V O

Somebody hit the girl

(5) Type S V O C

We have proved him (wrong
(a fool

(6) Type S V O A

I put the cake on the table.

(7) Type S V O O

She gives me lovely presents.

The general picture is quite simple; there are

- a) a two-element pattern SV
- b) three three-element patterns SV + (C)
(A)
(O)
- c) three four-element patterns SVO + (C)
(A)
(O)

Cutting across this seven-fold division are the main verb classes: Intransitive (followed by no obligatory element); Intensive (followed by C or A); and Transitive (followed by O). The elements O, C and A are obligatory elements of clause structure in the sense that they are required for the complementation of the verb. Given the use of a particular verb in a particular sense the sentence is incomplete if one of these elements is omitted. Optional adverbials can be added, the adverbial sometimes intervening between two parts of the verb phrase.

So far we have been talking (and very briefly) about a simple sentence which can be analysed as a single clause in terms of subject, verb, complement, object and adverbial. We have not even considered the semantic and syntactic ranges of these clause elements. These however will come out while we are discussing the errors involving clauses and there is no need to repeat them here. We now turn to the complex sentence containing more than one clause. One of the main devices for linking clauses together within the same sentence is that of co-ordination. Co-ordination of clauses is effected through co-ordinators like and, or and but. The two or more clauses that may be co-ordinated are termed conjoins by Quirk et al,⁽¹⁾ to differentiate them from the conjuncts which are a class of adverbials used in linking as we saw in the last chapter. Of the three co-ordinators, and, or and but, and is the least restricted in its role as co-ordinator of clauses and but the most restricted. The second major device for linking clauses together is that of subordination. While co-ordination is a linking

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 560

together of two or more elements of equivalent status and function, subordination is a non-symmetrical relation, holding between two clauses in such a way that one clause is a constituent or part of the other clause. A second difference is that a co-ordinate relationship may have more than two members, while only two clauses enter into the relationship of subordination. Quirk et al⁽¹⁾ call these two clauses the subordinate clause and the superordinate clause, the former being a constituent part of the latter. We know that an independent clause is a clause capable of constituting a simple sentence. A dependent clause is a clause which makes up a grammatical sentence only if subordinate to a further clause. Dependent as well as independent clauses may be co-ordinated.

Dependent clauses may be classified either by structural type i.e. in terms of the elements they themselves contain, or by Function i.e. the structural position they have in the superordinate clause. Analysing by structural type we arrive at three main classes of dependent clause:

- 1) Finite clause i.e. a clause containing a finite verb such as has worked, is seen, saw e.g. because he has worked.....
- 2) Non-finite clause, i.e. a clause containing a non-finite verb such as to work, having worked e.g. (Mary) having worked hard.....
- 3) Verbless clause, i.e. a clause containing no verbal element at all (but nevertheless capable of being analysed in terms of subject, object, complement or adverbial). e.g. Although always helpful, (analysable as subordinator + adverbial + complement).

Dependent clauses may function as subject, object, complement or adverbial in the superordinate clause.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.720.

We shall now turn to the grammatical category of concord which is a category assigned to the clause level and find out how the learner fares in relation to it.

Concord

Concord is broadly defined as the relationship between two grammatical elements such that if one of them contains a particular feature (e.g. plurality) then the other also has to have that feature. The most important type of concord in English is concord of number between subject and verb. The English verb inflections, except for the verb Be, only make a distinction of number in the third person present. Apparent exceptions to the concord rule arise with singular nouns ending with the -s of the plural inflection; e.g. billiards, mathematics etc.), or conversely plural nouns lacking the inflection e.g. cattle, people, etc.

Mathematics is a difficult subject.

Cattle are grazing in the field.

The rule that the verb matches its subject in number may be called the principle of Grammatical Concord. Difficulties over concord arise through conflict between this and two other principles, that of Notional Concord and the principle of Proximity. Notional concord is agreement of verb with subject according to the idea of number rather than the actual presence of the grammatical marker for that idea:

e.g. The government have broken all their promises.⁽¹⁾

The government is treated as a plural idea and so takes the plural verb have and the pronoun their. The principle of proximity denotes agreement of the verb with whatever noun or pronoun closely precedes it, sometimes in preference to agreement with the head-word of the subject,

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p. 360

e.g. One in ten take drugs.

Concord causes trouble for the learner where these principles and their interaction is concerned particularly in three areas:

- 1) where the subject contains a collective noun head.
- 2) co-ordination.
- 3) an indefinite expression of amount.

As well as concord of number, there is concord of person between subject and verb:

e.g. I am your friend (1st person singular concord)
He is ready (3rd person singular concord)

English speakers are often uncertain about the rules of concord. School grammars have insisted rigidly on grammatical concord with the result that people often carry in their minds a conflict between this rule and the rule of notional concord, which tends to prevail over it in colloquial English. It is generally safest for a foreign learner, when in doubt, to obey grammatical concord.

We have already discussed the errors in the agreement between the noun and the pronoun in Chapter III⁽¹⁾. Here we shall discuss the errors made by the learner where number and person concord are concerned.

(1) Chapter III, pp.136-138.

1 Errors in Concord

- 1a) The big countries has a better education system.
- 1b) All the people is not care about technical education.
- 1c) My friends was all there and the sea was quite.
- 1d) Egyptians likes to marry at an early age.
- 1e) The country need workers and technical men.
- 1f) My uncle live in Alexandria and last summer I went there.
- 1g) He go there every year with his children.
- 1h) Normally he don't say anything but this time he was very angry.
- 1i) The study of physics, chemistry and mathematics are difficult but I like them.

Cross-sectional Study	=	1449
Stage I	=	132
Stage II	=	46
Stage III	=	23

Discussion and Explanation

When one first reads the citations in this section, one gets the impression that the learner's mind is in complete chaos where the feature of concord is concerned. A plural subject is matched with a singular verb and a singular subject is matched with a plural verb; a first person singular subject is matched with a third person singular form of the verb and a third person singular subject is matched with a first person singular form of the verb. Moreover we have listed and counted only the instances where overt plural markers like I was/We were, He does/We do etc are concerned. Agreement in cases of I cried/he cried where there is no overt marker cannot be listed and they do not point to whether the learner knows the concord rules or not.

Concord is a difficult learning aspect of English for the foreign learner. Sackeyfio⁽¹⁾ comments that concord is one of the

(1) Sackeyfio, N.A., (1975), Unpublished M.Phil.Thesis, University of London, p.73

most difficult features for the Fante speaker to learn. Duskova⁽¹⁾ notes that the lack of agreement between subject and verb and especially the omission of the third person singular ending -s, is a very persistent error with most Czech learners, and is much more common than would appear from the quantitative data obtained in her study. Bhatia⁽²⁾ includes errors in concord among the five areas that require maximum attention and remedial drills for Indian learners. Richards⁽³⁾ notes errors of the type

She speak German as well

occurring in data analysed for English errors and produced by speakers of Japanese, Chinese, Burmese, French, Maltese and West Indian languages. The feature is therefore difficult for foreign learners with different mother tongues. We totally agree with Duskova that the errors in concord are persistent errors. Although we notice that instances of deviation in Concord are drastically reduced in Stages II and III, still they crop up here and there, now and then, at those later stages.

Sackeyfio explains away the difficulty of the feature of concord for the Fante learner by attributing it to the fact that Fante, unlike English, does not inflect the verb stem for person and number. The Fante learner therefore encounters a new phenomenon and finds it difficult to match verb and subject. This, to our mind does not hold water for Duskova explains that although Czech learners have difficulty with the feature of concord, their mother-tongue inflects the verb for person, number and in some cases gender.⁽¹⁾ We are more in agreement with Duskova because our present research tells us that Egyptians find difficulty with the feature of concord too, although the finite verb in Arabic agrees with its subject in person, number and gender in all cases. Although the Arabic speaking learner is used to matching verbs to subjects, he still finds difficulty.

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- (1) Duskova, L., (1969), 'On Sources of Errors in Foreign Language Learning, IRAL, Vol VII/1, February, p.20
- (2) Bhatia, A.T., (1974), 'An Error Analysis of Students' Compositions' IRAL Vol. XII/4, November, p. 348.
- (3) Richards, J., (1974), p. 173 and p. 183

Moreover we have seen that even the Japanese, the French and the Maltese all make errors of concord and although we neither speak Japanese nor Maltese we definitely know that French has a complicated concord system in its grammar. Moreover it is not only because a feature is not present in the mother-tongue of the learner that this feature can cause interference. Absence of a feature can combine with other sources of error, like over-generalisation for example, to form a source of error composed of two factors. Where the errors in the use of Articles are concerned Duskova writes⁽¹⁾

"Although the difficulty in mastering the uses of the articles is ultimately due to the absence of this grammatical category in Czech, once the learner starts internalizing their system, interference from the other terms of the article system and their functions begins to operate as an additional factor."

As in many other errors we have considered so far, a number of factors can be the cause of error.

By its very nature therefore, and because of the proof we have above, the error cannot be due to mother-tongue interference. Rather Duskova suggests that the source of error may be found in the system of the English verbal personal endings. Since all grammatical persons take the same zero verbal ending except the third person singular in the present tense, which is the only form with a distinctive personal ending (apart from the anomalous am), omission of the -s in the third person singular may be accounted for by the heavy pressure of all the other endingless forms. The endingless form is generalised for all persons just as the form was is generalised for all persons and both numbers in the past tense. Errors in the opposite direction like

1c) The bigger countries has a better education system.

may be explained either as being due to hypercorrection or as being due to generalisation of the third person singular ending for the

(1) Duskova, (1969), p.18

third person plural. Learners are so often corrected when they say 'He go' 'She live' 'He work' that they occasionally over-compensate in an effort to avoid the pitfall. Again the interference here is from the other term of a two term system of English personal endings rather than mother-tongue interference.

The learner uses a generalisation because this saves him the trouble of classification and sub-classification both on the syntactic and the semantic level. The generalisation reduces his linguistic load tremendously because when removing the necessity of concord it relieves him of a considerable effort. Ervin-Tripp⁽¹⁾ suggests that possibly the morphological and syntactic simplifications of second language learners correspond to some simplification common among children (i.e. mother-tongue speakers) learning the same language. Dulay and Burt⁽²⁾ show that amidst their developmental errors the third person inflection is missing in the language of Spanish-speaking first grade children. At least we know that foreign children make the same mistakes as foreign adults. We are not sure yet of mother-tongue speaking children.

The explanation we have given covers errors in citations (1a) to (1h). Citation (1i) is typical of errors in Stage II and mostly Stage III. The learner makes the generalisation only when the subject is separated from the verb by a number of words, or when he is not sure of the subject because distractors in plural forms occur in the same sentence.

(1i) The study of physics, chemistry and mathematics
are difficult.....

The items physics, chemistry and mathematics confuse the learner into adding a plural verb in two ways. Firstly he is not sure whether the three items are the subject, or the item study is the subject. They are nearer the verb and he assumes it is they that function as subject. Secondly these nouns have an s although

(1) Ervin-Tripp, S., (1969), p.33

(2) Dulay, H. and Burt, M., (1974), p.117

they are singular, and are the names of subjects. This confuses the learner and he tends to give them a plural verb because he thinks they are plural nouns. The learner is therefore fooled by the language into making a concord error. Otherwise very few simple concord errors occur at the higher levels.

2 Errors in the Use of the Relative Clause

- 2a) The countries which I visited them are.....
- 2b) The best beach which I like it is Agamy.
- 2c) The man which they killed him had three children and so they are now without him.
- 2d) The tourist who I talked to him was American.

Cross-sectional Study	=	364
Stage I	=	27
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

Chomsky in Aspects says that all English relative clauses are the result of transformations of deep structure sentences that are embedded in Noun Phrases. Under stated conditions, these being that the NP dominated by Complex S is identical with the NP in the sentence that is to be embedded, a relativising TR transforms the latter sentence into a clause.⁽¹⁾ This means that every NP is potentially a complex unit capable of generating, in theory, an infinite number of relative clauses, regardless of its case, since this rule applies to any NP in any part of the S, be it the subject, the object or the possessive. This relativisation rule clearly formalises the recursive aspect of language. The relative clause in English is always an incomplete sentence that may not stand alone. The structural changes that occur in the transformations are:

(1) Jacobs and Rosenbaum, (1968)

- a) linking processes
- b) alteration of the noun in the embedded sentence

The linking element splits into who/which/whom/that/whose. In realising the noun in the embedded sentence, English alters it into the appropriate linking word, and thus the linking word becomes a substitute - a real pronominal replacement for the noun in the Complex S. This means that the linking element is a relative pronoun which combines the grammatical properties and functions of the noun with that of the linking element, so that the 'Wh' word is inflected for subject/object distinction and for human/non-human properties.

In Arabic, a qualifying clause has the same function as an adjective, but does so by means of a structure which could in itself stand as a statement, and which in principle contains within itself a pronoun alluding to the qualified noun. When the qualified term is an undefined noun or undefined NP, the simple juxtaposition of the clause to the qualified noun or phrase is sufficient to indicate the qualifying function of the clause. It can be assumed that if an undefined expression is immediately followed by a sentence structure containing a pronoun which alludes to it, the sentence structure is a qualifying clause to that undefined expression. However, in the type of sentence in which a clause functions as predicate, the theme term is normally defined. Hence

al-waladu ma:ta ?abuhu

is a full statement with al-waladu functioning as theme and ma:ta ?abuhu as its predicate, and means

The boy's father died.

On the other hand

waladu-ma:ta ?abuhu

is not a full statement, but an entity term in which waladu

is a qualified noun and ma:ta ?abuhu a qualifying clause, and it means

a boy whose father died.

The pronoun, within a qualifying clause, which alludes to the qualified noun, is not necessarily overt, but may be implicit in a verb form:

e.g. ragulun HaSala 'ala-l-nagaH = a man who has achieved success.

When the qualified noun or noun phrase is defined, the qualifying clause has exactly the same structure as in the case of an undefined qualified term, but its status as a qualifying clause is marked by the insertion in front of the qualifying clause of a relative pronoun (al-?ism -l-mawSul). The relative pronoun is inflected for number, gender and case. Hence we may get in Arabic:

- 1) HaSalna 'ala ha:dhihi-l-nata:?ig laka = we have achieved these results for you.
- 2) ha:dhihi-l-nata:?ig HaSalna 'alayha: laka = these results we have achieved for you.
- 3) ha:dhihi-l-nata:?ig allati HaSalna 'alayha laka = these results which we have achieved for you.
- 4) ha:dhihi nata:?ig HaSalna 'alayha laka = these are some results we have achieved for you.

The relative pronouns can also function as entity terms in their own right without a preceding noun; the singular forms may have either a personal or a non-personal implication:

e.g. alladhi na'taqidhu = the thing which we believe

Demonstratives can be used both in front of a noun qualified by a relative clause and in front of relative pronouns when used without a qualified noun. If the subject of a subordinate relative clause is other than the noun or pronoun

qualified by it, the relative must be resumed by a personal pronoun:

e.g. al-ragulu-lladhi qataluhu = the man whom they killed (Literally the man who they killed him)

The use of relative pronouns in Arabic is seen within the total context of definition/indefinition. Whereas the Arabic relative clause may stand alone without the introducing relative pronoun as a separate sentence, the English relative clause cannot. The actual relative clause in Arabic is really an adjectival phrase which either begins with a verb or consists variously of a prepositional phrase or an adverb. In colloquial Arabic, the single form illi serves as a sort of coverall phrase and clause marker and it is used indiscriminately for persons as well as things.

The implications of all the above for the learner can be synthesised into the following learning problems:

- 1) the selectional rules governing the who/whom/which alternation; the consideration of the properties of the noun as the determining factors in the choice of the appropriate relative pronoun.

The learner frequently falls into this error although S.A. has number, gender and case inflections for relative pronouns. However the learner may be directly influenced by the colloquial Arabic form illi which is use indiscriminately for persons and things. This however has been discussed earlier in Chapter III, pp. 146.

- 2) the that/zero possibility.
- 3) the recognition that the relative pronoun in English is not only a linker but a true pronoun and that it is obligatory in ^{some} ~~a~~ relative clause.
- 4) if the subject of a subordinate relative clause is other than the noun qualified, then the relative must not be resumed by a personal pronoun in English.

Failure to operate and master the fourth learning point above is responsible for the errors in this section. On the other hand, Richards⁽¹⁾ points out that learners with mixed language backgrounds also make this type of error in the relative clause. He attributes the error to failure in observing the restrictions of existing structures, i.e. application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. In

2a) The countries which I visited them are.....

the learner violates the limitations on subjects in structures with relative pronouns like who/which. This again is a type of generalisation since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation. By analogy with his previous experience of subject + verb + object constructions, he feels that there is something incomplete about

The countries which I visited.....

and so adds an object (them) after the verb, as he has been taught to do elsewhere. As the learner's learning strategies can at best be marginally inferred from his performance data, we cannot attribute the type of error specifically to either L₁ interference or false analogy. We can only say that Richards' source of error seems very plausible to us. The fact that the pronoun object is part of L₁ relative constructions enhances the chance for the learner to fall into error. The division between errors traceable to L₁ and other than L₁ sources is not invariably clear-cut anyway and the error could have its source in either negative transfer or false analogy.

(1) Richards, J., (1974), p.176.

3 Simplex Clauses for Complex Clauses

- 3a) May God help you and finish your degree.
- 3b) The government must tell them that not to have many children and cause overpopulation.
- 3c) If not for this feeling there is no friendship.
- 3d) The student can bring informations to the country to know the improvements in other countries.

Cross-sectional Study	=	411
Stage I	=	38
Stage II	=	15
Stage III	=	11

Discussion and Explanation

In the errors above some aspect of a clause complex has been left out leaving the clause simpler than it should be. In (3a) the linker so that is left out and in its place the conjunction and + the base infinitive have been used for a finite verb. A plausible reason for this is L₁ interference. In colloquial Arabic our citation (3a) would be

rabena yesa:'dek-w-tekhalaSi risaltek

The connector wa = and is used before the verb tekhalaSi = to finish. The learner does not realise that the i attached to the verb is actually the pronoun you used as subject, and that the whole clause tekhalaSi risaltek in Arabic is a complex clause consisting of S + V + O. He omits the subject in English because in some instances, the connector wa is not always a connective⁽¹⁾ and should not be translated as 'and'. In this case wa = so that, and therefore the clause introduced by so that must have a finite verb in English. Instead the learner has used an

(1) See errors involving Circumstantial Clauses, pp. 415-417

infinitive, as in English may is usually followed by that form. The fact that the learner confuses the two English equivalents of wa, so that and and, makes him produce the error. Error (3a) is from the data of the cross-sectional study and at this low level of competence the learner can easily transfer wa into its wrong English counterpart.

Error (3b) can have two possible explanations. We may consider that either:

- 1) the subject and the auxiliary parts of the Vp have been omitted thus causing a clause simplex to be used in place of a more complex clause, in which case the correct form of the sentence should be

The government must tell them that they should not have many children and cause overpopulation.

or

- 2) that a redundant binder, that, has been inserted; the correct form of the sentence should then read

The government must tell them not to have many children and cause overpopulation.

If we take (1) as the explanation then we conclude that, as in our first example, the learner is taking a short cut to communication by simplifying the English clause complex. If we consider (2) then that was added because some teaching exercises play up that as a clause marker, particularly those that deal with direct and indirect speech, and those that deal with 'that-clauses'. This however will be discussed in more detail when we come to errors in noun clauses.

Again error (3c) is very common in the data of the cross-sectional study and stage I. The complex Clause

If it were not for this feeling.....

is reduced to

If not for this feeling.....

In Arabic the form lawla is prefixed to an entity-term with which it constitutes a quasi (conditional) clause, and must be rendered by 'were it not for' or 'if it were not for'. Obviously the learner is again taking a short cut to communication. Again in (3d) the expected 'so that we may know' is truncated to the simpler 'to know' thus causing the ludicrous effect that the country would know about the improvements in other countries. This particular simplification error is not directly traceable to L₁ because Arabic would require the fuller form of the VP with its subject and tense markers. It is therefore an incompetence error. We cannot explain why he makes that error.

4 Reported Speech Errors

- 4a) The police ask me from where the car comes?
- 4b) He said that why was a large country like Egypt very poor?
- 4c) The first question they asked that why we want to study English.
- 4d) She asked, did you learn English before?
- 4e) This shows that how complicated the problem of overpopulation in Egypt is.

Cross-sectional Study	=	298
Stage I	=	37
Stage II	=	18
Stage III	=	16

Discussion and Explanation

Certain types of teaching exercises are part of the English language tradition. These encourage certain generalisations that are applied by the learner in contexts where they are bound to create errors. The one referred to here is mainly the exercise in direct and indirect narration. This exercise asks the learner to change sentences from direct to indirect speech. Sentences of the following pattern figure predominantly in exercise materials:

- a) I said, "It is time to go"
- b) He has told you, "I am coming".

The learner turns them into

- a₁) I said that it was time to go
- b₁) He has told you that he is coming.

What is to be noted is that by its very nature, the exercise plays up that as a binder which marks the onset of reported speech. The exercise in the reverse direction, i.e. from reported to direct narration, also tends to emphasize it.

Exposed to this language data, coupled with text lessons organised around the principle of one thing-at-a-time in which the 'that-clause' is again separately highlighted as a 'teaching' point, the learner seems to induce that 'that' is an invariant clause marker for noun clauses. In terms of relative position of that to other items in the sentence, it implies that the clause after the verb is to be preceded by that. The learner has added that but he fails to carry through the necessary changes appropriate for the switch from direct to indirect speech. When the learner adds to this generalisation another generalised inference, that words like where, how why etc express such concepts as place, manner and reason and are therefore meaning carriers, the result is that his

grammar produces errors (4b), (4c) and (4e). This is probably encouraged by exercises highlighting that when and that what as in, ⁽¹⁾

- c) He reminded me, "When the cat is away, the mice play"
- d) Pilate replied to the Jews, "What I have written, I have written"

which are then turned into

- c₁) He reminded me that when the cat is away the mice play.
- d₁) Pilate replied to the Jews that what he had written he had written.

On this basis, combinations like that how (4b) and (4e), and that why (4c), seem to gain further legitimacy. The direct interrogative in (4b) which functions only as a free clause in English is used here as a bound constituent clause component of the reported clause matrix. This cannot happen in English for, for such clauses to be inserted in a reported clause matrix, they have to undergo certain transformations.

The interesting point about these errors is that Arabic does not reverse the order slots of the subject and verb in the basic statement in order to produce a question form, and if the learner had produced the reported variants without first applying the English interrogative TR, his sentences would have been more in line with English grammatical utterances. As it is, the learner has acquired the English interrogative pattern, applied it first, and then transposed the resulting structure into a super-structure to which it does not belong.

In (4a) the learner omits the that binder, does not use inverted commas but still keeps the subject-verb

(1) Examples from Jain, M.P., (1974), p.200

inversion because he associates it with the question word where. Error (4d) is only a punctuation error. The learner is writing as he speaks, and has even obliged his reader by marking off with commas the points of significant intonation change. He only commits the transcription error of omitting his inverted commas. This incompetence error is very common in the lower stages when the learner is not very familiar with English punctuation.

5 Errors in the Use of the Comparative.

- 5a) The beach we go to is not so beautiful like Agami but we enjoyed. (not as beautiful as).
- 5b) I am more lonely than I look it? (lonelier).
- 5c) I was happy more than a person who has a million pounds.
- 5d) Agami beach is more beautiful from all the other beaches.
- 5e) Marsa Matrouh is beautiful than Agamy even.
- 5f) I like university more better than the school.

Cross-sectional Study	=	316
Stage I	=	21
Stage II	=	1
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

The chief conjunctions expressing positive degree in English are mainly as, as.....as and not so (as).....as. The subordinate clause compares something to the main clause in equal degree. Except in formal English, like is commonly used in place of the conjunction as. The conjunction as serves many purposes, and is therefore

a word of vague meaning. It can be used in adverbial clauses of manner as in

He did as I told him

as well as in clauses expressing positive degree. Like is a word with a more distinctive meaning and, used in adverbial clauses of manner, conveys the same meaning as as,

e.g. They may beat us again like they did last year.

However like cannot be used in a degree clause in place of as. The error in (5a) is that of the learner using like instead of as by analogy, from his use of like instead of as in adverbial clauses of manner. The error is not due to L₁ interference but is an error of interference from another form in English.

The remaining errors in this section however seem to stem from L₁ interference. In Arabic a word pattern ?af'al is often used as an adjective having an intensified sense 'particularly/specially so and so'. Parallel to the simple adjective sari:' = quick, there is ?asra' = quicker or particularly quick. When the sentence contains an entity term used as a standard of comparison expressed by the use of the preposition min which in this case is equivalent to 'in relation to', the intensified adjective is rendered in English by the 'more' or '-er' form:

e.g. kita:b ?aHsan min ha:dha = a better book than this

In colloquial Arabic the preposition min precedes the noun or pronoun with which comparison is made

e.g. ?ilwalad ?akbar m-ilbint = the boy is bigger than the girl.

It is possible to use the positive form of the adjective followed by the particle 'an to give the comparative structure

e.g. ?ilwalad kibi:r 'an ilbint = the boy is bigger than the girl

This latter construction is used regularly with adjectives of colour and physical defect

e.g. ?ilHashish da ?akhDar 'an da = this grass is greener than that.

?aktar = more and ?a?a1 = less are used with those forms especially participles, which have no comparative:

e.g. huwwa mit'allim ?aktar minha = he is more educated than her.

Pronominal suffixes may be added to the comparative form

e.g. ?aghla:hum = the most expensive one

Considering the above colloquial Arabic forms we can see why the learner tends to use the item more + the positive form of the adjective rather than the -er form in (5b). We can also trace (5c) to the Arabic

kunt sa'ida ?aktar min wa:Hid 'anduh milyun gineh

This is literally

(5c) I was happy more than a person who has a million pounds.

The error in (5d) is that of using the preposition from which is equivalent to min and 'an in Arabic instead

of than. As these prepositions are used with Arabic structures of comparison the learner translates them directly into English as from. In (5e) the learner wants to say that the beach at Marsa Matrouh is even more beautiful than Agamy beach. In Arabic the comparative is invariable in form; it is possible to use the positive adjective + the preposition 'an to express comparison. This is what the learner has done, but instead of translating 'an into from he uses the English than as he has been taught to do. In (5f) the learner uses a double comparative. We cannot clearly explain the reason for this but we have a feeling that he thinks that by adding more to better, he is intensifying the extent of his preference for the university. He could have used the positive much before better to imply this, but seeing that better was in the comparative form, he puts much in the comparative as well.

In general, the learner is very confused where comparison is concerned in spite of the fact that he has been taught very carefully the use and forms of positive, comparative and superlative structures.

6 The Use of 'For' in Clauses of Cause

- 6a) A friendship is not easy to make; for a friendship has to last for long.
- 6b) She does not agree with my opinions and for this I do not like her.
- 6c) For I do not know them I cannot be friends with them.

Cross-sectional Study	=	150
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	6

Discussion and Explanation

The chief conjunctions that introduce a clause of cause are because, since, as, when, seeing (that) and for. For is really a co-ordinating conjunction, used to introduce a natural reason or obvious fact. It introduces a clause of cause because its meaning is approximately that of the subordinating conjunction since. Since also implies that the reason is obvious or natural. A since-clause usually precedes the main clause; there is more interest in the main clause for the speaker or hearer than in the reason introduced by since:

e.g. Since he is only a boy, he is not allowed to smoke.

Because seldom comes first in a sentence. There is more interest in the reason introduced by because than in the main clause:

e.g. I can't come just now, because I'm busy writing a thesis.

The Arabic particle that introduces clauses of cause is li?ana. In colloquial Arabic it is 'asha:n.

The learner seems to use for, since and because in free variation where both meaning and position in the sentence are concerned. As regards meaning, many contexts allow this substitution. Where position in the sentence is concerned, there are restrictions. For cannot start a sentence or resume an idea after a semi-colon or colon (6a) and (6c). The learner sees that since usually precedes the main clause as there is more interest in the idea presented in the main clause for the speaker or hearer. By analogy he also uses for in the same position.

In (6b) the learner uses for instead of because. Again this is possible in many contexts. However the reason introduced by the because-clause carries more interest than the idea in the main clause. The learner has done the exact opposite of this in (6b). Instead of writing

Because she does not agree with me I do not like her.

he introduced his main clause by the conjunction for. In this case he is translating from the colloquial Arabic structure

'ashan kida ma baHibahashi = because of this I do not like her.

By substituting for for because, he has made an error; although because may occur in initial position in a sentence for cannot.

7a Errors in the Use of Co-ordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions

7a1) I study hard and I pass my exam and go abroad.

7a2) Though friendship is supposed to be the simplest relation but it is the most subtle kind of relation.

7a3) I want to go in abroad to study English, and when I go there I will go to the university, and after I finish there I come back here so I work well.

Cross-sectional Study	=	152
Stage I	=	11
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

Many conjunctions can introduce clauses of more than one type. In fact any one clause is sometimes to be interpreted differently in different sentences. The clause 'when he left' for example, looks like an adverbial clause of time in the sentence:

The others came when he left

But we could make it function quite differently in different contexts.

- 1) Can you tell me when he left? (noun clause object).
- 2) When he left is still a mystery. (noun clause subject).
- 3) Do you remember the day when he left. (adjective clause).
- 4) How could he know the result when he left before the end? (cause).
- 5) They invited him again even when he left once without saying good bye. (concession).

A conjunction could therefore introduce clauses of different kinds. However whereas in English all the conjunctions (except for the co-ordinating conjunctions and, but and or) introduce subordinate clauses, in Arabic some of the conjunctions like wa = and can be used in certain contexts to introduce subordinate clauses. This is where the learner goes wrong in (7a1). In Arabic the connectives are wa and fa = and, and thumm = and so. However the range of usage of wa and fa is much wider than that of and. The connector wa can serve to mark structural divisions within a sentence and in many cases must not be translated as and. It could introduce a clause of purpose replacing in order that in colloquial Arabic. Thus (7a1)

I study and I pass my exam and go abroad

is literally

?adha:ker 'asha:n 'angaH wa ?assa:fer-il-kha:rig

The conjunction 'ashan (colloquial Arabic so that) is translated by the learner as and, and wa is also translated as and. 'asha:n = fa in SA. fa is translated into and instead of so that. The clause of purpose is therefore introduced by a co-ordinator instead of a subordinating linker in English. This is the result of transfer from L₁, in which the connective fa plays several roles and has several meanings.

Error (7a2) involves the use of mutually exclusive units of clause linkage in English. The English sentence permits the use of though with yet but not the use of both though and but in the same complex sentence. The learner translates wa ma'a dhalik = and yet, but yet, into but. This is because the meaning of ma'a dhalik can be given in another simpler connective, wa lakin. wa lakin = but, nevertheless. The learner chooses but and uses it in the wrong context.

The error in (7a3) is that of starting a new sentence with and. Although this is possible in English, not every context allows it. Arabic however allows the resuming of one's thoughts in sentences and the starting of a sentence with wa = and. Stylistically this does not jar in Arabic. In English, the style of the learner appears very immature and childish.

7b Errors in Conditioning

7b1) Travel is very useful for everybody that all student must travel outside.

7b2) Nowadays overpopulation is so bad for
Egypt we are poorer and poorer.

7b3) I study very hard that I pass my exam.

7b4) I was happy that I couldn't speak.

Cross-sectional Study	=	196
Stage I	=	22
Stage II	=	15
Stage III	=	8

Discussion and Explanation

The learner's conditioning errors seem to be

- 1) his use of very instead of so.
- 2) his not following so by that.
- 3) his use of very, for the so/much element in the conditioning clause.

In (7b1) and (7b4) the learner knows that to effect conditioning he has to use the English conditioning that. Instead of using so with that he uses instead the intensifier very. Although this is not possible in English, the learner is confused by the functions of the items so, very and too (as we have explained in Chapter VII pp. 348-351) where they are used with an adjective. Wanting to use an intensifier for intensification purposes in the adjectival phrase he chooses very. This is because as far as he is concerned too, so and very can be used interchangeably to convey the same meaning.

In (7b2) the learner is confused by another form in English. In familiar speech, stress is applied to the adverb so to give exclamatory force to a statement. This is also done with the determiner such

e.g. He's such a nice man!

She was so good to me!

The learner hears such statements and realises that they are stressed for emphasis. He also writes and hears structures of the type:

It was so good I ate it all

Here the conditioning that is omitted. He is therefore confused and uses so without that as he has done in (7b2) when he should use a so.....that construction.

We suspect that (7b4) comes from an L₁ construction. In colloquial Arabic there is no equivalent to a so.....that construction. Instead a phrase meaning 'to such a degree' is used. Hence:

I was so happy that I couldn't speak

would be

kunt sa'eeda lidarraga ?ini ma ?idirrtish ?atkalle

This is literally:

I was happy (to such a degree) that I couldn't speak

The learner omits the bracketed phrase above for some reason that we cannot explain.

8 Errors in the Verb 'to be'

- 8a) I know that I responsible for not getting the high average.
- 8b) The beach beautiful and the sun quite.
- 8c) In Alexandria many beaches with soft sand and blue sea.

Cross-sectional Study	=	203
Stage I	=	16
Stage II	=	7
Stage III	=	7

Discussion and Explanation

Chomsky (1957) states that structural autonomy in languages differ. In Arabic these are two kinds of sentence structures, the nominal or thematic sentence and the verbal sentence. The nominal sentence represents the simplest form of an Arabic sentence and always starts with a noun. It may consist of two words each of which does not express 'a complete thought' if it stands alone. Yet it is made up of subject and predicate and is a complete sentence. It is called in Arabic

al mubtada? wa-l-khabar

The subject is a noun and the predicate may be:

- a) an adjective
- b) a noun or pronoun or demonstrative
- c) an adverb
- d) a prepositional phrase

e.g. 1) al Ta'amu Ha:r = The food is hot

In a nominal sentence, the verb to be in the present tense is not expressed but rather understood. Thus a literal translation of sentence (1) above would be:

The food hot.

Moreover the Arabic equivalent of the English auxiliary verb Be is not required in nominal sentences as they need not have a copula of any sort. In English every

sentence requires a finite verb of some sort and a sentence such as

The food hot

is considered ungrammatical. Thus transfer of notions of autonomy from language to language causes the errors in this section.

We have said before in Chapter III that a qualifying adjective carries the same mark of definition or indefiniteness as the noun which it qualifies. This principle is specially important because if an adjective followed by a defined noun does not have the article, it ceases to be a qualifier and becomes a predicate, Whereas

ha:dha-l-kitabu-l-gadi:d = this new book

is an entity term phrase,

ha:dha-l-kitabu gadi:d

is a complete sentence conveying the statement

This book is new.

Again the verb to be is not expressed here. This is the source of error (8b).

Similarly, an undefined entity term placed after a defined one is a predicate, and the two together constitute a statement.

ha:dha waladun = this is a boy

It is precisely the transition from defined to undefined status that marks the boundary between the entity term

which is the theme under discussion, and the predicate stating what it is. If a noun following a demonstrative is defined in any other way than by itself having the article (e.g. by being a noun of single application and so defined by its own nature), or by being annexed to a defined entity term, then this too is a predicate:

e.g. ha:dhihi Zaynab = this is Zaynab (a girl)
ha:dha mudarris-l-Hisa:b = this is the
mathematics' teacher.

Arabic usage does not permit pronouns to receive qualifiers of any kind. An adjective or an entity term, irrespective of whether defined or undefined, which follows a pronoun is a predicate. Thus

I am responsible (8a)
is
?ana mas?u:l (literally I responsible)

When the theme of a statement is an undefined noun and its predicate is a prepositional phrase, the order of the two elements is reversed, the prepositional phrase coming first in the sentence. Thus

8c) In Alexandria many beaches.....
is
fi-l-?askandariya shawati? kathi:ra
i.e.

There are many beaches in Alexandria.

The learner of the cross-sectional study and Stage I regular falls into this error which also occurs in Stages 11 and 111.

9 Errors in the Transitivity System

a Repetition of Subject

9a1) This man he the one who will teach us English grammar.

9a2) The woman she is the responsible one that takes care of the children and the home and also she goes to work.

9a3) The Agamy beach it is the most beautiful.

Cross-sectional Study	=	103
Stage I	=	10
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The errors in this section are again due to the structure of the thematic sentence in the L₁. In the last section we said that an adjective or entity term which follows a pronoun is a predicate irrespective of whether defined or undefined.

e.g. huwa Ta:lib = he is a student
huwa-l-Ta:lib = he is the student

Statements of this kind provide a mechanism for the expression of communications involving a defined predicate. The theme is followed by a statement cast in the form of pronoun plus predicate.

e.g. Muhammad huwa-l-Ta:lib = literally, Muhammad, he is the student i.e. Muhammad is the student.

Thus in (9a2)

The woman she is the responsible one.....

the learner translates

al-marr?a hiya-l-mas?u:la 'an

literally, to give

the woman she is the responsible one.

The learner repeats the pronoun hiya = she, which refers back to the subject and thus creates an error of using a double subject. In Arabic if the pronoun in such a sentence is omitted, the structure would give:

The responsible woman.....

Again in (9a3) the learner is translating

sha:ti?-il-'agami huwwa ?agmal -sh-shawati?

We notice that the repetition of the subject can occur in English conversation, but in written English it is not permitted. Perhaps because of the fact that it does occur in spoken English this developmental error of negative transfer remains part of the learner's inter-language until Stage III.

9b Omission of Subject

- 9b1) I know is not going to be easy for me in the Faculty of Science but.....
- 9b2) Is alright I have money with me until I come back to you dear parents.
- 9b3) I do not speak well English but is going to be better after the university learn me.

Cross-sectional Study	=	114
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

It is interesting that in the errors above, the subject that has been omitted is the pronoun it before the verb is. Also interesting is the fact that all the citations come from the cross-sectional study and Stage I. It seems that the learner at this low level of competence does not quite realise that it's and is have different realisations in print. His spoken English is often no better in distinguishing the two forms, as most of the time he pronounces it's as is.

There are two main factors that contribute to the occurrence of this error. The first one is that some teaching methods encourage this type of error. The teaching of the abbreviated forms such as 'I'm', 'it's', 'he's' and 'she's' very early on in a language course, is done in the belief that the closer one is to teaching the spoken informal language the less the foreign learner's L₂ will appear to be stilted. This is fair enough. However teaching such forms too early on in the course may cause the occurrence of the above errors. One must allow the learner to internalise the forms of the verb to be and its respective subjects in the uncontracted form, before one causes learning indigestion to take place as is the case above.

The second cause is that of faulty pronunciation. This mispronunciation is not a unit problem but a distribution problem. In Arabic there are five syllable types, CV, CVC, CVV, CVVC, and CVCC. We notice that two consonants can occur in final position in Arabic e.g. katabt. This however belongs to colloquial Arabic. In SA short vowels are inserted between consonants and if a word ends with a vowelless consonant, a vowel must be inserted before the next word if it begins with a consonant, to facilitate liaison. In most cases this is i

e.g. qadi-n-nTalaqa

If the phone /ts/ occurs in Arabic it usually has a vowel inserted between the two consonants, as words are derived from trilateral consonantal roots and vowel patterns must be added to them. /ts/ never occurs at final word boundary in Arabic and therefore the learner finds its occurrence in final position in the English word difficult to produce. He solves the pronunciation problem by reducing the final cluster into a VC structure, thus producing /is/ instead of /its/. The simplified mispronunciation is then converted into the incorrect written form is, thus leaving us with the above errors. This explanation, that it is the faulty pronunciation that is affecting the learner's written language is confirmed when we consider that the Arabic translations of the above citations require an obligatory subject marker in the verb phrases here. Both L₁ and L₂ have therefore identical structures and yet the learner produces an ungrammatical pattern in both languages.

9c) Object/Goal Omission

9c1) We went to the Montaza beach and we enjoyed.

9c2) It was a very interesting book and I read all.

9c3) We caught fishes and we cooked and ate all.

Cross-sectional Study	=	111
Stage I	=	8
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

In simplified grammars and text-books in general, verbs are neatly divided into those that are transitive and therefore always require an object in the VP, and those that are intransitive and do not require any specified

objects in the VP. This comparatively older view of grammar is maintained in the earlier versions of transformational analysis. Owen Thomas⁽¹⁾ divides English verbs into four categories:

- a) be
- b) V₁ (intransitive)
- c) Vt (transitive)
- d) Vc (copulative).

This division provided a workable classificatory framework of basic data which could be fed into the transformational section of the grammar so that certain surface structure forms could be generated by the application of transformations. Chomsky (1965) however, seems to have gone towards the structuralist classification of verbs according to the frames in which they can occur. Here verbs are divided into:

- 1) transitive (always requiring a specified object)
- 2) intransitive (never requiring a specified object)
- 3) neutral (may be used transitively or intransitively)

According to Chomsky, the VP is re-written as a neutral VP in the base component followed by one of a number of optional structures:

```
VP..... (copula - Predicate           )
          ( ( (NP) (prep-phrase) (prep phrase) (manner))
          ( V (S
          ( (Predicate           )
```

The notion of the neutrality of a certain class of verbs is supported by the common occurrence of structures such as

- a) I sing
- b) I sing a song
- c) I eat
- d) I eat chocolate every day

(1) Thomas, (1967), p.35

where the verbs sing and eat function transitively and intransitively.

Verb neutrality makes it very difficult for the linguist (and the teacher) to outline (and teach) the structural conditions that determine when a verb form functions transitively and when it functions intransitively. In a language learning situation the problem is complicated by the different sub-categorisation of verb nuclei in the L₁ and the L₂. The difference in sub-categorisation means that some verbs which are inherently transitive in one language are not so in the other language. In Arabic while some verbs have optional goal specification, their translation in English do not permit their intransitive functioning. This seems to be the problem in (9c1). The verb to enjoy in Arabic is tamatta'a. This verb is either followed by a prepositional phrase,⁽¹⁾ or it can be used intransitively to mean to enjoy oneself. The learner thinks that he is saying

We went to the beach and enjoyed ourselves

His omission of the word ourselves in English produces the error. The error is produced by the confusion of sub-categorisation rules.

On the other hand we think that the errors in (9c2) and (9c3) are a result of the learner's confusion when he sees that some verbs can be used either transitively or intransitively. The learner has come across sentences like

I read last night

I have eaten

as well as sentences like

(1) See Chapter V, p.288

I read a book

I have eaten my lunch

He then thinks that by adding the word all, he has actually put across the idea that he has read all the book and eaten all the fish. This error cannot be the result of negative transfer from L₁ as the pronoun hu added to the end of the word kul is obligatory and represents the object in the Arabic sentence.

We have already discussed in this Chapter, p.400 how an object can be included unnecessarily in a relative clause because in Arabic if the subject of a subordinate relative clause is other than the noun qualified, then the relative must be resumed by a personal pronoun. There is therefore no point in including a section on the use of an object included unnecessarily.

9d Goal Deviations

9d1) We fished many fish and cooked them

9d2) We played many plays and singed songs

9d3) When the car crashed he cried a very loud cry

9d4) I did not have a high average and my father
punish me a severe punishment.

Cross-sectional Study	=	103
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

All Arabic verbs, transitive or intransitive, may take their own infinitive, or one with a meaning related to their own, as an object; the object will then be in

the accusative case. This is what is commonly called the absolute accusative or al maf'u:l al-muTlag in Arabic. This expression is a part of a more complex but typically semitic syntactical phenomenon called Paronomasia. Paronomasia involves repeating the nucleus of the VP in a goal:

e.g. sa:fartu safaran Tawilan = I made a long trip

This is literally

I journeyed a long journey

This phenomenon is not unknown in English. We have, for instance, a very common example in the nursery rhyme:

"Sing a song of sixpence"

However, very few English verbs lend themselves to such treatment and the citations above are not easily acceptable in Standard British English. Here the deviancy is a matter of frequency.

The errors are due to L₁ interference. It must be noted that the paronomasiac construction is very common both in Standard and Colloquial Arabic.

9e Errors in Case (Double Object Verbs)

9e1) I told my friends to wait me there.

9e2) My father said that he will speak him for me

9e3) I narrated them the story of the accident
and how all happened.

9e4) She opened me the door and said "What a lovely
dress".

Cross-sectional Study	=	299
Stage I	=	21
Stage II	=	9
Stage III	=	6

Discussion and Explanation

Fillmore (1967) proposes the 'case frame' in his Case for Case for what has been called 'double object verbs' in traditional grammar. According to Fillmore's Case Theory, the dative takes the preposition to in deep structure, and therefore exhibits it in surface structure when it is not immediately juxtaposed to the verb. Thus we have

- a) I gave the book to him (not juxtaposed)
- b) I gave him the book (juxtaposed)

The dative when juxtaposed to the verbs, drops its deep structure preposition but keeps the dative inflectional form which in modern English is evident only when the dative takes a pronominal form. The switch in the positioning of the direct and indirect object (i.e. the objective and the dative cases) does not affect the meaning of the English sentence. Hence (a) and (b) above are identical in meaning.

Arabic has a set of verbs that fit into Fillmore's case frame (A + O + D + (I)).

- e.g. a'Taytu-l kitaba lahu = I gave the book to him
- a'Taytuhu-l-kitaba = I gave him the book

The meaning of sentences (c) and (d) remain the same. We therefore see that English sentences have certain basic patterns one of them being

$N_s + V_{iO} + N_o + \text{to/for/etc } N_{iO}$

- e.g. I give the book to him.

This pattern optionally permits T_{iO} (indirect object modification)

e.g. I give him the book

Arabic sentences have the pattern

$$V_{iO} + N_s + N_o + li + N_{iO}$$

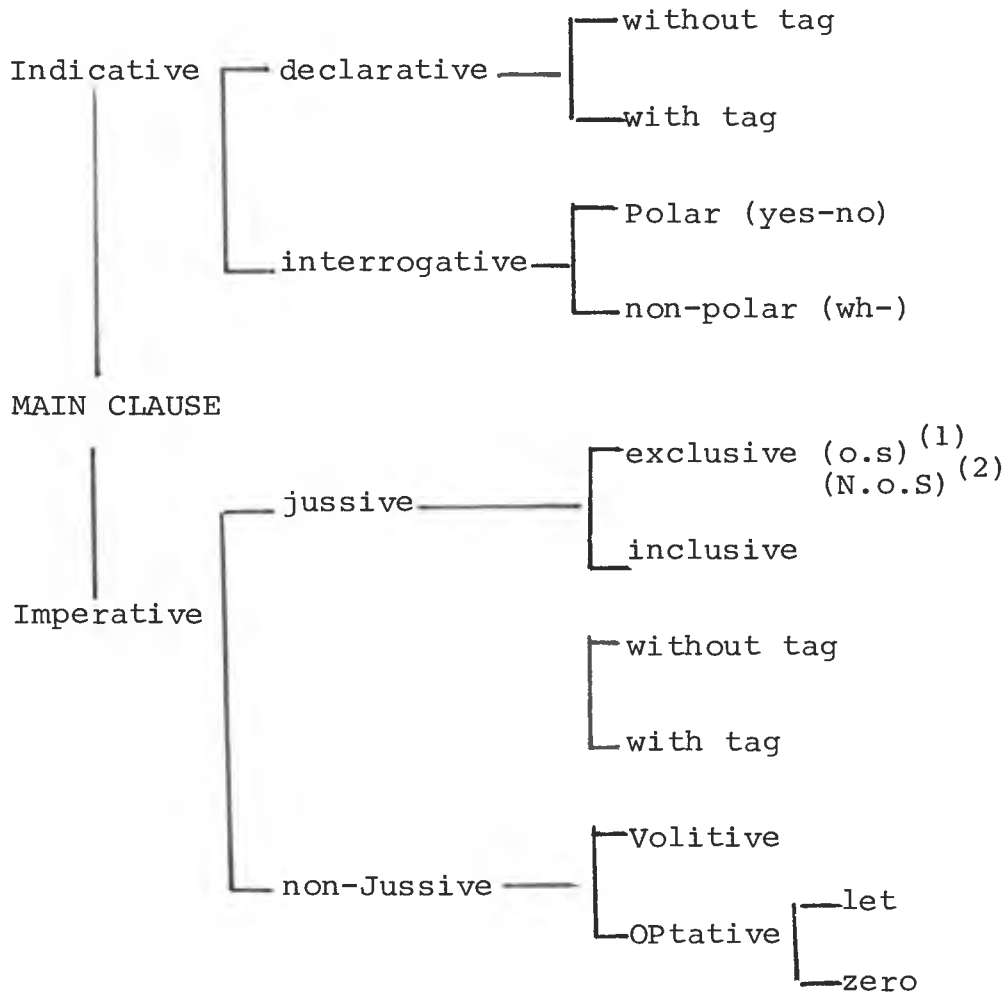
which optionally permits

$$V_{iO} + N_s + N_{iO} + N_o$$

Thus the learner may translate this last pattern immediately into English from his mother-tongue. The error occurs because with some verbs in English the preposition that goes with the dative is not optional but obligatory and must therefore appear in the surface structure. In Arabic the same verbs may have an optional and not an obligatory preposition in the surface structure. In (9e) the verb wait in Arabic does not require a preposition; whereas the verb narrated (9e3) in Arabic requires an obligatory preposition (qaSayta-'alayhum) the learner does not use it because he assumes that narrated is like told and they therefore operate in the same prepositional frame in English. The case is more or less the same in (9e4). The verb open requires a preposition li obligatorily in Arabic as does the English sentence. However the learner seems to be confused by seeing sentences with dative prepositions and sentences without dative prepositions. Since he observes that the meaning of the sentences does not alter with or without the prepositions, he tends to include or exclude the latter haphazardly.

Mood

In English, the Mood System has been very conveniently simplified by the following grid:



The Arabic mood system differs from the English only slightly. The major clause can be indicative or imperative. The indicative is further divided into declarative and interrogative. The declarative can be with or without a tag. However where polarity is concerned in Arabic there is only one set phrase ʔalaysa khadhalik, which serves for all tags. It is exactly like the French n'est-c-pas? Where the interrogative is concerned Arabic has no anomalous finites and a VP split. Rather a change in intonation and the addition of a question mark marks the question form. Arabic has also the equivalent of wh-words in the form of man = who, ma:dha what, mata = when etc. Where the imperative is concerned

(1) O.S. = overt subject

(2) N.O.S. = non overt subject

Arabic has the jussive with an exclusive (overt subject) and an exclusive non overt subject.

- e.g. a) MuHammad (you) take 'the book
b) Take the book
a₁) MuHammad Khudh-l-kita:b
b₁) Khudh-l-kita:b

Generally speaking the Arabic mood system therefore is very like the English mood system. Considering this, the learner should have no problem with the English indicative mood system because the systems of L₁ and L₂ are very similar. However we know from experience that the fact that a structure occurs in identical shape in the L₁ and the L₂ does not lessen errors. However in this case the similarity of the two systems does result in the comparative rarity of errors in the learner's written language.

The learning problems are mainly where the interrogative mood is concerned. The anomalous finites, the interdependence of the main verb and the anomalous finites as regards tense-markers and the ordering of the English interrogative structure in English are bound to create error.

10 Errors in the Interrogative Mood

- 10a) When our people will learn that most of problems come from overpopulation?
10b) Why you were late? she said
10c) I saw many students but I did not know how many are there in my class.
10d) I told him I am sorry I did not hear what were you saying.
10e) How you spend the summer holiday?
10f) The first thing they ask is why you want to join the English department.

- 10g) You have come to see the pyramids? I said
10h) I asked my father "I can go on this trip?"
and he said "Yes for travel broadens the mind".

Cross-sectional Study	=	312
Stage I	=	21
Stage II	=	8
Stage III	=	9

Discussion and Explanation

The fact that the signalling of questions differs in English and Arabic causes difficulty for the learner. In English a question is often marked by a change in word-order. In colloquial Arabic there is no change in word order but there is usually a change in intonation which marks a sentence as interrogative. Contrast

2 3 1
a) /huwwa na:yim/ = he's sleeping

and

2 3 3
b) /huwwa na:yim/ = is he sleeping?

In SA question forms may also be expressed through intonation or change of tone of voice without a change in the word-order of the sentence

2 3 1
e.g. /huwwa ghaniyy/ = he is rich
2 3 3
/huwwa ghaniyy/ = is he rich

Standard Arabic is closer to English in that it has interrogative particles or equivalents to wh-words. However the systems in both languages differ in that Arabic has no overt auxiliary as English has.

The errors involving the formation of questions involve

- a) Ordering of elements
- b) omission of auxiliaries in question forms

- a) Ordering of elements

In Arabic the interrogative sentence and its declarative counterpart have identical sequencing of their elements, the only difference being the addition of the question particle to the former. In English there may be inverted word order. The learner either fails to invert the word order, or he retains the inverted word order in embedded sentences. This is clearly seen in errors (10g) and (10h) as well as (10f) and (10d). As we see, some of these citations represent the research worker with the uncomfortable task of glossing a registerially deviant form as an error. In spoken English, said with the right intonation pattern, citation (10g) will pass as grammatical. However, in written English it does not seem quite right. The citation is a word for word translation of the Arabic question pattern which is, in the main, identical with the form of the statement in structure except that the intonation changes. Evidently intonation cannot be seen in the written language.

The introduction of the auxiliary do in interrogative utterances in English is the cause of a second difficulty that speakers of colloquial Arabic face when dealing with question forms. This comes out clearly if we cast a cursory glance at the complex syntactic and morphophonemic changes which take place in the English sentences below as compared to their colloquial Arabic counterparts.

- c) He went _____ Did he go?
d) The boy ate _____ Did the boy eat?
e) The boy is eating _____ Is the boy eating?
c₁) huwwa ra:h _____ huwwa ra:h?
d₁) il-walad kal _____ il-walad kal?
e₁) il-walad biya:kul _____ il walad biya:kul?

Considering the above examples, the interrogative pattern in colloquial Arabic can be the cause of many errors in the learner's language. Since question patterns like the above are so common in everyday speech, the learner should be introduced to them as early as possible in a language course. In one English textbook written especially for Arab students, ⁽¹⁾ the authors present the basic interrogative pattern in the very first lesson. Unfortunately the book is not used in the schools.

Interrogative patterns are formed in standard Arabic by placing an interrogative particle, or a 'noun of interrogation' to use the Arabic term, before an assertion. No changes occur in the syntactical arrangement of the statement. The interrogative particles in Arabic are two, hal and ?a. They correspond to the verb do as an interrogative auxiliary, or to the auxiliaries have and be in an interrogative statement.

- e.g. hal 'indaka kitabun? = do you have a book?
hal ?anta fi-l-bayti? = are you at home?
?a-dhahaba 'aliyyum ila-l-madrasah = has Ali gone to school?

Cowan ⁽²⁾ thinks that hal and ?a are 'spoken question marks'. Whatever they are, what interests us is that whereas the learner can use hal and ?a in an uninflected form with an assertion to express a question in Arabic, in English he has to 1) choose between the three auxiliaries do, have

(1) Lehn, Walter & Hager, William, R., (1965), pp. 1-4

(2) Cowan, D., (1958), p.11

and be, 2) inflect them correctly, 3) use them in the right tense, and 4) change the word order of the sentence, to express interrogation correctly. Whereas do, and be are all commonly used in interrogation patterns, hal is much more common than ?a, the latter asking the question about the word following it. Hal can occur only before an assertion whereas ?a can be used for both assertions and negations. When hal and ?a precede an assertion, the whole construction is equivalent to the English yes/no question forms.

In English, interrogations may be introduced by 'wh/words' more traditionally called interrogative pronouns, adjectives and adverbs. In Arabic a similar situation occurs. Interrogations may be introduced by any one of nine 'nouns of interrogation' given below:

<u>?ay</u>	=	which
<u>lima:dha</u>	=	why
<u>mata</u>	=	when
<u>ma /ma:dha</u>	=	what
<u>man</u>	=	who, whom
<u>?ayna</u>	=	where
<u>kayfa</u>	=	how
<u>kam</u>	=	how many

ma: is used for inanimate things while man is used for animate beings

e.g. man ?akala ha:dha? = who ate this?
ma:dha fa'alta? = what (did) you do?
?ayna-l-kita:bu? = where (is) the book?
mata 'udta? = when (did) you come back?

In SA the only change in word-order where interrogation is concerned is connected to whether the assertion which is to become an interrogation is a thematic (nominal) sentence

or a verbal sentence. kayfa = how and ma:dha = what may precede a nominal or a verbal assertion though the latter is more frequent

e.g. kayfa Haluka? = How (are) you?
kayfa 'arifta? = How (did) you know?

We see that the subject may come before the verb or the verb before its subject. This change in word order though does not bear any resemblance to the required interrogation word-order in English. Whereas in the English translation the auxiliary could be either do or be depending on the structure of the statement it precedes, in Arabic there is no overt auxiliary.

e.g. lima:dha tabki? = Why (are) you crying?
kam kita:ban qara?ta? = How many books (did) you read?

The interrogative particles seem to play the same role in Arabic that auxiliaries do in English. Considering what has been said above, there is no reason for interference from Arabic where the wh-words are concerned. However we find that the learner either drops the auxiliary completely (10e) and (10f) or he simply adds a wh-word to a sentence in its declarative form (10a) and (10b).

Richards⁽¹⁾ notes that across background languages, systematic difficulty in the use of questions can be observed. A statement form can be used as a question, one of the transformations in a series may be omitted, or a question word may simply be added to the statement form. Despite extensive teaching of both the question and the statement forms, a grammatical question form may never become part of competence in the foreign language. Redundancy may be an explanatory factor. The learner interested primarily in communication can achieve quite

(1) Richards, J., (1974), p.177.

efficient communication without the need for mastering more than the elementary rules of question usage. Motivation to achieve communication may exceed motivation to produce gramatically correct sentences. A further clue may be provided by classroom use of questions. Questions in class are used to elicit answers. An instruction like

Ask her how she spent her holiday?

is bound to elicit the question

10e) How you spend your holiday?

These replies in question form often have to be corrected by the teacher to counteract the influence of his question.

11 Polarity

Errors in Answering Questions

11a) He told me I will not pass but I said No I will.

11b) He pretended that a white lying does not harm but I said "No it harms".

11c) He asked me if I did not travel before and I said Yes I didn't.

Cross-sectional Study	=	28
Stage I	=	2
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

In English the answer to a question is consistently positive or negative in both parts of the sentence:

e.g. Yes I do
No I don't

The Englishman interprets the negative question in exactly the same way that he interprets its positive variant, he thus uses the same response to either question type. The Arab reacts exactly in the same way where the rules of his language are concerned. The learner however reacts differently to the two types of question. His answer to a positive question is the same as that of the English native speaker. It is in his response to a negative question that he gets confused.

When a question is a negative one, the learner gets confused when his answer has to be in two parts. The first part of the answer agrees with or denies the initial proposition in the form of a yes or a no respectively, and the second part asserts the facts of the case. The confusion arises because when he is faced with a question like:

Did you not travel abroad before?

he wants to assert the fact that he did not travel abroad and says yes and then follows it by I didn't. Fortunately the learner's confusion lasts for a short time and once he has more contact with English it disappears completely.

12 Question Tags

12a) They told me you did not want to join this department didn't you?

12b) Lying is harmful in every way but people think that they can tell a white lie do they? Well I'll tell you a story of.....

12c) He asked me what is the present pressing problem of Egypt and he said its overpopulation is it?

Cross-sectional Study	=	23
Stage I	=	1
Stage II	=	0
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

Although the feature of the question tag forms a very complicated learning problem for the learner the statistics do not show it to be so. However this is probably because the topics did not require the learner to use direct dialogue and hence the errors did not occur because the feature was not frequently used.

The difficulty lies in that there are about twenty four anomalous finites used in English tag questions, the most common being is and do. The selection of the appropriate anomalous finite is determined by the verb it is supposed to 'echo'. Arabic like English has the grammatical feature of the question tag but its form is realised in only one way. In standard Arabic the form is ?alaysa kadhalik = is it not so? The colloquial Arabic form is mush kida? = is it not so? These forms are equivalent to the French n'est-ce-pas? and the German nicht war? Therefore for one single construction in Arabic the learner has twenty-four possible alternatives to choose from in English. The ratio is indeed very unbalanced. Moreover the tag in English requires a verb plus a pronoun and the learner has further to choose the right one from seven possible English pronouns. The choice of the pronoun in the tag depends on the noun subject of the main utterance. This means that for

his one form in the L₁ the learner has to substitute one of 168 alternatives (24 anomalous finites times 7 pronoun possibilities). The learning load is therefore enormous.

It is only fair to note that English question tags present nearly all learners of the language with a major learning problem. All nationalities find it difficult to match the appropriate tag to the basic question. Almost all learners of English simplify their learning load by using just two tags, didn't it and isn't it, for the whole set of one hundred and sixty eight alternatives.

The Subjunctive Mood

Although we have no significant errors to discuss under the subjunctive mood because the learner does not seem to make much use of this particular mood, yet it does not seem quite right for us not to say something about it. The subjunctive appears in stereotyped phrases such as:

God bless you

and

God keep you well

These the learner learns off as holophrases and uses them without error. However if the learner does not use a whole section of the language, he must, of necessity, be using a substitute for the section he is missing out.

The subjunctive is used to express will or wish (optative). In this case the learner uses:

I wish that you are well

correctly. He only makes the lexical error of substituting

hope for wish as we shall see from Chapter VIII, p. 501-504
Where the subjunctive is used in adverbial clauses of
concession such as:

Though everyone desert you, I will not

the learner inserts an anomalous finite between the Np
and the subjunctive verb and writes instead,

Though everyone may desert you, I will not.

This, Zandvoort (1957) assures us, is quite normal in
British English usage.

The most interesting feature of the subjunctive mood
construction is its use in conditional clauses to indicate
the speaker's belief in the possibility or otherwise of the
condition. Ward⁽¹⁾ differentiates between the indicative
and subjunctive uses of the if clause in a conditional
sentence. Where the condition is open, as in

If he leaves the house in an hour's time.....

the learner has no problem. The speaker is giving the
prospect of his leaving the house a 50/50 chance. However,
where the speaker considers the prospect of the condition
ever coming true (i.e. as either very likely or totally
impossible) as in

If he had left the house an hour ago.....

(which implies that he did not leave), and in

If he were leaving the house now.....

(which tells us that he is not leaving the house now),

(1) Ward, (1966), p.110

the learner uses

Even if he was leaving.....

and

Supposing that he was leaving.....

In some cases, the learner of the higher stages resorts to using parenthetical comments like

If he will leave now (which is possible).....

Of the three main uses of the subjunctive, the optative, the potential and the irrealis, only the last is used commonly in English.⁽¹⁾ Teaching should, therefore, be concentrated on the irrealis subjunctive as the optative stereotyped clauses are always learnt off as holophrases. The subjunctive makes the learner's style formal and stilted anyway, a feature not recommendable in a language learning situation.

(1) Zandvoort, (1957), p.88

C H A P T E R V I I I

THE LEXIS

Introduction

In this chapter we intend to deal with certain aspects of the lexis and the problems encountered in this area by the Egyptian learner. It is important to realise right at the outset how wide the field of the lexis is, and consequently to try and bring it down to manageable proportions. The lexical system of English (and of any other language) is very complex. Firstly when we describe linguistic form, i.e. the two levels of grammar and lexis, we are describing the meaningful internal patterns of language or the way in which a language is internally structured to carry contrasts in meaning. While dealing with English syntax and morphology, we could not discuss grammar without reference to meaning. Similarly the lexis cannot be discussed without reference to meaning and form. Secondly language does not draw a clear distinction between grammar and lexis. In the formal patterns of language, closed systems in complex interrelations at one end of the scale, shade gradually into open sets in simple interrelations at the other. We take it for granted that we need both a grammar and a dictionary to describe the form of a language. Thirdly, a certain relationship holds between language and culture and consequently the vocabulary of a language is related to its culture in some way. Because of this, a discussion of lexis must of necessity include a discussion of its relation to form, to semantics and to culture. It is important to point out that any study we are going to make in the fields of culture, form and semantics does not aspire to be either very original, highly technical or very accurate (if anything can be said to be very accurate in this field). It is neither our intention nor our purpose to indulge in a highly theoretical study of English or Arabic vocabulary. Our objective being educational, it is therefore pragmatic in nature. We intend to find out a few areas of the vocabulary where difficulties arise for the learner of English, to try and pinpoint the causes of

difficulty, and to our best knowledge to explain why the difficulties arise. Before going into this, an explanatory note about the various relations between vocabulary, culture, form, and meaning is appropriate.

What is language

Language is the most complex and abstract of all symbolic systems. It is unique and characteristic of man. It is primarily a social activity.

Characteristics of Language

Language is conventional and its effectiveness rests upon a kind of unspoken public agreement that certain things will be done in certain ways. If everybody insisted on using his own private arbitrary names for things, then the principal function of language, communication, would break down. Language is therefore arbitrary. We know in our rational minds that the only real connection between the word and the thing to which it refers, is in the minds of the people who speak one language. Language is passed on from generation to generation as a form of learned behaviour i.e. it is culturally transmitted. Like other aspects of human culture it is subject to change. The great diversity of tongues among the peoples of the world today is almost wholly due to this process of change. The necessity of the communication of an infinite number of different messages requires language to have a very complicated multiple structure. The messages are made up of a small number of vocal signals which can be learned by any normal human being. A small set of sounds can be combined to express in speech an indefinitely large number of words. These linguistic units enable people to refer to every object, action and quality that members of a society wish to distinguish. If letters are combined they can express the spoken word in writing. Words have a meaning

and a structure which relate them not only to the world outside language, but to other words within the language. Hence the multiple structure of language is made up of the levels of phonology, semantics, the lexis and grammar.

In any situation where verbal communication takes place, the speaker analyses the 'substance' of an actual situation into features in terms of the semantics of a language. These features are then realised by features of the lexis and grammar of the language. These in turn are realised by features of the phonology of the language and issue as phonic substance, physical noise. Thus if we take actual physical time, English imposes certain semantic patterns upon it so that 'real' time becomes at the semantic level, English linguistic time. This is expressed by the use of certain lexical items like hour, minute, day, yesterday etc., and by certain grammatical forms like he comes, he came, etc. These in turn the speaker utters following the rules of the phonological system of English / dei /, and finally they occur as a series of vibrations in the air with physical characteristics.

Grammar and lexis merge into one another and it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a particular feature of language belongs to one or to the other. The same semantic element may in one instance be expressed through the grammar and in another through the lexis. Each grades into the other, and they are like two poles of a cline. It is difficult indeed to separate the levels of language but for our purposes we can at least stress form at one point and meaning at another, as well as try to describe grammar at one point and the lexis at another. The lexis is made up of words that have a certain form or forms and possess meaning. The meaning of a word may vary according to culture.

Vocabulary and Culture

We have already said that the main function of language is communication. An act of communication is seen as constituting

a whole, including the speaker, hearer and their social environment. This unity is basically what makes a stream of noises meaningful language. According to Firth, the most important fact about language is its social function; verbal behaviour is meaningful as long as it maintains the patterns of life of the society in which the speaker lives and the speaker's social role and personality within this society. When accounting for the meaning of utterances the linguist has to take these social and situational factors into account. This is the basic principle of Firth's contextual theory of meaning. This means that language is essentially a social activity closely connected with the culture of the people who speak it. To Sapir⁽¹⁾ language is

"a non-instinctive acquired cultural function."

Culture is the sum of the learned and shared elements that characterise a social group. It is a way of life of a people. It embraces those general attitudes, views of life and specific manifestations of civilization that give a people their distinctive place in the world. Describing the relationship that holds between language and culture Sapir says⁽²⁾

"Culture is what a society does....
Language is a particular how of thought."

Brooks,⁽³⁾ talking of language and culture, states that language is

"the most typical the most representative and the most central element in any culture."

He maintains that language and culture are not separable, and that it is better to see the special characteristics of a language as

(1) Sapir, (1969), p.4

(2) Ibid, p.218

(3) Brooks, N., (1964), p.85

cultural entities and to recognise that language enters into the learning and use of nearly all other cultural elements. It seems quite safe to assume the validity of the above statements. Culture is inseparable from language. Whatever our aims are in learning a foreign language, whether for business, for professional purposes, for everyday use or as an aid to further education, we cannot escape involvement in the culture of that language. Consequently acquaintance with such culture is a great help to the mastery of the language. Cultures may differ slightly or widely from one another. Except in certain scientific and technical fields, we cannot actually learn to understand or use a foreign language well, unless we grasp at least the most fundamental and significant aspects of its culture.

Lado suggests that if we contrast cultures we should use a procedure which depends on 'sames' and 'differents' in the form, meaning, and distribution of the cultural patterns.⁽¹⁾ The areas where interference and conflict of cultures occur, and misconceptions and misunderstandings arise, are those where either the form, the meaning, or the distributions of patterns in one culture differ considerably from that in the other. If we compare the English culture with the Arab one, we are bound to find areas where they differ considerably from each other. e.g. in concepts of hospitality, conducting business, time, social life etc. The reflection of these differences affects the learner's command of English because

"individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives." (2)

We do not know whether the sounds and grammatical structure of a language have anything to do with its culture. These points

(1) Lado, (1957), pp. 112-121

(2) Lado, (1957), p.2

are still very controversial. What we do know is that vocabulary items and certain forms of expression, when culturally loaded, can be sources of non-comprehension and/or misconception that may result in misunderstanding. Vocabulary items are the raw material out of which the various structures are built. The vocabulary of a language is related to the physical environment of a society, and to its social, moral, religious, political, economic and aesthetic aspects. It is only natural for the learner of a foreign language to miss the significance of many of those lexical items that refer to objects not common or non-existent in his own culture.

Vocabulary and Form

Traditional linguistic theory operates with two fundamental units of grammatical description, the sentence and the word. The word is the basis of the distinction which is frequently drawn between morphology and syntax and it is the principal unit of lexicography or 'dictionary-making'. According to a common formulation of the distinction between morphology and syntax, morphology deals with the internal structure of words, and syntax with the rules governing their combination in sentences. The very terms morphology and syntax and the way in which they are applied, imply the primacy of the word. It was taken for granted by traditional grammarians that the 'forms' treated in grammar are the forms of words, and that words are the units which are put together or combined in sentences. According to their 'function' in the sentence, which is accounted for by the rules of syntax (i.e. with reference to notions of 'subject', 'object' etc.), words were believed to assume a different 'form'. The different words are handled by morphology.

Morphology includes inflexion and derivation. Classical grammar laid more stress on inflexion (or accidance) and syntax, than on derivation or word-formation. This is because inflexion

includes a change made in the form of a word to express its relation to other words in the sentence. Derivation however only shows processes whereby new words are formed from existing ones. In the nineteenth century, morphology came to cover both inflexion and derivation because comparative philologists became interested in the systematic study of the formation of words from a historical point of view. Nowadays linguists think that derivation ought to be integrated with the syntactical rules of English in a generative grammar of the language.

The 'Word'

The term 'word' can be ambiguous and as difficult to define as the term 'sentence'. One must distinguish between phonological and/or orthographical words and the grammatical words they represent. Lyons⁽¹⁾ gives as example the word sang. It is a grammatical word referred to as the past tense of sing, represented phonologically as /sing/. The phonological word /Kut/ represents three different grammatical words; the present tense of cut, the past tense of cut and the past participle of cut. Orthographic words are generally in one to one correspondence with one another in English in the sense that they represent the same set of one or more grammatical words. But there are instances of 1) 'one - many' or 2) 'many - one' correspondence between phonological and grammatical words.

- e.g. 1) /postmen/ /poustman/ postman
2) /mi:t / meat, meet.
3) /ri:d/, /red/, read (the present tense of read and the past tense of read.)

/red/ is also in correspondence with the orthographic word red and /ri:d/ with the orthographic word reed.

The above observations make clear that the grammatical word (item functioning as noun, verb, adjective etc.) is not necessarily identical with the orthographic word (i.e. a sequence of symbols

(1) Lyons, (1968), p.196

bounded by spaces on the page).

How then can we define words? One definition is

"A word may be defined as the union of a particular meaning with a particular complex of sounds capable of a particular grammatical employment."

This definition makes it a necessary condition that the word should be a semantic, a phonological and a grammatical unit simultaneously. However not only words satisfy these three conditions. Phrases like 'the new book', and morphemes such as 'un' and 'able' in the word 'unacceptable', also satisfy these conditions. Therefore such a definition of a word is not adequate. Bloomfield identifies a word according to formal criteria as a 'minimum free form'. This definition depends upon the prior distinction of 'free' and 'bound' forms. Forms which never occur alone as whole utterances are bound forms; forms which may occur alone as utterances are free forms. By Bloomfield's definition, any free form, no part of which is itself a free form, is a word. This definition applies to phonological/orthographic words rather than grammatical words. Bloomfield seems not to distinguish clearly between these two concepts.

This state of affairs leaves only one conclusion: there is a discrepancy between the grammatical word and the lexical word (or lexical item as it is often called), just as there is a discrepancy between the grammatical word and the phonological/orthographic word. The lexical item is the unit involved in a study of the lexis and of word-formation. It is well known that combinations of grammatical words called 'idioms' often constitute a single unit as far as the lexis is concerned. This unit is a single lexical item although it is made up of two or three grammatical words e.g. put up with, make up for. Therefore at the lexical level it seems better to recognise and use a distinct term, lexical item, accepting that it will in many

instances be co-extensive with the grammatical unit word. Moreover lexical items are subject to the limited productivity of lexical rules: e.g. up as in eat up and cut up adds the sense of 'completion' to the verb, while out in hold out conveys the meaning of continuation. However we cannot say that up in play up conveys completion or out in pick out conveys continuation. As far as word-formation and lexical rules are concerned eat up and cut up are closely parallel to a set such as rebuild and reclaim where re is equivalent to 'again'.

The internal structure of words has importance for five topics in morphology - a) inflection b) compounding c) derivation d) back-formation e) shortening. The errors in inflection are normally included under grammatical errors. Derivational errors are doubtful. They could sometimes create a lexical error and sometimes a grammatical error. This creates problems of classification of errors. Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens⁽¹⁾ point out that

"a given error can often be described in two or more ways, to each of which corresponds a different step that could be taken to correct it. For example, 'he asked a new book' could be corrected either to 'he asked for a new book' or to 'he requested a new book'; these will lead to two different analyses of the error.....: the one grammatical, the other lexical."

We shall therefore be concerned here with lexical errors that involve lexical items. Compounding errors usually belong to the lexis. A rule of word-formation usually differs from a syntactic rule in one important respect. It is of limited productivity in the sense that not all words which result from the application of the rule are acceptable. We are interested in how the learner forms words (derivation) and how he uses them and the assumptions he makes about their meanings. This is an area of the lexis where errors abound.

(1) Halliday et al, (1964), p.119

Vocabulary and Meaning

Language is a system of symbols. It is the most complex and abstract of all symbolic systems. The significance of the symbols is therefore the most important information about language. From the earliest times, classical, medieval and traditional grammarians have been more interested in the meaning of words rather than in their syntactic functions. The problem with all the ancient and traditional studies of meaning however, is that they were steeped in philosophical speculation. The ancients debated whether language was governed by 'nature' or 'convention', i.e. whether its origin lay in eternal and immutable principles outside man himself, or whether it was merely the result of custom and tradition - a tacit agreement among the members of the community. The distinction between 'nature' and 'convention' was made to turn principally upon the question whether there was any necessary connexion between the meaning of a word and its form. This philosophical and psychological controversy led nowhere in the study of meaning. It only succeeded in establishing a view that somehow, form and meaning were distinct entities. This in turn obstructed the understanding of the nature of language for a long time. In the course of the development of traditional grammar it became customary to distinguish between the meaning of a word and the 'thing' which was named by it. The form of a word signified 'things' by virtue of the 'concept' associated with the form of the word in the mind of the speaker of the language; the 'concept', looked at from this point of view, was the meaning of the word or its 'signification'. This created confusion in the application of the term 'signify'; the form of a word could be said to signify both the 'concept' under which 'things' were subsumed, and also the 'things' themselves. There was of course considerable philosophical disagreement as to the relationship between 'concepts' and 'things' particularly between the 'nominalists' and the 'realists'. In modern times this relationship between form and meaning has been made to indicate that the symbol

or the 'form' of the word, and the referent or the 'thing', are not connected directly but through the mediating conceptual meaning associated with each independently. Traditional semantics made the existence of concepts basic to the whole theoretical framework of meaning. On that basis vocabulary was classified in terms of synonymy, homonymy, antonymy and polysemy.

Under the influence of Bloomfield and de Saussure these referential theories of meaning were rejected. The structuralists, with their mechanistic definition of the meaning of a word or 'the linguistic form' as,

"the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer."(1)

proved no more helpful than the former mentalist point of view.

In fact Lyons⁽²⁾ comments that

"many of the more influential books on linguistics that have appeared in the last thirty years devote little or no attention to semantics."

The reason for that is that structuralists believed that meaning could not be studied as objectively and as rigorously as grammar and phonology. Furthermore, whereas phonology and grammar quite clearly fall wholly within the province of linguistics, meaning was considered the concern of the philosopher, the logician and the psychologist.

The attempts recently made at the study of meaning take into account the shortcomings of traditional semantics. They avoid the philosophical and psychological issues related to meaning. Ullman⁽³⁾ puts it in this way:

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- (1) Bloomfield, (1969), p.139
 - (2) Lyons, J., (1968), p.400
 - (3) Ullman, (1970), p.408

"The exact psychological nature of meaning is of no outstanding importance to the linguist; he is more interested in the information which a word actually conveys to the ordinary speaker."

In traditional semantics, care was not given to the diversity of the ways in which, in practice, the meanings of words are stated (e.g. formal definition, or definition by context, by synonym or by example etc.) The relevance of context was ignored as well as the circularity of vocabulary i.e. that there is no one point from which one can start, and from which one can derive the meaning of the rest.⁽¹⁾

The importance of the context was brought forward by Wittgenstein.⁽²⁾

"Don't look for the meaning of a word; look for its use."

This concept was not only significant for modern semantics but for language teaching as well. Modern definitions of meaning developed and changed. Some linguists emphasised the reference of the word, i.e. the relation between language and things in the non-linguistic world. They dealt with 'semantic fields', and divided meaning into its semantic components, hence the term 'componential analysis'. This approach produced several valuable works on closed systems, such as colour and kinship terms. It is adopted by Chomsky and transformationalists like Katz and Jacobson. The approach assumes that reference is essential to a semantic theory and that semantic components are language - independent or universal.⁽³⁾ Semantic components may be combined in various ways in different languages and yield concepts unique to particular languages; but they themselves are identifiable as the same components in the analysis of the vocabularies of all languages. This speculation has existed since the seventeenth century. It underlies the method of hierarchical definition in most dictionaries, dividing genus into species and species into sub-

(1) Lyons, (1968), p.410

(2) Wittgenstein (1953) in Lyons (1968) p.410

(3) Lyons (1968) p.489

species etc. It also underlies Roget's Thesaurus. Lyons however comments that the universality of semantic components has not been proved yet; nor is there an adequate grammatical theory which is, in his opinion, primary to the formation of an adequate semantic theory.

Other linguists emphasised the 'association' of the word i.e. the relation the word has with other words in the various lexical contexts. Meaning here is to be expressed in terms of collocations or the intralingual relations contracted by linguistic units.⁽¹⁾ These linguists assume that some lexical items fall into lexical systems and that the semantic structure of these systems is to be described in terms of the sense-relations holding between lexical items. The sense relations are

- 1) Paradigmatic e.g. 'husband' and 'wife', 'good' and 'bad'. All members of the sets of semantically related terms can occur in the same context.
- 2) Syntagmatic e.g. 'hair' and 'blond' 'grunt' and 'pig', 'kick' and 'foot'. This being the theoretical framework they explain the various relations holding between lexical items (such as synonymy, polysemy, antonymy etc.) according to it.

Bolinger⁽²⁾ suggests that both these approaches, componential and structural analyses of meaning, should be combined. This has been attempted by Leech in Towards a Semantic Description of English.⁽³⁾

Halliday makes a difference between 'grammatical meaning' and 'lexical meaning'. The difference between them can be expressed in terms of paradigmatic opposition within "closed systems" and 'open sets'. The main ideas behind this approach are that language does not draw a clear distinction between grammar and lexis, and that form is part of meaning. Lyons⁽⁴⁾

(1) Bolinger, D., (1968) p.246

(2) Bolinger, D., (1968) p.219

(3) Leech, G.N., (1969)

(4) Lyons, (1968) p.438

comments that

"in the present state of syntactic theory, the distinction between grammatical and lexical items is somewhat indeterminate."

He adds that there seems to be no essential difference between the kind of meaning associated with lexical items and that associated with grammatical items, in cases where the distinction between these two classes of deep structure elements can be drawn. The notions of sense and reference are applicable to both.

We conclude that if a description of language is to be carried out therefore, it must include form and meaning i.e. the syntactic structure of a language is very highly determined by its semantic structure. The emphasis is on the description of language activity as part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations.⁽¹⁾ The criteria employed are formal and very rigorous, first describing the linguistic word class from within the language, and then, after stating all the formal properties, saying what they can about the contextual meaning of this class.⁽²⁾ The contextual level of language being more difficult to describe rigorously than the formal levels, not much progress has been achieved in this field.

The field, as we see, is very complex and the issues very controversial. While looking at the learner's errors we shall keep in mind synonymy or sameness of meaning, polysemy or multiplicity of meaning and collocation or the tendency of words to co-occur together. Because there is no adequate theory of semantics and

(1) Halliday et al, (1964) p.39

(2) Halliday et al, (1964) p.39

because the relation between form and meaning has not been defined until today, we shall try and be eclectic and describe the error according to the theory that best suits it. What is important for us in such a pragmatic study is the use the learner has made of the word and the meaning he intended it to have, and whether the meaning is used correctly or not.

In our attempt at describing and explaining the lexical errors in the data we will need to use a few basic terms which we must clarify before proceeding any further.

1) Synonymy

This term usually means (in a very loose sense) "sameness of meaning". Certain linguists maintain that in order for two or more lexical items to be considered synonyms they have to have the same meaning in every context. We shall not adopt this point of view as Ullman⁽¹⁾ states that this 'total synonymy' is practically non-existent. Rather we shall take those lexical items that have the same meaning in one context to be synonymous though they may not be synonymous in other contexts. If the items can be substituted one for the other in the same sentence without changing its meaning, the items are synonymous in that context.

2. Polysemy

This term indicates "multiplicity of meaning" - a phenomenon common in the vocabulary of most, if not all languages. How did words acquire several meanings? The primary lexical items of any language probably referred to objects, qualities and processes in the physical world. Then, all kinds of abstractions proceeded from this physical sense. One can see that even the items that refer to specific objects are themselves abstractions referring

(1) Ullman, S., (1967), p.108

to characteristics common to the objects; e.g. 'cow' refers to characteristics common to the quality of 'cowness' found in all cows. Higher up the ladder of abstraction we have 'live-stock', 'farm-assets', 'asset' and 'wealth' referring to, or including the physical object we have in mind⁽¹⁾. Besides this type of abstraction which made words acquire more meanings, there is a shift of reference of the lexical item from physical to non-physical entities; e.g. the word 'ladder' in 'educational ladder'. Moreover lexical items change their meaning through the ages. Some drop all the previous meanings, others retain one, some, or all of them. Consequently we get a whole range of meanings for a great many words.

3) Collocation

Each lexical item has the tendency to keep company with certain other items in utterances. If we have the item 'hair' we are more likely to have in the same utterance the items 'long', 'black', 'cut', 'wavy', 'thick' and 'straight', than say, 'green' or 'fast'. This tendency to co-occurrence is known as collocation. A lexical set is simply a grouping of items which have a similar range of collocation. 'Chair', 'seat', 'sofa' and 'settee' belong to the same lexical set because they have a number of highly probable collocations in common.⁽²⁾

4) Meaning

In the context of componential analysis 'meaning' normally means 'reference'. When used to refer to the meaning of a word in a certain context it is normally taken to mean 'sense'. Generally used, 'meaning' may refer to either reference or sense, or most probably both. We do not aspire to be too accurate in a field where accuracy has a long way to go.

(1) Hayakawa, S., (1968), p.179

(2) Halliday et al, (1964), p.33

One word is due which has some bearing on the subject of the learner's knowledge of English culture. Unlike the French, the British have never attempted to impose their culture through their language even at the height of their imperialism. That came indirectly through learning the language. British school books that are currently prepared specially for foreign students, try to avoid culturally loaded reading passages, and are almost lacking in cultural questions. Even main courses meant for teaching the English language from the very early stages do not set it in its native culture. Instead, they try to teach it against the local native culture of the learner, with the result of a great loss in its significance and function. The Living English series also teach English against the native culture of the learner and the significance and function of the role of the foreign culture is sadly lost. The recommended books in the foreign language medium schools in Egypt⁽¹⁾ dodge the whole issue of culture, and present the learner with a model composition based on English culture, and then ask him to produce a similar one based on his own. Therefore at school, the learner does not learn a great deal about English culture.

This state of affairs does not affect the learner where the productive skills of speaking and writing are concerned. It is normal for him to avoid talking about things that he does not know, particularly if he is using the foreign language. He avoids cultural references that he is not sure of and the use of words and idiomatic expressions that are culturally loaded. Foreign learners generally feel greatly handicapped when they are asked to write (or speak) on an aspect of English culture that they are not familiar with. Therefore the learner uses English only to depict specific pictures of his own native

(1) e.g. Jupp, T.G. and Milne, J., Guided Course in English Composition, 1969

culture. An awareness of the cultural background of the L₂ is certainly a vital factor in the measure of command of the language a foreign learner is able to attain. Such command is usually reflected in all the language skills including of course, writing. However in a test of free production such as the one we have used, one cannot really tell how acquainted with the culture of the L₂ the learner is, because the learner controls the occurrence or non-occurrence of culturally loaded items. He will evidently not use culturally loaded items that he does not know or he is not sure of.

The learner's acquaintance with many aspects of English culture in particular, and that of Western Europe and America in general, cannot have stemmed merely from his learning English at school. At school, the emphasis in the education process is on language rather than on literature or culture. Reading, both in Arabic and English, inside and outside school, the mass media, travel, and the home provide him with knowledge about foreign cultures. If we consider reading, the learner does not read much English outside school. However he reads Arabic books. There is a considerable number of Arabic translations of Western classics on the market in Egypt which find a great public among the student population. These translations are no less effective than the original versions in cultural orientation. Kharma⁽¹⁾ in a questionnaire carried out on Kuwaiti students to find out the sources that contribute to the Arab student's acquaintance with Western culture, finds that 60% of the Arabic books mentioned as being read by young people, are Arabic translations of Dickens, Hugo, Jane Austen, Hemingway and Shakespeare. The learner of the cross-sectional study gets his information about Western culture in this way. The specialist of the department of English is given courses on British life, thought, and culture, historical as well as contemporary, in the course of his study. He of course

(1) Kharma, N., (1972) unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of London, p.84

reads literature and is bound to learn about culture.

Generally, although very little reading of English, French or American newspapers and magazines may be done by the learners, one must remember that the prevalent type of modern Arabic newspaper and magazine is very international in nature and contains a great many articles which deal with certain facets of European, English and American life.

Television and the motion pictures have even a larger role to play in introducing foreign cultures to the learner. Their influence reaches the learner and affects him more directly through the eye and ear. Although many motion pictures and television serials do not honestly represent real life in European countries or America, still, the great variety of the motion pictures help towards some understanding - though partial and imperfect - of life in those countries. Only a small minority of Egyptians may use English for conversation or for reading at home. In fact the home does not afford any help where either knowledge of the language or its culture is concerned. As for travelling and first hand contact with Western culture, there are only a lucky few who can afford to travel. One must admit though, that in the past five years, Egyptian university students have travelled to Europe, and especially to England, in more numbers than ever before.

It seems safe to conclude from the above that, in spite of the fact that not much English reading is at present being carried out by the school-leaver, the Egyptian learner in general is constantly exposed to all sorts of Western influence and cultural orientation through factors other than his learning of the English language at school.

We shall start by dealing with errors that result from culture and follow these by the errors in form and errors involving meaning. Where the errors that result from the learner's culture are concerned there are two points to keep in mind. First, the errors we have found do not necessarily turn the sentence into an erroneous structure either lexically or grammatically. Rather the first type of error is an error that belongs to 'style'. It may be

a common thing to start an Arabic letter with words from the Qur'a:n or to ask for God's help. In English this is not done and the learner has to learn so. The other type of 'cultural' error results from the different concept that an item represents in the learner's native culture. The second point is to do with the frequency of these errors and the relevance of the number of times they occur to the statistics we are doing. In Chapters III to VII we traced the rate of error-dropping through three significant stages of development. While counting the errors that stem from the learner's culture, we found that their frequency of occurrence depended on 1) the actual topic the learner is writing on, and 2) whether the learner happens to mention a particular item or not. If we take the item drink for example, its occurrence depends on whether the learner happens to mention what he ate and drank for lunch on that particular day he spent on the beach which he is writing about. Therefore the relevance of the frequency of occurrence of that item is not very helpful where statistics are concerned. To determine the seriousness of these errors, one has to bear in mind factors other than frequency of occurrence.

On the other hand the errors involving word-formation and confusion on the grounds of similarity of meaning in lexical items, show a certain systematicity and frequency counts have more relevance where they are concerned. They occurred regularly enough in the four stages with the same meanings and in the same linguistic contexts, and one can therefore say that they can reliably point to a certain deficiency in the actual competence of the learner where lexical items are concerned.

We have also experienced some difficulty where the classification of errors are concerned. Some errors could be placed correctly under two headings. Consider the item *deary. We could place it under the heading Errors resulting from the Text-book as well as under Distortions in word-formation. As a result we have considered it under both headings but have counted it only once so that our statistics may be as accurate as possible.

I 'Errors' resulting from the Learner's Culture

- 1a) In the name of God, the Merciful, the Compassionate
- 1b) May you succeed in what you are doing, and this only by the help of God.
- 1c) May God be with you at all times.
- 1d) I hope of my God that you are in good health.
- 1e) Finally, God keep you with him.

Cross-sectional Study	=	211
Stage I	=	3
Stage II	=	3
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

Mother-tongue interference is generally thought of in terms of phonological, grammatical and lexical errors. The citations in this section however are due to the actual culture of the learner. They are not errors in the sense that there is something grammatically or lexically wrong with them. Rather they are rhetorical features that belong to a style and a way of writing which is not properly English. If an Englishman reads them, he will immediately recognise the writer as a foreigner. It does little harm for a learner's writing to reveal him as a foreigner provided it is fluent and easily understandable. However, an invocation to Alla:h at the start of an examination essay, or a business letter, may be more prejudicial in English than a dozen grammatical errors; the person appears not merely a foreigner, but a naive nincompoop as well.

Cultures differ and these differences in culture are reflected in people's behaviour, beliefs, attitudes etc. Arabs in general have very strong religious beliefs. The Egyptian, young or old, is characterised by his piety and his firm belief in Alla:h and religion. For an Englishman, religion is a private matter. He

may be a believer or an atheist, and freely declare himself as such. The relationship between him and God is a metaphysical relationship. To a Muslim however, Islam is a whole way of life. It permeates every aspect of his life, whether social, political, economic, educational, private or spiritual. This is true not only of Muslims in Egypt, but also of the Coptic Christians. They too are very religious and have the same attitude towards Christianity. It is considered unforgiveable for a person to declare himself an atheist, whether he be a Muslim or a Christian.

Western Europeans in general do not mention God's name in ordinary conversation. An Arab on the other hand, would feel very awkward in his speech if he were told not to use the word Alla:h in his conversation, whether he be Muslim or Christian. 'Alla:h' is one of the commonest words in the language where frequency of usage is concerned. The simplest proof of this is found in everyday greetings. The reply to the greeting

?as-sala:mu='alaykum = Peace be upon you
is

'alaykumu-s-sala:mi-wa-raHmatu-l-la:hi-wa-baraka:tuh =
Peace and the blessings, and mercy of Alla:h be upon you.

If one asks an Arab "How are you?" the reply is

al-Hamdu-li-lla:hi
or

nashkuru-lla:h

which mean praise be to Alla:h and we thank Alla:h respectively. Moreover, several forms of oaths, the great majority of which employ the name of God are current in everyday conversation,

e.g. wa-lla:hi = by Alla:h
wa-lla:hi-l'a DHi:m = by Alla:h the omnipotent

Whatever the Bible may tell the Egyptian Christians about not taking God's name in vain, they use these expressions at least ten times a day because they are part of Arabic conversation. When an Egyptian looks at, and admires something beautiful, he says Alla:h or Alla:h, Alla:h, whether he be Muslim or Christian. If he does not like a person or a thing he says

?a'u:dhu-bi-lla:hi = may Alla:h protect me

Literally there are hundreds of such expressions that are used at funerals, weddings, in everyday greetings, when one is ignorant of something or is not sure of one's opinion, when bidding farewell, when one intends to do something in the future, when one wishes good for somebody, and even in very common colloquial expressions of endearment.

This being the case, it is not surprising that before a Muslim Arab starts something like reading or writing (especially a passage from the Qur?a:n), beginning a business deal or a transaction, and even eating a meal or slaying a chicken, he should call for Alla:h's blessing. The set expression used in these cases is

bismi-l-la:hi r-raHma:ni-r-raHi:m = In the name of Allah, the Merciful, the Compassionate.

Ancient Arab writers always started a book or an article with this expression. It is still common practice in modern writing to do so too. This expression is printed on government circulars, formal letters, business letters etc., and it usually precedes the starting of any formal speech. The words are said or written in the belief that if anything is done in the name of Alla:h, then He would bless the action and it would prove successful. It is no wonder that the learner should start every task, especially an essay or an examination paper, with these words. (While writing Arabic compositions for homework or classwork, he always writes this expression on top of the page. The teacher of Arabic language puts

it up on the blackboard before he starts the lesson in any class). Personal letters particularly always have this Qur'anic expression at the head of the page. This is done not only in Egypt but in all countries of the Arab world.

It may be piety, etiquette, superstition or just plain strong religious belief or even habit that makes Arab people use and write this expression. What one is sure of is that it is part of the behaviour of Egyptians. However, in the Western world this is not part of people's behaviour. The British do not start either their books, formal letters, business letters or anything that is connected with writing, by calling on God. The learner has to understand that this is not part of Western culture, and when using English or writing formal or personal letters to Western people, he must not use it. It is not part of the format of written formal letters in English and will thus seem strange to the Western world.

It is interesting to note two points. First, although there are no capital letters in the Arabic script and the learner often fails to use capital letters when they are needed, yet because of his respect and reverence for God and this Qur'anic expression, he learns to write it faultlessly in English, down to every capital letter and comma. Secondly, by the time the learner reaches Stage II, he somehow grasps that this expression is not part of English style. He therefore does not begin his essay quoting these words of God. He uses it constantly however in one case - when he is sitting for an examination. We suppose that although he may learn that in English one does not start essays in such a way, he is too superstitious and scared, and his belief is too strong to make him leave it out during an examination. It is very common to find students sitting in examination halls with the Qur'an or the Bible or even a cross laid on their desks.

Alla:h is part of life and therefore we find (especially in the compositions dealing with letters) the learner addressing his parents in the following way:

(1d) I hope of my God that he has kept you in his care and that you are healthy.

This again is normal in an Arabic informal letter but in English it sounds rather old-fashioned and even archaic. Having been told that these compositions are to be analyzed for personal research, the learners immediately understood that the researcher is preparing for a higher degree. In little notes written after ending their compositions, we found the following

(1c) May God be with you at all times and I wish you success.
or

(1b) May you succeed in what you are doing and this only by the help of God.

This is very thoughtful of the learners but more important it makes prominent two points: first, how 'God' is part of their world and of their vocabulary, and second, how totally unaware they are of the discrepancy in style that is created by the frequent reference to God, His help, His mercy etc. Stylistically it may jar, but emotionally speaking it is very warm indeed.

2 Errors in the Use of certain Items that bring up the wrong associations in the target culture.

2a) We took lunch and had a drink.

2b) In the night we went to the cinema.

2c) I told him I will meet him in the night.

2d) I stayed with my uncle in Alexandria.

2e) I went to visit my aunt who knows my mother for twenty years.

2f) On the first day, we met our doctors.

2g) The doctor of Arabic gave us the first lecture.

2h) Our great professor Dr Taha Hussein said.....

Cross-sectional Study	=	114
Stage I	=	10
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

Having established the relationship between culture and language we shall try and see what kind of errors result from 'misconceptions' regarding culturally loaded items. A great number of vocabulary items relate to nature and the basic needs of all human beings, or to happenings, processes and states that are common to all human experience. This is one reason why great literary works are universally enjoyed. One can assume that verbs such as eat, drink, die, and live, adjectives like thirsty, sad, hungry, happy, and nouns like water, food, air and thousands more, may be more or less understood in the same way by most communities. But the greater bulk of the vocabulary is not of this sort. Reference to different physical environments for instance, have been shown by Whorf's famous quoted remark about the variety of words for snow among the Eskimos. Similarly the Arabs have about eighty five names for camels (as far as we can remember from our school days). It is therefore natural for the learner to miss the significance of many lexical items that refer to objects, either not very common or non-existent in his own culture. To the same category belong those lexical items that refer to an aspect of the foreign culture that is totally different from the native one. We found it very difficult to explain to our students a few years back, the reference of T.S. Eliot's lines

"Hurry up please, it's time! Hurry up please, it's time!"

This is because the pub, liquor and 'pub times' are not part of Egyptian social life. This causes an inability to understand fully

what is spoken about in the target language, and consequently inability to produce it in speech or writing. As a result in our kind of test of free writing, we did not find errors of this type. The learner, however, seems to produce certain lexical items that are common and exist in the usage of both the native Englishman and his own language and occur in the same linguistic context, but he uses them to mean slightly different things because of the difference in culture. The items are not incorrect. Rather the associations of these items in an English mind are different to the associations they bring up in the Arab mind. In many of the compositions, especially those describing a day at the beach, the learner talks of 'drink'. He writes

2a) We took lunch and had a drink

By the lexical item drink, a native speaker of English would understand an alcoholic drink. The learner however means a drink of orange juice, grape juice or even a Pepsi Cola or a Coca Cola. He seems to use the item drink to mean "a liquid to quench thirst" rather than a beer or a whisky. Our conviction that he does not mean an alcoholic drink by the used item, is proved by his usage of "an orange drink" or a "Pepsi Cola" in some of the other papers. The word 'drink' is correct when employed and interpreted as 'a liquid to quench thirst'. However the connotations it has come to acquire in the Western world make one associate it with drinks containing alcohol rather than fizzy beverages. The learner uses it, totally unaware of these connotations. The difference in meaning is not so obvious when he uses expressions such as 'a drink of orange', but when he simply writes 'I had a drink' one is bound to associate it with an alcoholic beverage if one lives in a Western society.

The next 'error' or rather 'misuse of an item' stems from the position of Egypt geographically and its relation to the rest of the world. In English the word morning is commonly associated with the times between dawn and 12 noon. After that the afternoon

extends until about four-thirty and somehow five p.m. is the start of the 'evening'. The evening lasts until about nine or nine-thirty p.m. and from then on night takes over. The item evening is connected to a time of day, especially in summer and spring, where the twilight is dominant. In Egypt, although the day is divided into morning, noon, afternoon, evening and night, and these divisions are expressed fully by the Arabic language if only because of prayer times, the phenomenon of twilight does not last for more than half an hour. Somehow the 'afternoon' suddenly turns into 'night' where the idea of 'light' and 'dark' are concerned. The evening therefore is always connected with the advent of the dark as is the night in people's mind. Therefore the Egyptian when talking about evening or night uses only one word generally covering both times of the day. This word is bi-l-leil i.e. in the night. We therefore find the learner writing

2b) In the night we went to the cinema

or

2c) I told him I will meet him in the night.

What he really means is "in the evening" from about 7 p.m. to 12 midnight and not "in the middle of the night". The current words used in Egyptian colloquial Arabic to express the divisions of the time of day are mostly issubH = in the morning, ba'ad il-Dhuhr = in the afternoon, and bi-l-leil = at night. Although the word 'isha = evening, is used, somehow it seems not to form a very important point in the concept of cutting up the 24 hour day because of the quick advent of the dark.

Appellations

In Egyptian culture the words 'uncle' and 'aunt' are used as prenames for any persons who are either as old as one's parents, friends of one's parents, or actual relatives. Whereas the native speaker of English would address his mother's friend as 'Mrs X',

the Egyptian would simply call her 'aunt'. These prenames for people who bear no blood relationship to the speaker strike the native English speaker as odd. But Arab society is an age-conscious society, and age automatically implies wisdom which is worthy of respect. It is therefore rude for a younger person to call an older one by his or her name without attaching any pre-name to it. It is not only a question of respect however. To call a person Mr. X or Mrs. X especially if they are close friends of the family, is regarded as very formal and cold. The term 'uncle' or 'aunt' implies not only endearment, but a kind of acceptance of the person as part of the family. This reflects the warmth and highly emotional attitude of the Egyptian people. Therefore when the learner says (2d) I stayed with my uncle in Alexandria, or (2e) I went to visit my aunt who knows my mother for twenty years, he does not necessarily mean blood relations, but persons who are friends of the family.

While discussing appellations and prenames it is interesting to note that even while writing personal letters, the learner prefers to write 'Dear sister' or 'Dear brother, rather than 'Dear Aziza' or 'Dear Ahmed'. This is because the terms 'sister', 'brother', 'father' etc, express the strong family ties more accurately than the actual use of names. If one loves a friend very much, he or she would be addressed as 'My dear sister X' and the letter would be signed 'Your sister who loves you Y'. In English, the custom is to write 'Dear X' and then sign an informal letter, 'Love, Y' or 'Yours Y' etc. 'Your sister who loves you' would probably sound either sappy, or just over-emotional to an English person.

In Britain or generally in the Western world, a 'doctor' is a physician. 'Doctor' is also a title given to the holder of a doctorate or a Ph.D. from a university. Egyptians are used to calling all medical practitioners, whether general physicians or surgeons, by the title of 'doctor'. The Egyptian would not know that a surgeon in Britain is addressed as 'Mr.X' and not 'Dr.X'. It has become common practice to call any university teacher

'Dr so-and-so'. Once one is appointed at the university one is expected to get one's doctorate. In fact one cannot get along in a university teaching career without it. Hence people assume that if one is over the age of twenty-five and teaches at a university, one is either already a 'doctor' or in the process of obtaining his doctorate. To have the title is considered very prestigious. Therefore students, and people in general, when not sure if one is, or is not a 'doctor', tend to call all university teachers 'doctor' as a sign of respect and prestige. The problem is that the learner tends to use the title without following it by the person's surname, i.e. he does not say or write 'Dr.X is lecturing to-day' as is perfectly common and correct in English, but he rather writes (2f) On the first day we met our doctors, or worse still, (2g) The doctor of Arabic gave the lecture. Used in this way the word 'doctor' in (2f) is immediately connected in an English native speaker's mind with medical practitioners rather than university teachers. This error could easily be corrected by pointing out that in English when using the title 'doctor', it should be followed by the surname of the person implied, unlike Arabic where 'the doctor' in the proper context could simply mean 'the lecturer' or 'the professor' etc. It must be understood that a 'doctor' is not necessarily a University teacher only, and when the title is referred to a person, it is better to follow the title by the person's name.

The next error (2h) is again to do with the denotation of the item professor. The literal translation of the Arabic item used to refer to professor is ʔusta:dh. The Arabic word also covers other meanings. It can be used for the title 'Mr.'

e.g. ʔusta:dh nabi:l = Mr. Nabil.

It is also used as a title for a school teacher (male), just as in English, male teachers are called "Mr. Brown" or "Mr. Black" etc. Another meaning of this item is 'a very learned man', 'a master'.

In Arabic a very knowledgeable person in art for example, is called an '?usta:dh' at his subject i.e. a master at his subject. ?usta:dh is also a title meaning 'professor'. At university, a professor is called ?usta:dh and an assistant professor is called ?usta:dh mussa:'id. In writing to university professors, it is common to address them as al-?usta:dh-l-docto:r = professor doctor, and this title is followed by the person's name. When referring to great literary personalities, one usually says in Arabic ?usta:dhuna-l-kabi:r meaning 'our great master', and this is followed by the name of the person. It is only people who have achieved greatness at something who are called ?usta:dhuna-l-kabi:r. These people are usually either still alive or have died very recently. Taha Hussein happens to be a great Egyptian literary figure. He is also a holder of a doctorate, and was once Minister of Education and the Rector of Cairo University. Not only is he a good writer, but Egyptian people have a great regard for him as an educator and as a man who has brought considerable beneficial changes to Egyptian education. He is therefore talked about generally as ?usta:dhuna-l-kabi:r. The learner uses the item 'professor' rather than 'master', presumably because Taha Hussein was both a 'university professor' and a 'master'. He chooses 'professor' because it is more associated with 'knowledge' than the word 'master' which in the learner's mind is more associated with rank.

This error in citation (2h) could have been dealt with under the section Misuse of Items in the Case of One-to-Several Correspondence between Arabic and English. However since it is connected to titles and appellations we have preferred to discuss it here.

The errors that are due to the learner's culture are very few indeed compared to the number of other errors. It must be remembered however that the learner is not likely to produce culturally loaded items that he does not understand or that he is not sure of. We shall now turn to errors in form.

3 Distortions: Errors in Word-Formation

- 3a) Deary my father,
- 3b) My deary family,
- 3c) She is a famous detective writress that I like very much.
- 3d) At the start of the universitic year I was very excited.
- 3e) She had to observate him night and day.
- 3f) If the government had applicated force it would lose the influence.
- 3g) People nowadays are complexated by wars and materialism.
- 3h) In this way the industration in the country will grow every year.
- 3i) It is as if I had an allergicness to being lonely.
- 3j) The worst thing about the system of our hospitals is the system of nursery.

Cross-sectional Study	=	178
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	6
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The area of the lexis that is closest to grammar is word-formation. The lexical rules of word-formation are important to the study of grammar for two reasons. Firstly, they help us to recognise the grammatical class of a word by its structure; e.g. we are able to tell that the word information is a noun from the fact that it ends in the suffix -ation. Secondly, lexical rules teach us that there is a flexibility in the application of grammatical rules whereby the native speaker may transfer words, with or without the addition of affixes or other words, to a new grammatical class. A rule of word-formation usually differs from a syntactic rule in that it is of limited productivity. This means that not all words which result from the application of the rule are acceptable; they are freely acceptable only when they have

gained an institutional currency in the language.⁽¹⁾ Thus there is a line to be drawn between 'actual English words' such as unwise and 'potential English words' such as *unexcellent. Both of these should be made distinct from 'non-English' words like *selfishless which, because it shows the suffix -less added to an adjective rather than to a noun, does not even obey the rules of word-formation in English.

A form to which a rule of word-formation is applied is called a base. A base is to be distinguished from the stem, which is the part of the word remaining after every affix has been removed. In a word which has only one affix such as friendly, the stem (friend) is also the base. Once a base has undergone a rule of word-formation, the derived word itself may become the base for another derivation.

e.g. friend (both stem and base)
(friend) -ly. (stem/base + suffix)
un-(friend)-ly) (base + prefix)

The chief processes of English word-formation by which the base may be modified are:

1. Affixation
 - a) adding a prefix to the base, with or without a change of word-class.
 - b) adding a suffix to the base, with or without a change of word-class.
2. Conversion, i.e. assigning the base to a different word class without changing its form e.g. drive (verb)———
drive (noun).
3. Compounding, i.e. adding one base to another: e.g. tea + pot
——— teapot.

Prefixes do not generally alter the word-class of the base but suffixes frequently do.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), Appendix I, p.976

The points made above have great relevance to the reason the learner falls into error. First the learner learns quickly to recognise that certain affixes belong to certain grammatical classes. All words that end in -ation for example, he recognises as nouns. Secondly he learns the meaning of certain affixes. He knows that the prefix -un when added to adjectives means 'the opposite of' or 'not'. Thus 'unwise' means 'not wise'. The suffix -ful when added to nouns usually results in adjectives, and the suffix itself means 'having' or 'full of'. Thus 'useful' is an adjective meaning 'having use'. The learner is bound to come across suffixes and prefixes of high frequency and thus he unconsciously 'learns' about them, their use, and their meaning.

The learner however, has limited experience of the target language. He is in contact with English only in the classroom and there, only in the company of the textbook. This limited experience of English cannot provide him with enough material from which he can grasp the rules of word-formation, the occurrence of certain affixes with particular forms to give other forms etc. Moreover in the Living English books, no mention is made of derivation of forms or word-formation. Each new lesson introduces at most six or ten new vocabulary items. At the end of every book, there is a complete list of all the vocabulary items introduced in all the lessons in that book, and their meanings are given in Arabic. The meaning given to each item is the meaning of that item in the particular context in which it is used in the lesson only. No consideration is given to other meanings the item might have in other contexts. If an item can be used both as a verb and as a noun, e.g. dream (verb) - dream (noun) the vocabulary list gives it in this form: ⁽¹⁾

"dream, -ed, -ed (V)	Arabic equivalent
dream, (N)	Arabic equivalent"

Thus, account is taken of only one of the chief processes of word-formation, mainly conversion or what is called 'zero affixation'.

(1) Living English, Book III, p.154

Allen (1958), does not give attention to derivation in his book. Only Thornley (1972), gives time to word-formation in the language exercises that follow each of the comprehension passages in his book. The exercises are of the following type:

"Give (a) the noun of know; (b) the noun of operate;
(c) the adjective of power; (d) the adjective of
wonder; (e) the adverb of sudden." (1)

There are exactly eight out of approximately 208 language exercises in Thornley's book, that deal in one way or another with how to derive one part of speech from another by the addition of an affix. This, clearly, is of no great help to the learner.

As a result, the learner's errors reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalisation and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply. The learner attempts to build up hypotheses about the formation of words in English from his limited experience of them in the classroom, or in the textbook.

The error in (3a) and (3b) is largely due to the wrong choice of passage the textbook writers of the Living English series have made. Lesson 24 in Book III is a poem called "The Little Boy"⁽²⁾. It ends with the lines

"Oh isn't it sad? Oh isn't it sad?
Oh deary, deary me."

The vocabulary list on P.143 gives the meaning of the word 'deary' in Arabic as my dear. The learner has not yet, or has hardly grasped the meaning and use of the item dear, when the textbook writers confuse him by exposing him to the item deary which has a very limited and specialised use in English. Are we to blame him if he uses the items dear and deary in free variation, especially

(1) Thornley, G.C., (1972), p.15

(2) Living English, Book III, p.67

as the textbook gives the same meaning for both items? When he uses the item as he does in (3a) and (3b) the impression is that it is an error of word-formation. Actually it is not. It is rather an error due to the textbook which appears as a distortion.

Some 'distortions' and particularly spelling errors, are due to the carelessness with which the English school textbooks are typed and printed. There are quite a few misprints in the books. Book III alone has the word flast for flat⁽¹⁾ and decortae for decorate⁽²⁾ among others. One wonders what goes on in the mind of the poor learner when he tries to learn the meaning of a word, or the spelling.

If the errors (3a) and (3b) are not errors due to lack of rule learning, (3c) is definitely an error of faulty generalisation. Suffixation in English is more complicated than prefixation and suffixes frequently alter the word-class of the base. It is convenient to group suffixes according to

- a) the class of word they form i.e. noun suffixes, verb suffixes etc.
- b) the class of base they are typically added to, i.e. denominal (from nouns), deverbal suffixes etc.

On this basis a 'writer' is a deverbal noun (from 'write' (V) + suffix 'er', which is an agential suffix. The suffix -ess is a denominal noun suffix added to animate nouns. The meaning of the suffix is 'female'. Thus waiter + -ess gives waitress. However the base of waitress, murderess, etc., appears in a reduced or truncated form: wait(e)r, and thus we get waitress. On the basis of his experience with items like author and authoress, actor and actress, the learner produces *writress from writer. Writer however, seems to be applied in English to both female and male persons who write.

(1) Living English, Book III, Lesson 19.

(2) Ibid, Lesson 29

The four endings -al, -ic, -ive and -ous are among the most common adjective suffixes in English. They have remained mostly in the borrowed and neo-classical sphere of English vocabulary. They frequently alternate with (or, in the case of -al are added to), noun suffixes of classical origin; -ive is primarily a deverbal suffix, whereas -al, -ic and -ous are primarily denominal. It is impossible to specify a particular meaning for these suffixes: their semantic functions are extremely varied.⁽¹⁾ The noun university comes from the Latin universitas = the whole, a community, a society, a corporation. This in turn became in Old French universite which became in modern French université. The Latin universus means 'all together'. The adjective universal is explained by the Webster⁽²⁾ dictionary as coming from the Latin universalis or universus = all together. The meaning is given as "characteristic of all, or the whole." The adjective from university is therefore not universal. In fact the noun university is used adjectivally as a substantival adjunct to describe anything that pertains to a university e.g. university professor, university education etc. However the 'university' year is better labelled 'academic year' in English. The learner, not knowing the item academic, forms an adjective by adding the -ic suffix to the noun. *Universitic however is non-existent in English. It is to be noticed that both *writress and *universitic could both be classed in the 'potential English Words' class while *deary is difficult to place.

Verb-forming suffixes are very few in English, and we may conveniently sum them up in this way.

- 1) -ify added to nouns, adjectives etc. gives chiefly transitive verbs; e.g. simple = simplify = to make simple. The meaning of the suffix is causative.

(1) Quirk et al, (1972), p.1004

(2) The International Webster New Encyclopedic Dictionary (1971), (1972), (1973).

- 2) -ize added to nouns, adjectives etc. gives chiefly transitive verbs; e.g. legal = legalize = to make legal. The suffix is again causative.
- 3) -en added to adjectives gives transitive and intransitive verbs; e.g. sad = sadden = to make sad.

However, some verbs in English end in -ate like lubricate, participate etc. The nouns that often correspond with these verbs end either in -ant (i.e. participant) for the agentials, or in -ation (i.e. participation) for the 'state' or 'action'. The learner obviously knows the items observation and application. He might or might not know the noun applicant and the adjective observant. He forms the verbs *observate and *applicare from observation and application, on the same pattern as educate, education. What he does not realise is that the verbs from nouns ending in -ation can either end in -fy, -ise, or -ate, and that the application of lexical rules does not necessarily result in acceptable words all the time. He therefore makes the errors in (3e) and (3f). In (3g) the learner seems to want to use an adjective predicatively to describe people as 'complex'. Instead he uses the adjective as a verb in the passive construction and derives the verb *complexated on the pattern of educated.

From the verb to industrialise the learner tries to form the noun. It is actually very difficult to say if the learner knows the verb industrialise and tries to derive the noun from it,⁽¹⁾ or if he knew vaguely the noun industry and wrote it down as industration because he is sure that most nouns end in -ation. If he tried to form the noun from the verb, then he applied the rules of word formation correctly. The resultant word however is not correct because the base/stem of the word is not *industr so that -ation may be added to it to give *industration in (3h).

Again in (3i) the learner has not gone wrong where the rules of word-formation are concerned. The normal way of forming an abstract noun from an adjective in English is by adding the very

(1) It seems in this case that the verb is derived from the noun rather than vice versa.

productive suffix -ness to the adjective. In this case the resultant word is *allergicness. There are exceptions however and the learner does not know most of them. In some cases English prefers the suffixes -ity and -y in the formation of nouns such as sanity and allergy. The learner will probably learn more about exceptions when he has more experience of the language.

The error in (3j) is not as simple as it looks. Both nursery and nursing are English nouns each denoting a different referent. Nursery could mean a room for young children, or a place for rearing plants. Nursing is the art of tending in sickness or taking care of the sick. The learner knows the noun nurse meaning one who tends the sick. He therefore assumes that nursery is the art of tending the sick. He does not think of nursing because the item is difficult. Nursing is a verbal noun ending in -ing, a gerund class of noun ending in -ing rather than a deverbal noun. Because of the complete productivity of the verbal noun category, the relation between verbal nouns and the corresponding verbs is considered to be purely grammatical rather than derivational. Nursing therefore is a gerund which has come to be accepted in English as the name for the science of taking care of the sick.

On the whole, the learner's errors in this section are developmental and show that he has an idea of lexical rules of word-formation except where exceptions are concerned. There are no examples of 'non English' type words. Rather his errors denote the 'potential English words' type. With more experience of the L₂ and more reading, he is bound to learn the rules correctly.

4 Errors in the Use of Compounds

- 4a) This bringing up of a child shows that he must to join university not technical education. (up-bringing)
- 4b) Only the brain-workers should go to university but the others must do technical education (theorists - intellectuals)

- 4c) Of course it is true that everybody prefers the high-life but what can we do in a poor country? (high standard of living).
- 4d) Overpopulation is the main stumbling stone in the way of Egypt. (stumbling block)
- 4e) We see that because of routine everything in the country becomes out-of-order. (disorganised).
- 4f) I ordered a mint cup and sat down to drinking it.
(cup of mint)

Cross-sectional Study	=	123
Stage I	=	9
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

The phenomenon of compounding seems to present the learner with a problem. In the books used by the learner at school, compounds play a small role particularly in the first two books; the number of compounds increases in the following books however, because some of the most common words in English are compounds. Moreover, these compounds are interspersed among almost all parts of speech.

- e.g. Nouns: handkerchief, homework, grand-father
Adjectives: left-handed, half-empty
Verbs: hard-working, well-known
Pronouns: anybody, nothing
Adverbs: tonight, everywhere.
Prepositions: inside, towards

All kinds of syntactic and semantic relations hold between the components of compound words as we can see from the above. However very little attempt has been made by the writers of the textbooks to put any kind of explanation or order into this word making system. Compound words are usually introduced as a whole entity each with the meaning it takes in the linguistic context of the reading passage.

A compound is a unit consisting of two or more bases. There is no one formal criteria that can be used for their general definition in English. We can employ three criteria but even these cannot be used as strict defining criteria.

1) Orthographic Criteria.

Orthographically compounds are written as

- a) Solid e.g. bedroom.
- b) Hyphenated e.g. tax-free.
- c) Open e.g. reading book.

Compounds are usually written solid as soon as they have gained some permanent status. Otherwise there are no safe rules-of-thumb that will help in the choice between these three possibilities.

2) Phonological Criteria

Phonologically, compounds can often be identified as having a main stress on the first element and a secondary stress on the second element. Hence 'blackbird' (a species of bird) has the stress ' — , — in contrast with black bird (a bird which is black) which has the stress , — ' — , i.e. the normal stress pattern for noun phrases consisting of premodifying adjective and a noun head.

3) Semantic Criteria

Semantically compounds differ from ordinary syntactic structures by having a meaning which may be related to, but cannot simply be inferred from the meaning of its parts :

e.g. a darkroom is not just a 'dark room' but a 'room for processing photographs'.

Since the term 'compound' covers a wide range of different relations between bases, none of these criteria can be used as strict defining criteria.

The compound words may be formed as follows:

- 1) Two elements, both simple words, e.g. black board.
- 2) Three elements, all simple words, e.g. son-in-law.
- 3) Two elements, one complex, e.g. adhesive tape.
- 4) Two elements both complex, e.g. cigarette holder.
- 5) Two elements, one, or both compound; e.g. lookout tower, tightrope walker.

The most disturbing fact about English compounds is the irregularity and high complexity of the methods of composition and of the syntactic and semantic relations that hold between the elements composing each word. Transformationalists consider many of the compounds as surface nominalisations etc of deep grammatical structures that are actually phrases or clauses. This is one factor of complexity that confuses the learner. The other main factor is that the process of compounding does not play an important part in Arabic. The few areas where it takes place do not contrast with English. The way in which Arabic handles the different kinds of compounds that abound in English are worthy of mention as in some instances it does cause interference.

Many English compound nouns are rendered either by original nouns that Arabic already has in its stock or by one-word nouns (or adjectives/participles) functioning as nominals traditionally believed to be derived from the triliteral root or from one of its derived forms.

e.g. hand-writing = khaTT.
looker-on = mutafarrig

Some are rendered in Arabic by the structure N + adj/+ (adj) which is the normal order in Arabic

e.g. night-club = malha: layliy

Some are rendered by a syntactic structure of N + prep + N

e.g. part of speech = qism min aqsa:m al-kala:m

By far the greatest number of English compounds are rendered by the Arabic construct of al-ʔiDa:fah which comprises the genitive structure.

e.g. passer-by = 'a:bir sabi:l

Since the Arabic iʔDa:fa can indicate various kinds of semantic relations between components, it renders most kinds of English compound norms.

Compound adjectives are rendered by:

- a) single word adjectives e.g. world-wide = ʔa:lamiy
- b) an adj + adj where the relation is that of co-ordination or qualification e.g. dead-alive = mayyit Hayy
dark blue = azraq GHamiq
- c) a simile with as.....as (Arabic ka) blood-red = aHmar ka-l-damm (red as blood)
- d) relations of N + adj or adj + adj are rendered by a syntactic structure employing a preposition e.g. sea-sick = muSa:b bi duwa:r-l-baHr.
- e) adv + adj compound adjectives are rendered either by means of the possessive or with the help of an intensifier.
e.g. over-ripe = za:ʔid al-nuDg. all-important = muhimm gidan.

The adv + V type (the verb not being a participle) is very foreign to the Arab learner. It is non-existent in Arabic, and its meaning is usually expressed by a verb.

e.g. uphold = sanada (support)

In (4a) the order of the elements of the compound up bringing is reversed on the analogy of the common combination of verb + preposition/adv. in English, In English the verb to raise children is to bring up. The absence of this form of compounding in Arabic reinforces the learner's tendency to form by analogy the abstract noun bringing up from the English V + prep/adv bring up instead of upbringing. Not knowing the English item for professional people who deal in the theory of a subject, the learner coins one of his own. On the pattern of verb + adverbial compound he forms brain-workers i.e. people who work with their brains. The only thing wrong in (4b) is that there is no such item in English as *brain-worker. Again on the pattern of adjective + noun he produces high-life (4c) i.e. the life is high, to mean 'a high standard of living'. Not only does the item not exist in English but semantically it does not reflect the idea of a high standard of living.

In (4d) the learner fails to recognise that stumbling block is a set idiomatic structure and no word which makes up its component parts can be changed. The word stone, although it is very near to the word block, cannot replace the latter item in the set phrase.

In (4e) out-of-order is used to mean lack of organisation. Out-of-order means cannot be used because it does not function, not in a mess or disorganised. The confusion here is again semantic rather than syntactic.

(4f) is very interesting. Mint-cup is a verbless compound made up on the analogy of the pattern tea-cup. It is made up of two noun bases meaning noun (1) is for noun (2) i.e. the cup is for mint. In English there is a difference between teacup i.e. cup for tea and cup of tea i.e. cup containing tea. In Arabic both are rendered by ku:b sha:y or the colloquial

finga:l sha:y

The Arabic structure of al-?iDa:fa renders this item as cup of tea without showing any morphological sign such as the English 's, or even a syntactic sign such as the genitive of. Hence the learner does not make a difference between a tea cup i.e. the vessel, and a cup of tea i.e. the drink. He renders both items as teacup. On this pattern he forms mint cup i.e. a cup containing hot mint as a beverage. It is interesting at this point to look back at the errors in the genitive construction ⁽¹⁾ and look at the learner's errors that contain either omission of the 's genitive when items of this type occur, or the inclusion of the periphrastic 'of' such as in 'sandwiches of meat' where meat sandwiches would be much more appropriate.

The most common type of Arabic syntactic relation used for forming compounds is that of al-?iDa:fa. It is therefore likely that most of the compound nouns in English will be moulded by the learner in the possessive form either with 's or the periphrastic of. It is interesting though that instead of doing that, the learner should drop the possessive completely and use a wrong compound on the basis of another English compound.

5 Un-English Expressions

- 5a) I think I have right in saying that most of people to-day are materialistic.
- 5b) I ride the tram to the university every day.
- 5c) At night when I shut the light, I realised how lonely I am.
- 5d) In the night we see the television.
- 5e) I decided to fill my empty time by reading.
- 5f) After this wonderful day we went to the home.
- 5g) At twelve o'clock we took our bath (we swam in the sea)
- 5h) In the first of this century..... (at the beginning)
- 5i) It is not good for we need to the labour hands (factory workers)
- 5j) After he got what he wants he don't know his friends any more (does not care about his friends)

(1) Cf Chapter III, pp.122-127

Cross-sectional Study	=	220
Stage I	=	10
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	1

Discussion and Explanation

The errors in this section are mainly due to the L₁. Sometimes the nature of English and Arabic interference combine and create problems for the learner. Collocations with lexical items differ considerably from one language to another. The difference between the collocations of some English verbs and those of their Arabic parallels is a source of trouble for the learner.

Have and Be are verbs of very high frequency and they are presented to the learner very early in his language instruction stages. Yet they are very difficult verbs to use in spite of their apparent simplicity. In (5a) the learner uses the verb 'have' in a context which requires the verb 'be'. The Arabic structure equivalent to the English

I am right
is
'indi-Haqq

This literally equals

I have right

Thus the learner selects the verb-form have instead of am because of the Arabic collocation with the noun right. In (5b), the Arabic verb rakiba = rode, is the one that collocates with cars, trains, horses, trams etc. Hence it is used instead of the English verb take, which is normal in this context. The Arabic verb equivalents of open = fataHa, light = sha'ala collocate with the item light when the context requires words such as put on the

light. Knowing that shut is the opposite of open, the learner uses it to mean put off the light in (5c). Again the Arabic verb yuTa:li' = to watch is rarely used in colloquial Arabic when the context is that of watching television. Rather the colloquial verb yetfarrag 'ala = to watch is more common. The learner translates this into the English verb see. Here the complexity of English plays its part in confusing the learner. The act of watching in English implies

- 1) a certain target that one is looking at, and
- 2) the agent is focusing his attention on that target.

This accounts for the use of watch in structures like watch-dog i.e. a guard dog and watch meaning period of duty. See on the other hand has the general implication of viewing or having sight. One can see a lot of things while one is walking in the street but that does not mean that one is 'watching' something in particular. The learner however does not make this difference and finds it easier to give the equivalent of the Arabic verb ra?a = to see.

The cause of the above four errors is therefore due to the fact that verbs in Arabic and English display a contrast. In certain verbal contexts used by the learner, the lexical items in the sentence attract a particular verb that usually collocates with them in English. The learner uses the Arabic verb that collocates with these lexical items in Arabic rather than the English verb. In most cases the Arabic verb is not an equivalent of the English verb because lexical items in different languages attract different verbs. When the learner chooses the verb of his mother-tongue to collocate with the lexical items, he either produces an unacceptable sentence, or a sentence which is understood by native speakers of English, but sounds very un-English.

The errors (5e) to (5j) show no interference from other English forms and are not due to the complexity of English lexical collocations. They are purely translations from Arabic. Leisure

time in colloquial Arabic is literally empty time (5e) or wagt fa:Di. Although the SA verb to swim is sabaHa, the colloquial uses the verb ?istaHama which is literally to bath in the sea. (5g). In the first of this century.... (5h) is literally fi bidayati ha:dha-l-qarn and labour hands (5i) is ?aydi 'a:mila. When one ignores someone after having got what one wants out of him, the colloquial expression is ma yi'rafush i.e. not to know him (to pretend he doesn't exist). Hence the learner uses the expression 'he don't know his friends' in (5j). The item home (5f) presents a problem generally for non-speakers of English. Home in English is not only one's house; it is the place where one feels comfortable and at ease, it is the place where one belongs and somehow it is more personal than just an abode. This is why we find such English expressions as home-made, i.e. not only made at home but also special, and at home i.e. at one's ease. In Arabic there is no equivalent of the item home. Dar, bayt and manzil all imply house or abode. The learner therefore uses the item home to mean house. It is common that errors result from too close a translation into English of foreign expressions, whether idiomatic or otherwise. The learner tends to make those errors even at stage III.

6 Confusion of Items on Grounds of Formal Similarity

- 6a) I have to know him and he must know me to (to/too/two).
- 6b) The sun was shining and the sea was quite (quite/quiet)
- 6c) Before he heard he was happy but than everything changed (than/then).
- 6d) Since its a lovely day we shall to go to the beach. (its/it's)

Cross-sectional Study	=	76
Stage I	=	2
Stage II	=	2
Stage III	=	2

Discussion and Explanation

The fact that sometimes items look and sound alike confuses the learner as to their form and function. In (6a) the learner uses a preposition instead of an adverb and in (6b) an adverb instead of an adjective. In (6c) he uses a conjunction instead of an adverb and in (6d) a possessive instead of a contraction of it+the verb be. The learner is not aware of the syntactic and lexical discrepancy that he is creating.

7 The Use of 'General' Items instead of 'Specific' Items and Vice Versa

- 7a) After a while I put on my dress and went home (male speaking).
- 7b) In the evening we put on our best dresses and go out (clothes).
- 7c) At the beach we put the sea-dress. (swimming suit).
- 7d) The street was not big and there was no place for the lorry (wide).
- 7e) The road from Cairo to Alexandria is big and takes two hours (long).
- 7f) The big countries control the poor ones (powerful).
- 7g) The man in the taxi driving very quickly (cab-driver).
- 7h) The man there told her that she was a thief (policeman, officer).
- 7i) The man in the airport was searching for a gun (customs officer).
- 7j) At lunch I make the food for all (cook).
- 7k) Before leaving for the university I make the house (tidy up).
- 7l) When I saw her I make myself that I don't know her (pretend).
- 7m) Old history tells us how the old man lives (ancient, primitive).
- 7n) My parents have old ideas (old fashioned).
- 7o) They follow a life of the old ways (traditional).

Cross-sectional Study	=	147
Stage I	=	13
Stage II	=	4
Stage III	=	0

Discussion and Explanation

There are several little groups of 'specific' words that can be represented by one 'general' word. This general word can be substituted for any of the other words in the little group, and still give the same meaning except for one little change. In effecting the replacement of a member of the group with the general word, we lose the 'specific' meaning of the former. An example will clarify matters. The item man is a general word. It may be substituted for any of the following items: sailor, priest, engineer, cab-driver. The sentence

a) I saw the priest this morning.

can easily be replaced by

b) I saw the man this morning.

The only change in meaning that occurs is that whereas in sentence (b) we do not know what is the 'specific' nature of the man's job, (which might have relevance to the context in which the words were uttered), in sentence (a) we know that the 'man' is a 'priest' and not the 'cab-driver'. The quality of 'specific' meaning is lost because 'man' is a more general common noun. It is this 'generalness' that makes it possible for it to cover the wide semantic fields of all the words in the group. The items 'sailor' and 'priest' are more specific and more specialised in their semantic areas. These specific words are always defined by reference to the 'general' word. Thus a carpenter is a man who works with wood, designing it into doors, furniture, windows etc. The 'general' words cover a much greater semantic field that includes the semantic areas of the 'specific' words.

While learning vocabulary, the learner is bound to learn more general words than specific words at first. As a result, when he does not know that 'a man who makes clothes' is a 'tailor' for example, he tends to use the word man instead of tailor in his productive language. The errors he tends to make are of three kinds.

1) He either takes a general word with a fairly general semantic field in English and restricts it to the status of a specific word in his productive language, or,

2) He violates the rules of 'general' words in English and chooses one of the specific words and makes that word perform as a general word, or,

3) He misuses a word that is fairly general in meaning by making it cover ideas that are not really included in it.

In (7a) to (7c) the learner makes the specific item dress function for the general word clothes which includes trousers, shirts, swim suits, men's clothing as well as women's clothing, etc. Although the learner is taught early in the language course that 'dress' is an item denoting a woman's clothing he still uses it to cover all clothing. Here the English items to get dressed, to dress up, to dress well, etc., may act as distractors and make him produce this error but we think this is unlikely. We really can find no reason for the shift in the meaning of this item.

In (7d) to (7f) the item big is used for wide, long and powerful. Big is an item of high frequency and is very easily learnt. It is understandable that the learner may substitute big for the item wide as the denotation of both items is not far from being similar i.e. both denote spacious

areas. The idea of a long stretch of road is also covered by big for the learner. Here the distractor acting upon the learner's mind is again the concept of space or 'large area'. With powerful however a shift has taken place in the learner's semantics. A country that is powerful obtains its power from wealth and a strong army. Both the two major powers in the world are large from the point of view of area of land. So in the learner's mind the powerful countries are big. He therefore uses big to cover the idea of powerful.

In (7g) to (7i) the general word man is used for the specific words cab-driver, policeman and/or officer, and customs officer. Obviously the general word is used, either because the learner is not acquainted with the specific word (e.g. customs officer) or because he is not sure of the correct specific word.

The verb make in (7j) to (7l) is used as a general word meaning to 'carry out an action' for specific items like cook, tidy up and pretend. Where the substitution for cook is concerned the learner may be influenced by expressions like to make a cake. Cook also means to prepare as food i.e. make into cooked food. To make the house may come from the colloquial Arabic

?a'mil-l-beit = literally to make or do the house
i.e. to tidy up

The circumlocution I make myself that (I don't know her) used for pretend, could be again attributed to colloquial Arabic; but in this case one hesitates to say that the cause of error is mother-tongue interference. Fitikides⁽¹⁾ whose book is designed to meet the requirements of students whose mother-tongue is not English, includes the expression

(1) Fitikides, (1963), (First published 1936), p.45

to make oneself that (meaning pretend) under the Chapter headed 'Misused Forms : Un-English Expressions'. His book is not designed for the Arab learner but for foreign language learners of different nationalities learning English. Therefore the lexical errors which he has observed and singled out are made by other than Arab learners as well as Arab learners. Make seems to be an item that is very 'general' in comparison to other more 'specific' action items like 'drive' or 'sew'. That is why the learner finds it easier to use when he does not know the specific items that denote specific actions.

The item old again is a fairly easy item of high frequency that covers the sense of 'characteristics associated with age'. It is certainly easier to learn than words like ancient and primitive (7m) and the learner uses it because it is related to the concept of 'having existed or originated long ago'. The item old also combines with other items to give totally different lexical items. Old-fashioned means out-of-date. The learner uses old in the sense of old-fashioned and traditional (in 7n and 7o) because firstly traditional and old-fashioned are related in the sense that both mean 'related or derived from a former era', and old is related to both because anything that relates to a former era must be old. The learner uses the easier word old because he may or may not know the other items.

8 Misuse of an Item in the Case of One-to-Several Correspondence between Arabic and English

- 8a) I will work because I like to win and spend money (earn).
- 8b) All the countries in Africa are late countries (not developed).
- 8c) The university life learn us how to deal with the life (teaches).
- 8d) We played funny plays on the beach like spin the bottle (games).

8e) In the examinations I did a lot of mistakes and did not pass (made).

Cross-sectional Study	=	204
Stage I	=	12
Stage II	=	5
Stage III	=	3

Discussion and Explanation

The errors in this section are misuses of words due to the fact that an Arabic word has several equivalents in English. In (8a) the item win cannot be used in English if one is talking about working in order to acquire money. Rather the item earn collocates with money in that context. The verb kassiba is used in Arabic for either earning money, winning a game, an election campaign, or respect. The learner uses the equivalent of the Arabic verb that he knows best in a context which does not allow it. In (8b) the Arabic item muta?khera (late) which collocates with bila:d to literally give late countries meaning underdeveloped countries, is translated into English giving a ridiculous effect to the learner's sentence.

The verb learn in (8c) is used for the verb teach. In Arabic both the verb teach and the verb learn are represented by 'allama. To convey the differences in meaning one uses a different stem form of the verb. The learner confuses these two verb meanings. Sometimes substitutions are made by the learner because he often feels that the members of such pairs as teach and learn are synonyms, despite every attempt to demonstrate that they have contrastive meanings. The confusion is sometimes attributable to premature contrastive presentation. Text-books very often contrast teach and learn, do and make (8e), come and go and bring and take. The exercises usually

used are in the following form:

"Choose the correct word in the following sentences"

I go to school to (learn/teach) English

I (make/do) my homework every evening.

These exercises reinforce the substitution that the learner tends to make. Thus constant attempts to contrast items can have results different from those we intend.

The Arabic item for game is lu'ba. The verb to play is la'iba. Thus the learner uses the one item he is familiar with, i.e. play, to express the idea of game in (8d).

The verbal context in (8f) requires the use of make and not do. These two verbs may be the most difficult for an Arab learner to distinguish between. Whether the more formal Arabic verbs Sana'a and fa'ala, or the colloquial verb 'amala, are considered as equivalents to these English verbs, confusion is apt to take place. This is because the English and Arabic verbs collocate with different items. The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary of Current Usage gives the equivalent of do as 'amila and fa'ala.⁽¹⁾ For make, the same dictionary gives Sana'a and 'amila.⁽²⁾ Sana'a and fa'ala are rarely used nowadays in Arabic, but the verb 'amila is very common. Hence the learner uses the verbs do and make in free variation in English disregarding the different items that collocate with them. Here the difficulty of the English verbs themselves plus the factor of negative transfer from Arabic is expected to result in confusion and perplexity anyway.

(1) p. 344

(2) p. 738

9. Confusion of Items on Grounds of Similarity of Meaning

- 9a) The Studies at the English department are hard (difficult).
9b) It was a very glad day that we spent it there (happy).
9c) Marriage is a responsibility which I have to hold and forget about my dreams (carry).
9d) I hope you the best time in Cairo (wish).
9e) To do our duty and cheer progress we should support the government (encourage).
9f) I immediately went to his room to remember him of his appointment (remind).
9g) He said to him the story of that how he found the money (told).
9h) We have to grow our country in many ways (develop).
9i) I did a big cake for my friends (made).
9j) My dear parents,
How do you do?..... (How are you?)

Cross-sectional Study	=	326
Stage I	=	25
Stage II	=	10
Stage III	=	7

Discussion and Explanation

The errors here are the result of a confusion in the learner's mind created by the similarity of meaning that some items can have. The source of error appears to be interference from other English forms. Although these other forms may have similar meanings, the contexts in which they are used do not permit the use of other items although these might mean practically the same thing. In (9a) one just cannot apply the predicative adjective hard to the item studies although the item difficult may be

exchanged by hard in some contexts and still be acceptable. In this particular context however, English does not allow this free exchange. In (9b) the learner uses happy and glad interchangeably because his textbook gives the meaning of happy as glad. However, glad is an adjective that cannot be used attributively as happy can. Whereas to hold is very similar to to carry in meaning where lifting something is concerned, hold implies clasping something whereas carry implies conveying something. In other words, hold is a more stationary kind of verb while carry implies mobility. Metaphorically used hold cannot be substituted for carry. Idioms are set phrases whose items cannot be exchanged at will. This is where the learner goes wrong in (9c) as one does not hold a responsibility but carries a responsibility.

The difference between hope and wish is very subtle. Whereas one can wish for luck for someone else, one cannot hope for good luck for someone else. Wish, in other words, implies that the wishing could be done by someone for something to happen to someone else. Hoping does not include this concept, but is rather confined to hoping that something will happen to oneself. This is why one cannot hope for good times for someone else in (9d).

We suspect that the learner uses the word cheer for encourage because both are represented by one item in Arabic, yushagi'. However whereas encourage carries connotations of actually driving someone (for an extended period) towards achieving a goal, cheer simply implies physical clapping or other, exclusive of the concept of driving towards achieving a goal over an extended period of time (9e).

To remember is a purely mental action done by the person himself. To remind on the other hand implies the participation of two persons, one that reminds someone of something and one that is to be reminded of something. The difference between them is very subtle and cannot be easily

perceived by the learner as in (9f). Again, whereas the verb to tell implies the sense of recounting a tale, to say has no such implication. To say is used when referring to a person's actual words, and in indirect speech if the sentence does not contain an indirect object. To tell is used in indirect speech when the sentence contains an indirect object (9g). In (9h) the learner mixes up the verb to grow with to develop. To grow means to become bigger. But that is not its only meaning. Grow can mean to cultivate as in

Cotton grows in Egypt

It can also mean to cause to grow as in

We grow flowers in our garden.

A third meaning is to allow to grow as in

He grew a beard.

In a sense the last three meanings of to grow carry implications of 'development'. This concept confuses the learner and he uses to grow in a context where only to develop is compatible.

Again in (9i) we come to the controversial verbs do and make. To make primarily means to construct or manufacture something while to do means to accomplish a thing. The word cake always collocates with make and never with do. The similarity of concept behind the two verbs is very perplexing for the learner.

The last error (9j) is that of confusion between the two expressions How do you do and How are you. Whereas how are you is a normal way of asking after somebody's health, How do you do is a very formal expression which is said when one is introduced to a person for the first time. The answer to How do you do is also How do you do. Not only is

it stiff and formal, but it is dropping out of use. The learner wrongly assumes that how do you do means how are you, because both apparently ask after someone's health.

On the whole, errors in lexis presented a much less homogeneous material for study than errors in grammar. Nevertheless we think that there were enough errors and a variety of sources that were worthy of treatment, as they might seriously hamper the learner's language progress.

C H A P T E R I X

STATISTICAL AND OTHER CONCLUSIONS

I Cross-Sectional Study

Frequency Count and Comparative Percentage

	<u>Non- Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Stage I Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>THE NOUN PHRASE</u>				
1) Incorrect Inflection of Uncountable Noun.	298	29.0%	24	24.4%
2) The Use of an -ing Noun Instead of an Abstract Noun.	221	21.5%	19	19.3%
3) The Use of an Abstract Noun Instead of the Bare Infinitive	127	12.3%	11	11.2%
4) Errors in the Use of Quantifiers	567	55.3%	52	53.0%
5) Use of the Singular Demonstr- ative with a Plural Head and Vice Versa	297	28.9%	28	28.5%
6) Errors in the Use of the Genitive	271	26.4%	23	23.4%
7) Errors in the Use of the Non- Definite Article	254	24.7%	22	22.4%
8) Errors in the Use of the Definite Article	356	34.7%	30	30.6%

	<u>Non- Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Stage I Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
9) Adjective inflected as Noun	110	10.7%	9	9.1%
10) Use of Singular Pronoun for Plural Ante- cedant	355	34.6%	36	36.7%
11) Errors in the Use of the Pronominal System	164	16%	15	15.3%
12) An Error in the Word Order of the NP.	178	17.3%	9	9.1%
13) Graphological Errors in the NP	201	19.6%	7	7.1%

THE VERB PHRASE

14) Errors in Aspect	213	20.7%	16	16.3%
15) Errors in the Inflection of the VP (Active)	763	74.4%	72	73.4%
16) Errors in the Passive Voice. (Inflection)	254	24.7%	32	32.6%
17) Errors in the Sequence of Tenses	998	97.3%	94	95.9%
18) Use of the Gerund instead of the Marked Infinitive and Vice Versa	174	16.9%	12	12.2%
19) Use of a Phrasal Verb Instead of a Single-Word Verb	191	18.6%	23	23.4%

	<u>Non- Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Stage I Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
20) Use of a Single Word Verb instead of a Phrasal Verb	263	25.6%	23	23.4%
21) Use of the Wrong Adverbial Particle	165	16.0%	12	12.2%

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

22) Use of a Preposition When None is Needed	401	39.1%	35	35.7%
23) Omission of the Preposition	801	78.1%	75	76.5%
24) The Use of the Wrong Preposition	521	50.8%	47	47.9%
25) Graphological Errors in the P.P.	71	6.9%	4	4.08%

THE ADJUNCT

26) Use of Adjectives Instead of Adverbs and Vice Versa	265	25.8%	22	22.4%
27) Wrong Use of Adverb Form Inflections	158	14.2%	14	14.2%
28) The Wrong Use of Adjuncts	322	31.4%	23	23.4%
29) Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts	231	22.5%	18	18.3%
30) Duplication of Adjuncts	273	26.6%	23	23.4%
31) The Dangling Modifier	296	28.8%	43	43.8%

	<u>Non- Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Stage I Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
<u>THE SENTENCE/CLAUSE LEVEL</u>				
32) Concord	1449	141.3%	132	134.6%
33) Errors in the Relative Clause	364	35.5%	27	27.5%
34) Simplex Clause for Complex Clause	411	40.0%	38	38.7%
35) Reported Speech Errors	298	29.0%	37	37.7%
36) Errors in the Comparative	316	30.8%	21	21.4%
37) The Use of 'For' in Clauses of Cause	150	14.6%	9	9.18%
38) Errors in the Use of Co-ordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions	152	14.8%	11	11.2%
39) Errors in Conditioning	196	19.12%	22	22.4%
40) Errors in the Verb to Be (Clause Level)	203	19.8%	16	16.3%
41) Errors in the Transitivity System	431	42.0%	36	36.7%
42) Errors in Case	299	29.1%	21	21.4%
43) Errors in the Interrogative Mood	312	30.4%	21	21.4%
44) Errors in Polarity	51	4.9%	3	3.06%
<u>THE LEXIS</u>				
45) Errors Resulting	211	20.5%	3	3.06%
46) Items that give the Wrong Association in the Target Culture	114	11.1%	10	10.2%

	<u>Non- Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Stage I Specialist Nr.of Errors</u>	<u>Percent</u>
47) Errors in Word Formation	178	17.3%	13	13.2%
48) Errors in the Use of Compounds	123	12.0%	9	9.1%
49) Un-English Expressions	220	21.4%	10	10.2%
50) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Formal Similarity	76	7.4%	2	2.0%
51) Use of General Items Instead of Specific Items	147	14.3%	13	13.2%
52) Misuse of an Item in case of One-to-Several Correspondence between Arabic and English	204	19.9%	12	12.2%
53) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Similarity of Meaning	326	31.8%	25	25.5%
	<hr/>		<hr/>	
TOTAL	15,990		1,364	
	<hr/>		<hr/>	

ANALYSIS

In the cross-sectional study we have set ourselves the following tasks:⁽¹⁾

- 1) To examine the English of the entrants to the various faculties and find out what the areas of lexical and syntactical difficulties in their language are.
- 2) To pin-point areas of difficulty common to the specialists of Stage I and the non-specialists.
- 3) To find out if the specialists have less areas of difficulty than the non-specialists.
- 4) To see if the areas of difficulty are the same or different in the language of the specialist and the non-specialist.
- 5) To find out whether the students who want to specialise in English have a better command of the language and are better equipped to specialise or not.

I After having examined the data we came out with fifty-three systematic types of errors that occur in the language of both the specialist and the non-specialist. The fifty three types of error are listed in our frequency count. Out of the fifty three error types only nine are systematic lexical errors and the rest are syntactical errors. This is probably because the area of the lexis is very wide and difficult to examine, (in fact almost impossible) and the data presented a less homogeneous material for lexical study than it did for syntactical study. Moreover the type of test we

(1) See Chapter II, pp. 37-38

have used, that of free production, necessarily places the choice of lexical items under the control of the learner; the non-use of a lexical item therefore does not mean that the learner knows how to use it, but it may be a sign that he finds it more difficult to use than items which are used correctly or incorrectly. Still it is very difficult to come to any conclusions about the learner's control of lexical items from a very small study such as ours. What we are sure of is that he falls into error in the nine areas that we have come up with.

2 Where the areas of difficulty are concerned we have found that the specialist and the non-specialist have the 53 areas in common. This is what we expected, as all the learners have more or less been to the same type of school, and have gone through the same English Language syllabus set by the government. As stated by the government, teachers should follow the aural/oral approach using the same set books. Moreover the learners have had the same number of years of English instruction (except for a few who have been to foreign language medium schools) and they all share the same mother-tongue.

3 The specialists of Stage I do not have less areas of difficulty than the non-specialists. There is a difference however, in the degree of difficulty with some of the areas as our comparative percentage list shows. This we shall discuss shortly under Item Analysis.

4 The non-specialists do not have areas of difficulty peculiar to them; however they tend to make significantly more errors in some areas than the specialists.

5 One cannot really conclude that the specialists are better equipped to specialise in English forthrightly. One can only say that their manipulation of language structures is of a more advanced stage. Because they use complex sentence structures we see that their errors are sometimes more frequent in the areas that involve the complex clauses. This however is a healthy sign, if we believe that the learner only learns through his errors and grappling with the complex rules of the language he is learning.

Item Analysis

It is only by analysing the items and their percentage of occurrence that we can see the subtle shades of difference between the language of the specialists and the non-specialists. The items can be grouped under three headings:

- A Areas in which the language of the specialist and the non-specialist are alike.
- B Areas in which the non-specialist tends to make significantly more errors.
- C Areas in which the specialist makes more errors.

We notice that in our comparative percentage list there is a difference of about 1-4 percent in the frequency of occurrence of an error type between the specialist and the non-specialist. On the whole the specialist always seems to be better off than the non-specialist. This we attribute to the higher number of learners from foreign language medium schools in Stage I, who have had twelve years of English instruction instead of the non-specialist's six years.⁽¹⁾ So as to judge fairly we shall arbitrarily

(1) See our tables in Chapter II, pp. 65-66.

class any error type that has less than a 5% margin as an error that is common to the specialist and the non-specialist and causes the same degree of difficulty. This may make up for the fact that there are more learners who have been to English language medium schools amongst the specialists. It is expected anyway that students who have been to English language medium schools should want to specialise in English. Any error whose margin is 5% or above 5% will be classed either as belonging to heading B or C according to its relevance.

A Areas which cause the same Amount of Difficulty to Both the Specialist and the Non-Specialist

Under this heading we class items number 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 32, 34, 38, 39, 40, 41, 44, 46, 47, 48 and 51. Out of the fifty three areas of difficulty thirty-four cause problems of the same degree for both the specialist and the non-specialist. We notice that they are the majority of errors types.

B Areas in which the Non-Specialist Makes Significantly More Errors

Under this heading we can include items number 1, 8, 12, 13, 28, 33, 36, 37, 42, 43, 45, 49, 50, 52 and 53. Therefore in fifteen out of fifty-three areas of difficulty, the non-specialist tends to make significantly more errors than the specialist.

C Areas in Which the Specialist Significantly makes more Errors

Under this section we include items number 16, 19, 31 and 35.

Discussion

We notice that where the noun phrase is concerned nine out of the thirteen types of errors are common to the specialists and non-specialists. The remaining four give more trouble to the non-specialist. Looking at these we find that they are:

- 1) Incorrect inflection of uncountable Noun.
- 8) The incorrect Use of the Definite Article.
- 12) An Error in the Word Order of the NP.
- 13) Graphological Errors in the NP.

Having had more contact with English (the specialists all come from the literary sections in the schools and have had more hours of English) the learner probably is more in command of inflections in the uncountable Nouns and the graphological errors in the NP. He has more mastery of the use of the definite article. As for the error in the word order of the NP, it occurred in the data of students who chose the topic in form of a letter. More students in the non-specialist study chose that topic than the specialists, again probably because they have had this same topic before at school. We notice that this error comes from the L_1 . The non-specialist is therefore more likely to make errors of negative transfer. In the use of the definite article, the non-specialist is very much influenced by his L_1 .

As for the errors in the VP the specialist makes more errors where the passive voice and the phrasal verbs are concerned. This is because his language is a bit more sophisticated than the non-specialist's and he tends to use the passive construction and phrasal verbs much more than the non-specialist. In his attempt at using these more complex constructions and verbs, he falls into error.

The prepositions seem to give both the specialist and the non-specialist equal trouble. It is a very complex area and one which always remains a semi-permanent problem even with Stage III in the developmental study.

The Adjunct on the other hand gives the non-specialist more trouble than the specialist. He tends to use more incorrect adjuncts as this again is a very complicated area of the language. That is why he does not make use of modifiers. We see that the specialist makes courageous attempts at complex sentence structure and thus makes many more errors of 'the dangling modifier' type.

The clause gives the non-specialist great trouble in five areas. They concern the relative clause, the use of the comparative, the clauses of cause, Case and the Interrogative Mood. These involve complex sentence structure in which the non-specialist seems inexperienced. He does not for example use reported speech structure which, on the other hand, the specialist often makes use of and hence commits more errors. Both the specialist and non-specialist are very weak where polarity is concerned although this does not show on our count. This is only because the topics did not call for straightforward dialogue in which answers to questions and tag questions could be used. A proof that the specialist has more experience of English is that whereas the non-specialist seems to have trouble with the lexis (probably through lack of reading in English) the

specialist seems to make less lexical errors; the areas that he has trouble with are to do with compounds and word-formation. However, where un-English expressions are concerned (item 49) he has not got so many problems.

On Item 9 we expected the specialist to have less errors. This error comes purely from the L_1 and yet we even found it at Stage III. We also did not expect the specialist to have such a high rate of errors on item (40) which is again an error of negative transfer from the Arabic nominal sentence. On the whole, however, we can say that the specialist's errors are of a more sophisticated kind and at a more advanced level of language learning in some areas than the non-specialist's. He might have more experience of the language than the non-specialist but certainly the areas of difficulty that trouble the non-specialist trouble him as well. Given the right English instruction and a great deal of remedial work, he will fare well.

II DEVELOPMENTAL STUDY

Frequency Count

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>	<u>Total</u>
<u>THE NOUN PHRASE</u>				
1) Incorrect Inflection of Uncountable Nouns	24	6	4	34
2) The Use of an <u>-ing</u> Noun instead of an <u>Abstract</u> Noun	19	11	7	37
3) The Use of an <u>Abstract</u> Noun instead of the <u>Bare</u> <u>Infinitive</u>	11	9	8	28
4) Errors in the Use of <u>Quantifiers</u>	52	21	8	81
5) Use of the <u>Singular</u> <u>Demonstrative</u> with a <u>Plural</u> <u>Head</u> and <u>Vice Versa</u>	28	7	3	38
6) Errors in the Use of the <u>Genitive</u>	23	6	4	33
7) Errors in the Use of the <u>Non-Definite</u> Article	22	7	3	32
8) Errors in the Use of the <u>Definite</u> Article	30	26	15	71
9) <u>Adjective</u> Inflected as <u>Noun</u>	9	4	3	16
10) Use of <u>Singular</u> Pronoun for <u>Plural</u> Antecedant	36	22	18	76
11) Errors in the Use of the <u>Pronominal</u> System	15	7	7	29
12) An Error in the <u>Word Order</u> of of the <u>NP</u>	9	3	0	12
13) <u>Graphological</u> Errors in the <u>NP</u>	7	4	0	11
TOTAL	<u>285</u>	<u>133</u>	<u>80</u>	<u>498</u>

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>	<u>Total</u>
<u>THE VERB PHRASE</u>				
14) Errors in Aspect	16	11	2	29
15) Errors in the Inflection of the VP (active)	72	32	19	123
16) Errors in the Passive Voice (Inflection)	32	15	4	51
17) Errors in the Sequence of Tenses	94	31	17	142
18) Use of the Gerund instead of the Marked Infinitive and Vice Versa	12	11	6	29
19) Use of a Phrasal Verb instead of a Single Word Verb	23	12	6	41
20) Use of a Single Word Verb Instead of a Phrasal Verb	23	18	10	51
21) Use of the Wrong Adverbial Particle	12	11	4	27
TOTAL	<u>294</u>	<u>141</u>	<u>68</u>	<u>493</u>

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

22) Use of a Preposition When None is Needed	35	15	14	64
23) Omission of the Preposition	75	16	7	98
24) The Use of the Wrong Preposition	47	34	28	109
25) Graphological Errors in the P.P.	4	3	2	9
TOTAL	<u>161</u>	<u>68</u>	<u>51</u>	<u>280</u>

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>	<u>Total</u>
<u>THE ADJUNCT</u>				
26) Use of Adjectives instead of Adverbs and Vice Versa				
27) Wrong Use of Adverb Form Inflections	14	8	4	26
28) The Wrong Use of Adjuncts	23	5	2	30
29) Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts	18	7	6	31
30) Duplication of Adjuncts	23	18	10	51
31) The Dangling Modifier	43	19	6	68
	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	143	65	33	241
	—	—	—	—

THE SENTENCE/CLAUSE LEVEL

32) Concord	132	46	23	201
33) Errors in the Relative Clause	27	5	2	34
34) Simplex Clause for Complex Clause	38	15	11	64
35) Reported Speech Errors	37	18	16	71
36) Errors in the Comparative	21	1	0	22
37) The Use of 'For' in Clauses of Cause	9	7	6	22
38) Errors in the Use of Coordinating & Subordinating Conjunctions	11	6	3	20
39) Errors in Conditioning	22	15	8	45
40) Errors in the Verb To Be (Clause Level)	16	7	7	30
41) Errors in the Transitivity System	36	14	4	54

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>	<u>Total</u>
42) Errors in Case	21	9	6	36
43) Errors in the Interrogative Mood	21	8	9	38
44) Errors in Polarity	3	2	2	7
	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
TOTAL	394	153	97	644
	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

THE LEXIS

45) Errors Resulting from the Learner's Culture	3	3	0	6
46) Items that give the Wrong Association in the Target Culture	10	6	3	19
47) Errors in Word Formation	13	6	2	21
48) Errors in the Use of Compounds	9	5	3	17
49) Un-English Expressions	10	2	1	13
50) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Formal Similarity	2	2	2	6
51) Use of General Items Instead of Specific Items	13	4	0	17
52) Misuse of an Item in Case of one-to-several Correspondence between Arabic and English	12	5	3	20
53) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Similarity in Meaning	25	10	7	42
	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>
TOTAL	97	43	21	161
	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>

THE VERBIAL AXIS

	<u>Item</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Percent</u>
1)	Concord	201	8.675%
2)	Errors in the Sequence of Tenses	142	6.128%
3)	Errors in the Inflection of the VP (Active)	123	5.308%
4)	The Use of the Wrong Preposition	109	4.704%
5)	Omission of the Preposition	98	4.229%
6)	Errors in the Use of Quantifiers	81	3.495%
7)	Use of Singular Pronoun for Plural Antecedant	76	3.280%
8)	Errors in the Use of the Definite Article	71	3.064%
9)	Reported Speech Errors	71	3.064%
10)	The Dangling Modifier	68	2.934%
11)	Simplex Clause for Complex Clause	64	2.762%
12)	Use of the Preposition when None is Needed	64	2.762%
13)	Errors in the Transitivity System	54	2.330%
14)	Errors in the Passive Voice Inflection	51	2.201%
15)	Use of a Single Word Verb Instead of a Phrasal Verb	51	2.201%
16)	Duplication of Adjuncts	51	2.201%
17)	Errors in Conditioning	45	1.942%
18)	Confusion of Items on Grounds of Similarity of Meaning	42	1.812%
19)	Use of a Phrasal Verb instead of a Single Word Verb	41	1.769%
20)	Use of a Singular Demonstrative with a Plural Head and Vice Versa	38	1.640%

<u>Item</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Percent</u>
21) Errors in the Interrogative Mood	38	1.640%
22) The Use of an <u>-ing</u> Noun instead of an Abstract Noun	37	1.596%
23) Errors in Case	36	1.553%
24) Use of Adjectives instead of Adverbs and Vice Versa	35	1.510%
25) Incorrect Inflection of Uncountable Nouns	34	1.467%
26) Errors in the Relative Clause	34	1.467%
27) Errors in the Use of the Genitive	33	1.424%
28) Errors in the Use of the Non-Definite Article	32	1.381%
29) Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts	31	1.337%
30) The Wrong Use of Adjuncts	30	1.294%
31) Errors in the Verb <u>To Be</u> (Clause Level)	30	1.294%
32) Errors in the Use of the Pronominal System	29	1.251%
33) Errors in Aspects	29	1.251%
34) Use of the Gerund instead of the Marked Infinitive and Vice Versa	29	1.251%
35) The Use of an Abstract Noun instead of the Base Infinitive	28	1.208%
36) Use of the Wrong Adverbial Particle	27	1.165%
37) Wrong Use of Adverb form Inflections	26	1.122%
38) Errors in the Comparative	22	0.949%
39) The Use of 'For' in Clauses of 'Cause'	22	0.949%
40) Errors in Word Formation	21	0.906%
41) Errors in the Use of Co-ordinating and subordinating Conjunctions	20	0.863%

<u>Item</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Percent</u>
42) Misuse of an Item in Case of One-to-Several Correspondence between Arabic and English	20	0.863%
43) Items that give the Wrong Association in the Target Culture	19	0.820%
44) Errors in the Use of Compounds	17	0.733%
45) Use of General Items instead of Specific Items	17	0.733%
46) Adjective Inflected as Noun	16	0.690%
47) Un-English Expressions	13	0.561%
48) An Error in the Word Order of the NP	12	0.517%
49) Graphological Errors in the NP	11	0.474%
50) Graphological Errors in the NP	11	0.474%
50) Graphological Errors in the P.P.	9	0.388%
51) Errors in Polarity	7	0.302%
52) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Formal Similarity	6	0.258%
53) Errors Resulting from the Learner's Culture	6	0.258%
	<hr/>	
GRAND TOTAL OF ERRORS	2,317	

Analysis

As we expected, each item had a relatively high frequency in Stage I and diminished accordingly along the line. However the steady cline can be deceptive. Although the items show a gradual diminution in the frequency of occurrence as the learner goes up the educational ladder we observe two main trends:

A Items in which there is a drastic reduction in the frequency of occurrence in the higher stages such as:

Item	S t a g e s		
	I	II	III
Omission of the Preposition	75	16	7
Errors in the Relative Clause	27	5	2

B Those in which there is a very gradual reduction in the frequency of occurrence in the higher stages, such as:

Item	S t a g e s		
	I	II	III
The Use of the Wrong Preposition	47	34	28
Reported Speech Errors	37	18	16

After examining our analysis we come to the conclusion that the majority of the items that belong to the 'A' group involve what we may call temporary ungrammaticality. With these items of structure the learners' written language improves with university education and increased contact with English. But, when, as in the case of the 'B' group, the deviation involves some of the finer aspects of language, such as a choice between a number of denotationally similar adjuncts, then the approximation of the learner's language to the British Standard is not as dramatic.

Furthermore, some of the items in the 'B' group are items that do occur in the English of the not-so-very-well educated native speaker of English, and constitute a major part of what grammarians call unacceptable slip-shod speech. Such items include the citations under the Use of Phrasal Verb instead of Simplex Verb, the Gerund used instead of the Marked Infinitive, and the Use of 'For' in clauses of Cause. Advocaters of 'correctness' insist on the need to maintain the finer rules of usage in these items of structure. Therefore we propose that while the items included under group 'A' are ungrammatical, those in 'B' are sometimes not only ungrammatical but are unacceptable in the sense that the normative grammarians would find them.

On these grounds the division of the items into 'A' and 'B' groups becomes meaningful. The 'A' group, consisting of items that diminish drastically with further education we propose to call Temporary Problems for the Learner, while the 'B' group we shall call the Semi-Permanent Problems of the learner. With time and learning most but not all of the problems in the 'A' group diminish and indeed sometimes vanish altogether. However there is no guarantee that the semi-permanent problems of the 'B' group will ever vanish; they might diminish with time and learning but when they do, the rate is slight. The 'B' group therefore are more of a problem for the learner since they persist for much longer than the latter.

We are, therefore, proposing two different axes of difficulty assessment, a vertical axis and a horizontal axis. The vertical axis is seen in the table drawn up on p.517. Its main measure is the number of errors in the whole of the data of the developmental study. The degree of difficulty is measured according to the number of times

a particular error occurs in the data as a whole.

The horizontal axis takes each error and compares it across the stages in the cline. If the decrease in its frequency count is 'significant', then it is only a temporary problem. But if the difference in occurrence between the stages is not 'significant' then it is a semi-permanent problem.

The question here arises as to what we mean by 'significant' in this context. We shall arbitrarily consider as significant a distributional pattern in which the frequency count of the error for Stage III is equal to a third of the frequency count for Stage I. Thus if Item X occurs 21 times in Stage I but only 7 times in Stage III then the decrease is significant. According to this, Item X is only a temporary problem. But if the difference between the counts is higher than a third, i.e. if Item Y occurs 15 times in Stage I and 7 times in Stage III then the decrease is not significant enough, and the problem is semi-permanent. Within this framework we shall draw up two tables 'A' and 'B' overleaf.

We have found that some of the items were borderline cases, i.e. they were either just below the third or just above it, thus fulfilling the conditions for inclusion in 'B'. We have therefore appended them to 'B'. For ease of reference it would be better for us to retain the same numbering of the items in our frequency count. We shall take as one third 33.3%

THE HORIZONTAL AXIS

A Temporary Problems

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
1) Incorrect Inflection of Uncountable Noun	24	6	4
4) Errors in the Use of Quantifiers	52	21	8
5) Use of Singular Demonstrative with a Plural Head and Vice Versa	28	7	3
6) Errors in the Use of the Genitive	23	6	4
7) Errors in the Use of the Non- Definite Article	22	7	3
12) An error in the Word Order of the NP	9	3	0
13) Graphological Errors in the NP	7	4	0
14) Errors in Aspect	16	11	2
15) Errors in the Inflection of the VP (Active)	72	32	19
16) Errors in the Passive Voice Inflection	32	15	4
17) Errors in the Sequence of Tenses	94	31	17
23) Omission of the Preposition	75	16	7
26) Use of Adjectives instead of Adverbs and Vice Versa	22	8	5
28) The Wrong Use of Adjuncts	23	5	2
31) The Dangling Modifier	43	19	6
33) Errors in the Relative Clause	27	5	2
36) Errors in the Comparative	21	1	0
41) Errors in the Transitivity System	36	14	4

	<u>Stage I</u>	<u>Stage II</u>	<u>Stage III</u>
45) Errors Resulting from the Learner's Culture	3	3	0
47) Errors in Word Formation	13	6	2
49) Un-English Expressions	10	2	1
51) Use of General Items instead of Specific Items	13	4	0
52) Misuse of an Item in Case of One-to-Several Correspondence between Arabic and English	12	5	3
B	<u>Semi-Permanent Problems</u>		
2) The Use of an <u>-ing</u> Noun instead of an Abstract Noun	19	11	7
3) The Use of an Abstract Noun instead of the Bare Infinitive	11	9	8
8) Errors in the Use of the Definite Article	30	26	15
10) Use of a Singular Pronoun for Plural Antecedant	36	22	18
11) Errors in the Use of the Pronominal System	15	7	7
18) Use of the Gerund instead of the Marked Infinitive and Vice Versa.	12	11	6
20) Use of a Single Word Verb instead of a Phrasal Verb	23	18	10
22) The Use of a Preposition when None is Needed	35	15	14
24) The Use of the Wrong Preposition	47	34	28
30) Duplication of Adjuncts	23	18	10
32) Concord	132	46	23

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
35) Reported Speech Errors	37	18	16
37) The Use of 'For' in Clauses of Cause	9	7	6
39) Errors in Conditioning	22	15	8
40) Errors in the Verb To Be (Clause Level)	16	7	7
43) Errors in the Interrogative Mood	21	8	9
44) Errors in Polarity	3	2	2
50) Confusion of Items on Grounds of Formal Similarity	2	2	2

The following come very close to being considered as semi-permanent errors because their standard deviation from Stage I count comes to just a scratch below the 33.3%

	Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
9) Adjective Inflected as Noun	9	4	3
19) Use of a Phrasal Verb instead of a Single Word Verb.	23	12	6
21) Use of the Wrong Adverbial Particle	12	11	4
25) Graphological Errors in the PP	4	3	2
27) Wrong Use of Adverb Form Inflections	14	8	4
29) Wrong Positioning of Adjuncts	18	7	6
34) Simplex Clause for Complex Clause	38	15	11
38) Errors in the Use of Co-ordinating and Subordinating Conjunctions	11	6	3

		Stage I	Stage II	Stage III
42)	Errors in Case	21	9	6
46)	Items that give the Wrong Association in the Target Culture	10	6	3
48)	Errors in the Use of Compounds	9	5	3
53)	Confusion of Items on Grounds of Similarity of Meaning	25	10	7

Having found out the semi-permanent problems of the Egyptian learner, it is interesting to see of what type they are. They are 30 in number, 21 of which are caused by the inherent difficulty present in the English language itself where the particular areas are concerned. The use of prepositions, adjuncts, the interrogative mood, complex clause structure, the gerund and the marked infinitive etc., all have been analysed to show that English itself causes confusion in the learner's mind. The confusion is mostly caused by the other terms of a two way system found in English where the areas are concerned. The other nine semi-permanent problems are caused by negative transfer from the L₁ helped by the teaching method used in the classroom. This is equal to about a third of the error types and ties up with what George⁽¹⁾ and Lance⁽²⁾ have found about L₁ interference. George and Lance claim that only a third of the errors made by foreign learners stem from L₁ interference. We further add to this that for Egyptian learners a third of the areas of difficulty that give them most trouble stem from L₁ interference. The areas that give the learner most trouble are the areas of word-order and sentence construction, seen in items 2, 3, 11, 18, 30, 35, 37, 39, 40, 43, 44, 29, 34, 38 and 42. Other areas are those of the prepositions (items 22 and 24) the articles (item 8) and the adjuncts (item 30). These again are difficulties that stem from the sheer complexity of the English language. Our findings here tie up with Duskova⁽³⁾ who claims that the areas that give most trouble to Czech learners are those of sentence construction, the articles and the prepositions. It is interesting to note that the errors in sentence construction and government in general mostly come from the L₁.

(1) George, H.V., (1972)

(2) Lance, D., (1969)

(3) Duskova, L., (1969)

Morphological errors tend to disappear except for the error involving Concord. We were very much struck to find that errors in the VP inflection, whether active or passive, tend to diminish as the learner moves up the educational ladder. So do errors with the dangling modifier which we expected to be a semi-permanent problem. However one can explain this. As the VP is the area where most foreign learners make the majority of errors under the influence of L_1 , we took particular care to give as detailed as possible a contrastive analysis of the two verbal systems. Yet on analysis we found that most errors of inflection stemmed from other than L_1 sources. They were rather errors of the developmental type resulting from interference between other terms of a two-way English system. The confusion of the past participle and the infinitive for example is due to the fact that in some verbal forms the auxiliary is followed by the past participle (as in perfect tenses and in the passive), in others by the infinitive (as in the future and the conditional). This may lead to doubt as to which form to use. Morphological errors therefore seem to be developmental errors not connected with L_1 . On the whole, the number of morphological errors due to the influence of L_1 (i.e. the genitive, the relative pronouns etc) seems to be small as compared with the number caused by interference between related English forms. These errors the learner sorts out as he moves up the cline of proficiency in the L_2 .

Where the dangling modifier is concerned, the problem is not so easy to explain. It is only at the higher stages that the learner uses complex sentence structures containing modification. That these structures get so very much better as the learner has more contact with L_2 is highly doubtful. They may get better but not to such a degree. Our only explanation for the unusual distribution of errors in this area is that the learner either makes use of the modification structures he masters, or he makes as little use of modification structures as possible. This is a point worthy of further investigation.

We were also very much struck by the diminution of errors in the sequencing of tenses as we expected this to be a semi-permanent problem. However the learner may be using either the past tense or the present in his narration, as the topics would certainly demand so. Still this explanation does not seem to us very plausible and we remain bewildered.

The diminution of errors in the transitivity system was expected by us as the learner is bound to realise that the English sentence is either made up of SVO or SV or SVA etc, sooner or later. Omitting subjects and objects is an error of the immature rather than the mature learner. As for errors in the phrasal verbs, we expected them to remain semi-permanent problems as phrasal verbs are idiomatic and typical of conversational English of a fluent kind. The learner is obviously not as fluent as the native speaker. Although his un-English expressions tend to decrease he cannot use colloquial expressions fluently.

Lastly, it is interesting to note that the semi-permanent problem involving the articles is not concerned with the non-definite article which is not found in the mother-tongue, but with the definite article, the usage of which is so different in the mother-tongue to the English usage. Again we have found that it is difficult to trace the errors in the use of the definite article to L_1 only. Its various uses in English contribute greatly to the confusion of the learner and the confusion never seems to disappear completely.

Another point worthy of notice is that we did not find 'freak' distributions where the learner makes more errors in an area at the higher stages than he does at the lower stages. This could be taken as proof that the teaching at the university is of a constructive kind. Perhaps however the learner's motivation when he joins the English

department is neutral and extrinsic i.e. arising from conditions prevailing in the society towards university education and getting a better job as we have explained in Chapter I. Then, when he gets into the department he becomes interested in his subjects and what he is learning about, and thus his motivation becomes intrinsic arising from reasons within himself. Motivation is one of the most important factors in a person's learning of a foreign language. If it is of the right type it leads to the creation of positive attitudes towards the L_2 and hence learning is greatly improved.

Conclusions

To sum up:

- 1) An error based analysis gives reliable results upon which remedial materials can be constructed.
- 2) A study of the percentage values of different errors gives us an insight into the relative significance of a given error.
- 3) A course based on the frequency of errors will help the teacher to teach at the point of error and to emphasise more those areas where the error frequency is persistent.
- 4) Although the predicting power of contrastive analysis is now seriously questioned and the sources of linguistic interference are not restricted to the native language of the learner, yet we cannot ignore it completely as approximately one third of the learner's errors stem from the L_1 . Contrastive analysis is very useful at the explanatory stage of error analysis.

- 5) Errors of foreign language learners do have a certain systematicity as Corder claims
- 6) Two thirds of the number of errors are due to interference between forms and functions of the language being learned and to psychological causes such as inadequate learning. Overgeneralisation of a pattern (i.e. analogy etc) is one of the main factors of error.
- 7) Interference from mother-tongue patterns and over-generalisation are not always independent factors: the division between errors traceable to L_1 and those that are independent of L_1 interference is not invariably clear-cut.
- 8) Sentences in the mother-tongue that correspond literally to their equivalents in the L2 are not necessarily the easiest to learn and master and the probability of errors cannot be assessed only from the degree of divergence of the two linguistic structures and consequently other factors of difficulty must be hypothesised.
- 9) An important point of consideration is the limitation of error analysis for culturally and linguistically different learners - a topic worth investigating. Error analysis seems to be most appropriate for those learners who have the same background and have already acquired a limited competency in one or several skills of the foreign language. Theoretically it is impossible to prepare materials based on error analysis for language beginners, as they have to 'perform' so that we may find out what the errors are.
- 10) It is important to notice that even if learners have the same cultural and linguistic background, the intelligence, motivation and attitude of one group

may vary significantly from another group. Yet, once certain difficulties of a particular group are pin-pointed, the teacher can teach those items of syntax, morphology and lexis with which the students have most difficulty on a group basis.

- 11) The errors of foreign learners are not clearly cut into deviant forms and non-deviant forms. Between clearly deviant forms which are regarded as errors and the normal forms, there is a whole scale of deviant forms varying in the degree of deviation. This makes it very hard to decide whether or not to regard them as errors.
- 12) In the process of classification of errors some were found to be systematic and therefore significant while others could not be classified at all being unique in character, non-recurrent and not readily traceable to their sources.
- 13) Since the learners were free to choose how to express the given content, some grammatical points such as the articles, the prepositions, the tenses and the plural were bound to occur in all papers while others such as the future tense, appeared only rarely. Thus this study makes no claim to completeness.

C H A P T E R X

SUGGESTIONS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

It is important to state right at the outset that we are not proposing a whole course or syllabus or teaching material for the learner. The scope of this is too vast and beyond this study. We are going to make a few suggestions as to how to teach certain structures that give the learner trouble.

The Need for a Pedagogical Grammar

One very obvious point that emerges from this study is the inadequacy of any one of the existing linguistic models as an effective aid in English language teaching. However linguists never claimed that their work was primarily to be of practical pedagogical significance. They are rather primarily concerned with the accurate description of the 'facts of language'. There are however classroom orientated linguists such as Sinclair, Anderson and Roberts and they claim that the application of linguistics is a question for the teacher himself. A linguistic descriptive grammar is therefore of some use to the teacher but there is a dire need for a pedagogical grammar specially geared to the teaching of English. This pedagogical grammar will have to differ considerably from linguistic grammars in its assumptions, aims and detail.

The pedagogical grammarian must realise that although he may seek help and advice from specialists in the various schools of linguistics and psychology, his task is mainly a pedagogical one. His main aim is not to describe the 'code' but rather the 'use of the code'. He must produce good teaching materials which will fit the situation they are intended for, and allow the learners to learn

quickly and well. This brings in considerations of social, cultural and psychological peculiarities. A pedagogical grammar should further reflect an awareness of the special difficulties of the learners it is designed for. It should therefore distribute its emphasis in such a way that a more serious effort is made to clarify those structures that present the learners with the greatest degree of difficulty. Among these problematic areas are those that we have assigned to the sheer complexity of English. These areas both text-book writers and linguistic grammars seem to glide over, as seen with the positioning of the adjunct, the choosing of the appropriate preposition, mood and aspect in the VP and complex sentence structure. Another important concern of the pedagogical grammar should be with sentences or utterances that are not only grammatical but acceptable. Consider the errors that result from the learner's culture and errors involving the wrong choice of registers. They are grammatical but unacceptable.

The language teacher is interested not only in the context of the lesson but also in the most effective methods by which the material can be put across to his students. Therefore the pedagogical grammarian should be concerned with teaching techniques. Teaching techniques are bound to vary if they are to suit the special circumstances of individual teaching situations. The teacher looks up to the psychologist for help on deciding on the best methods and the psychologist bases his recommendations on his observation of learning processes. In this study we have, in a way, deduced from the data some of the processes the learner employs in learning the L_2 . Perhaps the best way of conducting formal language learning is by maximising the good effects of learning processes already familiar to the learner. We shall therefore propose certain teaching techniques based on these naturally employed methods of learning. We do not presume

however to lay out our recommendations in a complete pedagogical grammar, yet we are hopeful that our recommendations could be made to contribute towards the attainment of such an end.

The Language Learning Process

It is important to outline clearly and briefly the deductions we have been able to make from the analysis as regards the processes employed by the learner in the learning of English. These processes form the basis for and provide the reasoning behind our recommendations here.

The learner operates the following major linguistic processes:

1) Analogy

Sometimes the learner assumes that because two categories in the L_2 share some degree of similarity, they must be treated identically in all circumstances. This is a process of analogy. In analogy the learner operates solely within the confines of the L_2 : the two or more categories that he finds similar are both categories of the L_2 . Similarity is a mixed blessing in language acquisition. It has facilitating effects in some cases making the processing of language material easy, and in others it has retarding effects making it difficult for the learner to make the required distinctions. Examples of this false analogy can be found in the errors under the Use of the Wrong Preposition, Phrasal Verbs, Plurals of Uncountable Nouns and the Gerund Versus the Marked Infinitive. Identifying instances of false analogy is essential for the proper sequencing of material in a lesson. The teacher could then present those items that are being confused together and endeavour to impress their differences on the learner.

2 Overgeneralisation

This is the use of previously available strategies in the L₂ in new situations. It covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of other structures in the target language. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures and may be the result of the learner reducing his linguistic burden. With the omission of the third person -s, over-generalisation removes the necessity for Concord for example, thus relieving the learner of considerable effort. Over-generalisation is associated with redundancy reduction. It may occur with items which are contrasted in the language but which do not carry significant and obvious contrast for the learner. An example of this is the -ed past marker in narrative which often appears to carry no meaning for the learner, since pastness is usually indicated lexically in stories or by the use of adverbs of time.

3 Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

Sometimes the learner fails to observe the restriction rules that apply to certain structures and therefore he applies rules to contexts where they do not apply. This again is connected with over-generalisation as the learner applies a rule that he already knows to a context and violates the limitation on a certain item in certain structures. The error in the relative clause for example "the man who I saw him" violates the limitation on subjects in structures with who.

4 Incomplete Application of Rules

Under this category we may note the occurrence of structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules acquired by the learner to produce acceptable utterances. This can be seen for

example in the learner's trouble with the Use of Interrogative Mood and the Production of Questions. We can see which transformation in the series of transformations required for the production of questions, is missed out.

5 False Concepts Hypothesised

The false concepts hypothesised by the learner derive from faulty comprehension of distinctions in the L_2 . These are sometimes due to poor gradation of teaching items. An example of this is the learner's confusion of too, so and very, where too is taught in association with very to provide a contrast in their use. However the attempt to contrast this related area has the opposite effect on the learner.

5 Transference

Transference has two aspects; the good and the bad. There the learner operates on similarities between his L_1 and the L_2 . The similarities between the two languages can facilitate learning. If the categories in the L_1 are similar in distribution and function to categories in the L_2 , the learner, using the rules of the L_1 does not fall into error. This is positive transfer in which the similarities not only do not cause error but facilitate learning. Transfer may well provide material for those interested in language universals.

The more common side of transference however is negative interference. Undoubtedly the L_1 influences the L_2 . Where the distribution and functions of categories and grammatical features differ in the L_1 and the L_2 , error results. This, we are constantly made to believe, should make us shut out the L_1 completely from the classroom. But even if we do

shut it out, the potency of its structures as influencing forces do not disappear because the L₁ is solidly and permanently ingrained in the language learner's brain. Interference is therefore an inevitable part of foreign language learning. It is therefore more sensible to accept this fact and make the best of it. Since interference is inevitable we should try and find out how to make positive use of it in the classroom.

7 Translation

Translation from one language into the other seems to be as inescapable as interference. It occurs mainly on the level of prepositions and idiomatic expressions.

Language teaching in formal conditions can be broken down into two basic parts, content and method. Content includes selection of material and the grading of the different components of the material. Our study provides the necessary Grammar/Syntax material. It has isolated 53 areas of language that provide difficulty for our learners. Although these areas are listed in their negative form because of the nature of the analytic approach used (EA), they can be turned into the positive form for language teaching. For example, instead of teaching The Use of the Article where None is Needed, we can prepare a teaching lesson positively, headed Article Positioning.

Grading

Itemising content items is not enough. An effective basis for material selection is to give information to the teacher that shows him how he should distribute his time so that each item is given the correct amount of emphasis. This study again has provided such information. Of the various difficulty areas some present the learner with a

greater degree of difficulty. This is borne out by the fact that some errors are dropped more readily than others. A guide for grading is to be found therefore in the percentage column of our frequency table (The Vertical Axis). On the basis of this guide, the teacher will know how much Time and Space to give to each item.

More interesting for us is the grading of a remedial course for our learners. A remedial course is normally intended to remove the unwanted characteristics of the language of learners at a given Stage. Instead of protesting, every new academic year, against the teachers of the lower stages in the educational ladder who have not done their work well, we can look at the errors which are most common in the cross-sectional study and try to find out from the developmental study which errors are the most difficult to eradicate.

Our Horizontal Axis in Chapter IX will provide the teacher with the necessary information as to which items present temporary problems and which present permanent ones. The teacher can then space out his teaching material according to this.

Method

By method we mean the direct presentation in the classroom - the how of teaching. There have been many schools of methodology. We are mainly interested in the Method of the British school as opposed to the method of the American school because, while we advocate in part a return to the former, we are rejecting the mechanical anti-semantic concepts of the latter. The important point here is that the old British school, which has its roots in the writings of Sweet (1899) and Jespersen (1904), had the common sense to perceive the good points in the old grammar-cum-translation methods that are now considered old fashioned. The British school did not reject talking about

language in the form of giving instructions and formulating rules about what has been observed. This is because they recognised that the adult language learner brings to language learning what Jespersen (1904, p.7) describes as

"the faculty of classifying under different points of view that which has been observed, the faculty of deducing general laws from the material collected by observation, the faculty of drawing conclusions and applying them to other cases than the ones hitherto met with".

What the British school rejected was the giving of rules of grammar in "abstract conditions" i.e. when learners have no contextual material to deduce the rules from. They also rejected the giving of rules to learners who are much too young to digest theoretical notions. They were, in a few words, selective and moderate and made use of what was good in the older methods. The Americans on the other hand threw out the baby with the bath water and opted only for behaviourist theory (Skinner 1957), and repetition exercises called pattern practice.

We opt for the British school because learners have active brains with special deductive facilities. Moreover, the errors discussed under the category of systematic errors in our study seem to establish that in certain areas of language use, the learner possesses construction rules. The debatable question whether rules should be taught or not is therefore irrelevant; the learner is using rules. Because of some kind of limitation in rule schemata, the rules give rise to errors of over-generalisation etc. The relevant question is then: which rules, at a particular stage of learning with his adopted learning strategies and rule schemata should prove facilitative both for corrective and additional learning?

To answer the above question we have to have an idea of the learner's previous knowledge. We found out that the learner can communicate in English but his written language is sprinkled with errors. He already knows the wrong form of some constructions, in other words. We have therefore to aim at correcting this already acquired wrong construction through remedial work. We therefore propose that the ideal method for teaching English must be one that makes use of:

- 1) Rule formulation (Deduction Processes)
- 2) Remedial methods
- 3) Comparison of L₁ and L₂
- 4) Drills and pattern practice for reinforcement.

It must be remembered that we are concerned only with adults from whom our data was collected. We make no attempts to apply our recommendations to children.

We insist on making use of the four points above because the age, the condition and circumstances of the learner require this. Firstly the foreign language is learnt in adolescence and by the time the learner comes to University he is an adult. The human brain changes its processes with age. One of the major areas in which the maturer brain differs from the less mature one is in the ability to use experience and to take short cuts to solutions, thereby solving its problems relatively faster. We therefore see no point in making the adult go through the learning processes of a child by basing teaching techniques on pattern drills, mimicking and repetition. The child may need pattern drill to arrive at rule formulation. The adult can use other means to arrive at correct rule formulation.

Secondly there is the time factor. A child is not hurried in his acquisition of language. The adult foreign learner needs to hurry the learning process and can only achieve this through short cuts. He gets bored to tears with repetition drills but is interested, and his interest is maintained, if it is explained to him how a language operates in terms of its rules. We must not forget that the task of the foreign learner is relatively difficult compared to the child's. He has not got a clean slate of brain to start off with. The patterns of his L_1 are already there and he has to contend with the impediment of interference. This is where comparison of L_1 and L_2 come in.

The view adopted here is that successful language teaching depends on a mixture of habit formation and analytic-deductive procedures realised in various combinations. Although each of the common methods of teaching grammar (demonstration in context, pattern practice based on sentence frames, the overt presentation of abstract rules) seems to be particularly relevant in certain situations, it should be realised that none of these methods is complete in itself, and that most teaching situations call for a combination of all three approaches. The vital task for the language teacher is to find the right combination of activities for any given set of circumstances.

We shall give very brief examples of how to overcome two areas of difficulty, the Relative Clause and the Present Perfect Tense.

Comparison of L_1 and L_2

It is important for the teacher to know how interference occurs, what grammatical elements are affected and what should be done to replace the error in the correct form. Supposing a learner or a group of learners keep making the following error in the Relative Clause:

"The day which we spent it was very happy"

In the "discussion and explanation" section in this study, the teacher will find that the source of error is the L₁. Not only that, but he will find exactly what he has to tell his students. He should be able to adjust the explanatory information we have given to suit the academic level of the students. For instance, at Stage I the teacher should be able to tell students that the reason why they keep on saying:

"The day which we spent it....."

is that they are consistently operating Arabic rules on English. He should be able to tell the students that:

- 1) English does not pronominalise separately the matrix noun in the relative clause like Arabic does.
- 2) That the relative linker which combines in it the pronoun realisation it in English, unlike Arabic which has separate realisations for the linker and the pronoun.

Any information can be successfully communicated to an adult student if it is framed in terminology and language he will understand. Language learning involves a conscious mental activity. If interference is a deliberate conscious activity then the only way to eradicate it is through deliberate conscious effort. The only way to achieve this effort is to make the learner aware of the elements he is using wrongly. Only then can he actively use his information to overcome the difficulty.

Rule Formation (Deduction Processes)

We can treat non-interference problems by presenting the learner with rules. However the rule is not to be presented without examples. Enough structural examples should be provided for the students to be able to discover the rule set by the aim of the lesson. Whether they discover the rule or not, the teacher should be able to tie off each lesson with a neat rule. It is not easy to find a neat rule, particularly in lessons dealing with the use of verb forms, such as the simple past and the present perfect. Very often though, it is possible to find a workable rule that gives the learner some degree of valuable guidance until such time as he acquires the command of the constructions.

Whereas certain areas of the grammar do not always require intellectual analysis but only pattern drills (e.g. the formal features of tenses), with the present perfect tense a conscious understanding of the rule involved is necessary. A student could perform drills based on the model sentences:

I've lived here for two years
and

I've lived here since 1970

and still produce the erroneous forms

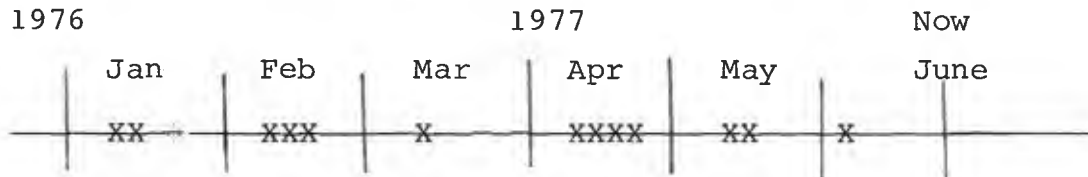
*I've lived here since two years

because he has not perceived the underlying rule that 'since' is used in English for naming time, and 'for' is used for counting time.

To illustrate an action completed in the very recent present is simple (I've just shut the window, etc) but the idea of an unfinished time period is not so easy to illustrate. The unfinished time aspect of the Present

perfect tense is probably the most difficult aspect for learners to understand. They always confuse it with the past tense. To conclude this chapter we shall propose a way of teaching this unfinished time aspect.

First one can draw the diagram below on the board



This diagram is explained to the class as follows:

'I saw two films in January', 'I saw three films in February', I saw one film in March', I saw four films in April', I saw two films in May', I have seen one film this month', 'I have seen thirteen films this year'. 'I saw twenty five films last year', etc.

This is followed by:

I wrote twenty letters last month.
I ate two chickens in May.

The teacher then poses questions of the type:

How many films did you see last month.
How many films have you seen this week.

and writes them on the board.

Then the teacher elicits questions from the students by pointing to one student then to March, and then to another student who is to speak. This latter student says "How many films did Ali see in March". The teacher then points to another student who answers "He saw one film in March". This procedure is continued with time periods like in April

in 1976, and with unfinished periods such as this month, this year, so far this week. The teacher selects the time periods by pointing to the diagram and varies the pronouns by pointing to various students.

A similar sequence of events may be carried out with other drill possibilities using the verbs see, write and take as these illustrate more clearly the different tenses used.

Up till now, therefore we have used a kind of pattern drill method. But whereas teachers would drill it for at least twenty minutes, boring the students to death and then stopping there, we would only do it for five minutes and stop. Then we would point out to the students that we think they have made (or make) many errors with the Present perfect tense and that we shall try to help each other to eradicate this error. This we do in the belief that the first task of a remedial method is to point out the construction that is erroneous and that it should therefore be replaced by a specific acceptable construction. This in turn will arouse a favourable degree of class interest and participation.

We explain that the diagram on the board and the different examples we have been going through put the past and the present perfect in context, and also in contrast as to their use with time adverbials. Then the rule is given and explained in the following, perhaps rather less-than-neat, form. Still it is better than no rule at all.

All three perfect tenses (present, past and future) tell us that some act is completed i.e. perfected, by a given time; for an act done at a certain time we use the simple past. Examples are then written up on the board:

- a) I wrote ten letters last May.
a₁) I wrote ten letters in January.

Then we put up the following sentence

- b) I have seen two films this month

and point out that whereas in the a) sentences we have dates, in the b) sentences we do not have a stated time of action. Yet, we explain, the action has been completed. When? By now- by the middle of June. We cannot be more specific than 'by the middle of June.' Therefore we explain that the present perfect tells us about an act completed by now. It is a kind of present because (1) it does not tell us when this completed act happened. (2) we are interested only in its present completed state and its relation to now.

Examples: I have written two letters already
i.e. Here and now are two finished letters.

I haven't written any letters yet.
i.e. Up until this present moment (now) there are no finished letters.

We then explain that we cannot use the Present Perfect tense if a definite time in the past is either mentioned or understood from the context. For the same reason a question with When cannot be used in this tense.

This elementary rule can then be discussed with the learner and he can ask questions concerning it. Meanwhile we can explain that the present perfect is a tense that is particular to English and that not only Arab speakers but speakers of other languages as well, generally misuse it.

This could lead on as to how Arabic expresses the concept of the present tense and how the language does not differentiate between the simple past and the present tense. In this informal discussion with the learner we can then explain why he always uses the simple past instead of the present perfect. The learner will not only be interested but he will certainly understand and appreciate the reason for his own linguistic shortcomings and this will in turn drive him to correct himself. The lesson ends with exercises to reinforce the use of the present perfect with certain adverbials as contrasted with the past tense.

This is how a method combining rule formulation, comparison of L_1 and L_2 and pattern drills can be used successfully with adults in our opinion. Moreover when the unfinished time aspect is made clear one can then go on to explain the use of 'for' and 'since' with relevance to time concepts such as "definite point or period in the past till now" and "length of time up to now" in later lessons. Leading on from there we can show grammar in use. We can explain the four related uses of the present perfect in terms of

- 1) state leading up to the present time
- 2) indefinite events in a period leading up to the present time
- 3) habit in a period leading up to the present time
- 4) past events with results in the present time.

This shows we can use remedial methods and then follow them on by competence methods to extend learning.

The method we advocate believes in explaining everything to the adult student. When working with adult students we offer a rule or we can offer an example followed by a rule. The age of our students (18 years at Stage I), their experience with English, their knowledge of grammar and their general disposition justify our approach. When a neat

rule is impossible, some instructions, i.e. talking about language, should be given. It is important that the adult learner knows what it is he is supposed to do. Also it is very interesting for him to see vaguely how a given language expresses its concepts. It might be interesting for his linguistic courses. The learner's errors must be made use of by the teacher. Negative reinforcements in the form of error are as useful as positive data in language learning situations and both should be provided when required. The adult learner should know at each crossroad which grammatical construction is right and which is wrong, so that he can choose accordingly. Sometimes he should risk making mistakes in order to test just how far a given rule will stretch.

Keeping the mother-tongue out of the classroom does not lessen the number of errors made under the influence of the L_1 . We believe therefore that L_1 errors should be discussed and the differences in L_1 and L_2 pointed out.

In conclusion, one can say that by applying our method to the areas of difficulty found in our study, we can help the learner to get rid of many of his errors and also give ourselves less torment in trying to cope with a crop of ever-recurring errors.

A P P E N D I X I

Set Textbooks for Preparatory Schools

Class Course Books for State Schools

Preparatory I

- 1) Living English Book I:
by Abdalla, A.G., Aboul-Fetouh, H.M., and Gamal, S.M.
Moharrem Press, Cairo, First printed 1966

Preparatory II

- 1) Living English Book II:
by Abdalla, A.G., Aboul-Fetouh, H.M., and Gamal, S.M.
Moharrem Press, Cairo, First printed 1967

Preparatory III

- 1) Living English Book III:
by Abdalla, A.G., Aboul-Fetouh, H.M., and Gamal, S.M.
General Organisation for Government Printing Offices,
Cairo, 1970

Class Course Books for English Language-Medium Schools

Preparatory I

- 1) Living English Book I:
(as above)
- 2) A Graded Secondary School English Course Book I:
by Etherton, A.R.B., and Thornley, G.C.
Longman
- 3) Guided Course in English Composition
by Jupp, T.C., and Milne, J.
Heinemann
- 4) Guided Course in English Composition Teachers Handbook
by Jupp, T.C., and Milne, J.
- 5) Longmans Simplified English Series
Stories of Detection & Mystery
Morris, E., and Mortimer, D., (eds.)

- 6) Six Short Plays
Bright, J.A. (ed)
- 7) The Invisible Man⁽¹⁾
by Wells, H.G.

Class Library Books⁽²⁾

- 1) Longmans Structural Readers, Stage 5 and Stage 6
Stranger Things Have Happened
by Bennett, S.
- 2) Mogul
by Elliot, J.
- 3) The Sign of Indra
by Grimshaw, N.
- 4) Bush Fire and Hurricane Paula
by Musman, R.
- 5) On the Beach
by Shute, N.
- 6) Kidnapped
by Stevenson, R.L.
- 7) The Adventures of Tom Sawyer
by Twain, M.
- 8) Tales of the Caliphs
by Butros, A.
- 9) For Your Eyes Only
by Fleming, I.
- 10) The Go-Between
by Hartley, L.P.
- 11) The Kon-Tiki Expedition
by Heyerdahl, T.
- 12) Brave New World
by Huxley, A.
- 13) The Young Warriors
by Reid, V.

(1) This book is recommended only as an optional extra for those classes in which the need is felt for additional material

(2) Class library books are in the libraries of both state schools and foreign language medium schools

- 14) I'll Tell You a Tale
by Serrailier, I.
- 15) Inspector Thackeray Investigates
by Mullen, L., and James, K.
- 16) The Seventh Key and The Mystery on the Moor
by Smee, M.
- 17) Animals, Enemies of Man
by Musman, R.
- 18) Man and Modern Science
by Wymer, N.
- 19) Agriculture
by Musman, R.
- 20) Man Against Space
by Wymer, N.
- 21) New Method Supplementary Readers Stage 5
Allan Quartermain
by Ryder Haggard, H.
- 22) The Black Arrow
by Stevenson, R.L.
- 23) Seven Detective Stories
West, M. (ed.)
- 24) The Gun
by Forester, C.S.
- 25) A Message from Mars
by Ganthomy, R.
- 26) King Solomon's Mines
by Ryder Haggard, H.
- 27) Singing Wind and Other Short Stories
West, M. (ed.)

Preparatory II

- 1) Living English Book II
by Abdallah, A.G., Aboul-Fetouh, H.M., and Gamal, S.M.
General Organisation for Government Printing Offices,
Cairo, (first printed, 1967)
- 2) A Graded Secondary School English Course Book II
by Etherton, A.R.B. & Thornley, C.C.
Longman

- 3) Stories Grim, Stories Gay
Taylor, B. (ed.)
- 4) The Red Badge of Courage⁽¹⁾
by Crane, S.
- 5) Guided Course in English Composition
by Jupp, T.C., & Milne, J.
Heinemann
- 6) Guided Course in English Composition Teachers Handbook
by Jupp, T.C., & Milne, J.
Heinemann

Class Library Books

- 1) Longmans Simplified English Series
The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn
by Twain, M.
- 2) Round the World in 80 Days
by Verne, J.
- 3) Rupert of Hentzau
by Hope, A.
- 4) Outstanding Short Stories
Thornley, G.C., (ed.)
- 5) The Woman in White
by Collins, W.
- 6) The Good Earth
by Buck, P.
- 7) Jamaica Inn
by Du Maurier, D.
- 8) Frenchman's Creek
by Du Maurier, D.
- 9) Rebecca
by Du Maurier, D.
- 10) The King Must Die
by Renault, M.
- 11) The Citadel
by Cronin, A.J.

(1) This novel is recommended only as an optional extra for classes in which the need is felt for additional material.

- 12) Hatter's Castle
by Cronin, A.J.
- 13) Campbell's Kingdom
by Innes, H.
- 14) Tales of Mystery and Imagination
by Poe, E.
- 15) The Kraken Wakes
by Wyndham, J.
- 16) The Wooden Horse
by Williams, E.
- 17) Doctor in the House
by Gordon, R.
- 18) A Journey to the Centre of the Earth
by Verne, J.
- 19) Watcher in the Shadows
by Household, G.
- 20) The Unpleasantness at the Bellona Club
by Sayers, D.L.
- 21) British and American Short Stories
Thornley, G.C., (ed.)

Preparatory III

- 1) Living English Book III
by Abdallah, A.G., Aboul-Fetouh, H.M. and Gamal, S.M.
General Organisation for Government Printing Offices
Cairo, 1970
- 2) A Graded Secondary School English Course Book III
by Etherton, A.R.B. & Thornley, G.C.
Longman
- 3) Longman Pleasure in Reading Series
First Choice
Marland, M. (ed.)
- 4) Longman Abridged Books
The Midwich Cuckoos (1)
by Wyndham, J.

(1) This novel is recommended only as an optional extra for classes in which the need is felt for additional material

- 5) Guided Course in English Composition
by Jupp, T.C. & Milne, J.
Heinemann
- 6) Guided Course in English Composition Teachers Handbook
by Jupp, T.C. & Milne, J.
Heinemann

Class Library Books

- 1) Longman Bridge Series
Power & Progress
by Thornley, G.C.
- 2) Mankind Against the Killers
by Hemming, J.
- 3) Changing Horizons
by Thornley, G.C.
- 4) The Mysterious Universe
by Jeans, J.
- 5) Stories from Many Lands
Thornley, G.C., (ed.)
- 6) American Short Stories
Taylor, B., (ed.)
- 7) Oliver Twist
by Dickens, C.
- 8) Cry the Beloved Country
by Paton, A.
- 9) Christmas at Candleshoe
by Innes, H.
- 10) Flowers for Mrs Harris
by Gallico, P.
- 11) The Journeying Boy
by Innes, H.
- 12) Animal Farm
by Orwell, G.
- 13) The 'Caine' Mutiny
by Wouk, H.
- 14) Lucky Jim
by Amies, K.

- 15) The Hopkins Manuscript
by Sherriff, R.C.
- 16) The First Men in the Moon
by Wells, H.G.
- 17) The Card
by Bennett, A.
- 18) The Loss of the 'Jane Vosper'
by Crofts, A.W.
- 19) Some Adventures of Sherlock Holmes
by Conan Doyle, A.
- 20) The Story of My Life
by Keller, H.

APPENDIX I Cont./

APPENDIX I: LESSONS 18 - 19 LIVING ENGLISH BOOK III pp.47-53

Lesson 18

Flying

For many years in the past, men tried to fly by imitating the birds. There is an old story about a man and his son who tried to fly. Each of them used a pair of wings like the wings of a big bird. The wings were glued to their bodies. The father flew safely but the son flew high near the sun. The glue melted and he fell into the sea and was drowned.

This story is not true. But it shows how people wanted very much to fly through the air.

Questions:

1. What did the man and his son do in order to fly?
2. Was the man able to fly?
3. Why did his son fall into the sea?
4. Can people really fly?

About 200 years ago men first went up above the earth. But they were in balloons. A balloon is a huge ball filled with helium. Helium is a light gas. It is lighter than air. People no longer travel in balloons. But balloons are still used by weather men.

In 1903 the Wright Brothers were able to fly. They did not imitate the birds. They flew in a machine.

Since 1903 airplanes have become bigger and faster. Some airplanes can carry as many as a hundred passengers. They can also fly as fast as a thousand kilometres an hour. Engineers are building bigger and faster airplanes.

Questions:

1. Why do balloons go above the earth?
2. What is helium?
3. When did the Wright Brothers fly?
4. How fast are airplanes?
5. How many passengers can an airplane carry?

But man's greatest dream has been to travel through space, and reach the planets. Airplanes can fly only within the atmosphere. In order to fly beyond the atmosphere the machine has to carry its own oxygen. This has been solved by the use of rockets.

With the help of rockets man has been able to land on the moon. Of course people who land on the moon have to wear special suits to protect themselves from the heat and the cold. They also have to carry enough air to breathe because there is no atmosphere around the moon.

Man has reached the moon. What is he going to try next? Will he try to reach other planets such as Mercury and Venus? Who knows?

Questions:

1. What is man's greatest dream?
2. Why can't an airplane fly beyond the atmosphere?
3. How can man fly beyond the atmosphere?
4. Does the moon have an atmosphere?

Pattern Practice:

- A. Repeat after your teacher:
 1. An airplane travels 500 kilometres an hour.
 2. A train travels 100 kilometres an hour.
 3. A car travels 80 kilometres an hour.
 4. A horse travels 10 kilometres an hour.
 5. He grows two crops a year.
 6. He has three exams a year.

7. He goes to his farm four times a year.
8. She writes 30 words a minute.
9. She breathes 16 times a minute.
10. She can walk 50 steps a minute.

B. Repeat after your teacher:

1. They tried to fly by imitating the birds.
2. She helped her mother by washing the dishes.
3. I helped in the party by bringing the cakes.
4. They won the game by practising hard.
5. He made his father happy by working hard.
6. He keeps healthy by sleeping early.

Lesson 19

Comprehensive Review

A. Read the following conversation:

- Have you read today's newspaper?
- No; anything new?
- Yes. There were some very interesting pictures of the surface of the moon.
- That's very exciting. Maybe soon we'll be hearing about a man landing on enus.
- Oh, the paper says there is still a lot of work to do before man can land on it.
- I think they have to be very sure that man can land safely and come back safely.
- Did you read about the tourist office that is already selling tickets for the first trip to the moon?
- Are you serious?
- Of course, but I don't know if they are.
- Well, who knows what's going to happen next?

B. Put the verbs in brackets in the correct form:

1. If you don't stop making this noise I (tell) your parents.
2. I would finish my painting, if I (have) enough time.
3. I would help you if I (can).
4. We shall be happy if our school (win) the match.
5. We will enjoy the trip more if you (come) with us.
6. If everybody does his job perfectly, we (succeed).
7. I would show you how to do it if I (know) how to do it myself.
8. I (give) it to you if I had another one.
9. You (be) late if you don't start now.
10. If your brother (come) to Cairo, I'll invite him for lunch.

C. Dictation:

D. Fill in the spaces with "how", "which", "where", "who", "why":

1. I don't know.....to use this new machine.
2. Did you tell him.....flat we live in?
3. I don't know.....did it but it wasn't Samy.
4. He has a headache; maybe that's.....he went to bed early.
5. I forgot.....is coming today, but we will have some guests.
6. Do you know.....I could find good inexpensive toys?
7. I don't know.....to put these books; can I use your bookshelf?

E. Repeat after your teacher:

1. A. I'm not sleepy
B. Neither am I.
2. A. I'm not rich.
B. Neither am I.
3. A. I'm not thirsty.
B. Neither am I.

4. A. I'm not busy.
B. Neither am I.
5. A. I'm not young.
B. Neither am I.

Repeat the exercise with "we" as subject. Follow the example.

Example:

- A. We're not hungry.
- B. Neither are we.

F. Use the proper question. Follow the example.

Example:

You aren't leaving now are you?

1. He isn't going with us,.....?
2. They aren't taking this train.....?
3. We aren't meeting this afternoon.....?
4. She isn't buying this expensive car.....?
5. You aren't selling your new house.....?

G. Repeat after your teacher:

1. This problem is easy to solve.
2. This lesson is difficult to study.
3. He's pleasant to work with.
4. She's hard to please.
5. We don't have enough to eat.

H. Written:

Fill the blanks with words from the list:

oxygen .. imagine .. continent .. find out .. idea ..
climate .. breathe

1. Asia is the largest.....
2. You can't.....how difficult the problem is.
3. I must.....how to get there.
4. Without.....there would be no life on the earth.
5. Do you have any.....about the time of his arrival?
6. I was so tired I could hardly.....
7. The.....in Alexandria is very pleasant.

- I. Write a short paragraph on "The Earth, The Sun and The Moon".

- J. Correct the last dictation.

A P P E N D I X I I

Set Textbooks for Secondary Schools

Class Course Books for State Schools.

Secondary I.

- 1) Living English Book IV
by GAMAL, S.M. and Helmy, S.
General Organisation for Government Printing Offices.
Cairo, First printed 1969-1970
- 2) Living English Structure for Schools
by Allen, W.S., Longman, London. First printed 1958
- 3) A first Book in Comprehension
Precis & Composition
by Alexander, L.G., Longmans, London
- 4) Operation Mastermind
by Alexander, L.G., Longmans Structural Readers, London

Secondary II (Scientific Section)

- 1) Living English Structure for Schools
by Allen, W.S., Longman, London. First printed 1958
- 2) Easier Scientific English Practice
by Thornley G.C., Longman, London. First printed 1964
- 3) A First Book in Comprehension,
Precis and Composition
by Alexander, L.G., Longman, London
- 4) The Angry Valley
by Grimshaw, W. Longman Structural Readers, London

Secondary II (Literary Section)

- 1) Living English Structure for Schools
by Allen, W.S., Longman, London. First published 1958
- 2) A First Book in Comprehensive
Precis and Composition
by Alexander, L.G., Longman, London

- 3) The Power House
by Buchan, J. Longman Simplified English Series, London
- 4) Living English Book V
by Helmy, S. General Organisation for Printing Offices,
Cairo, 1970 (or another book)

Secondary III (Scientific Section)

- 1) Scientific English Practice
by Thornley, G.C., Longman, London 1967
- 2) Living English Structure for Schools
by Allen, W.S., Longman, London. First published 1958
- 3) The Citadel
by Cronin, A.J. Longman Structural Readers, London
- 4) A First Book in Comprehension
Precis and Comprehension
by Alexander, L.G., Longman, London

Secondary III (Literary Section)

- 1) Living English Structure for Schools
by Allen, W.S., Longman, London. First published 1958
- 2) A First Book in Comprehension
Precis and Composition
by Alexander, L.G., Longman, London
- 3) Modern English Readings
by Gilchrist, A., Longman, London
- 4) Flowers for Mrs Harris
by Gallico, P., Longman (abridged), London

Class Course Books for English Language Medium Schools

In addition to the books that are prescribed for the state schools, the English Language Medium Schools use the following books for the 'High Level' course in English

Secondary I

- 1) A Higher Course for English Study, Book I
by Mackin & Carver, O.U.P., 1968
- 2) Pygmalion
by Shaw, G.B., (any available edition)

- 3) The Golden Treasury
by Palgrave, F.T., Collins
- 4) Spectrum II (an anthology of short stories)
Longmans, 1969

Secondary II (Science Section)

- 1) A Higher Course for English Study, Book II
by Mackin & Carver, O.U.P., 1971
- 2) Pick & Choose
by Best, R., Longmans, 1971
- 3) Plays Pleasant, Arms and the Man
by Shaw, G.B., (any available edition)
- 4) Jane Eyre
by Bronte, C. (any available edition)
- 5) The Golden Treasury
by Palgrave, F.T., Collins
- 6) A Course in Basic Scientific English
by Heaton, J.B., Longman, 1968

Secondary II (Literary Section)

- 1) Pick and Choose
by Best, R., Longman, 1971
- 2) Further Exercises in Comprehension and Expression
by Finch, J.
- 3) The Trouble With Lychen
Longman Supplementary Readers, 1970
- 4) A Course in Basic Scientific English
by Heaton, J.B., Longman, 1968

Secondary III (Literary Section)

- 1) My Cousin Rachel
by Du Maurier, D., (any edition)
- 2) Twelfth Night
by Shakespeare, W., (any edition)

- 3) The Sphinx Poetry Book: an anthology of poetry
Anglo-Egyptian Bookshop, Cairo, 1970
- 4) Pick and Choose
by Best, R., Longman, 1971
- 5) Further Exercise in Comprehension and Expression
by Finch, J., Hamish Hamilton, 1970

A P P E N D I X I I I

Examination Paper 1972

1: Composition

1. Write about (ten) lines on ONE only of the following:
Each line should contain at least 8 words: (6 marks)

You should make use of the points given:

- a) The joys and dangers of living near a river.

Points: scenery - walking - sailing - fishing -
swimming - floods - drowning - crocodiles

OR

- b) How we can make good use of money.

Points: spend wisely - lend friends in need - save for
hard times - help the poor

2. Write on ONE only of the following: (6 marks)

- a) Write a letter to your friend Jones or (Helen) with whom you have quarrelled suggesting that you should all forget about it and asking him or (her) if he or (she) would care to meet you. Your name is Sami or (Samia) and you live in Khartoum. Write your address in full.

(Six lines at least are required)

OR

- b) An English friend, on a visit to the Sudan, wanted you to advise him as to the place he should visit in your country and the way to go there. Write out the conversation that might take place between you. (Each should speak 6 times. Greetings are not to be counted).

II: Comprehension

Read the following passage and then answer the questions: (15 marks)

The world into which we all come has been left to us by our fathers and their fathers before them. It is composed more of the past than of the present. The cities and villages in which we all live were built by hands other than ours, and the railways that carry us from place to place were planned and constructed by men who are now probably dead. Everything around us is due, in whole or in part, to the skill, labour and energy of those who went along the road of life before us.

As each of us grows up, and becomes acquainted with the world that other men have built, he explores it with interest, and sometimes with anxiety and even fear. For our surroundings are complicated and astonishing, kind and cruel, varied and vast. They are also constantly changing.

No generation leaves the world as he finds it. We shall change our cities and villages, just as men have done before. The great and wonderful city of Babylon consists now of ruins buried in the ground, and its glories are forgotten. Cities, like people, grow and die; they increase or decrease in importance. All such changes are the result of the restless energies of man. The generation now growing up will have the same energies and will not be satisfied with what it finds in the world. And so, the changes continue, for better or for worse.

Questions:

1. In what two ways are cities similar to people. (2 marks)
2. What feelings do people experience as they gather more facts about the world? (2 marks)
3. Why should we be grateful to those who lived before us? Give two reasons. (3 marks)
4. Why do cities and villages always change? (2 marks)
5. When does a person begin to examine the world around him?
6. Give one word that means **the** same as the words underlined in the passage. (1 mark)

7. Find words in the passage which mean much the same as the following:
- continuously
 - of different kinds
 - merciless
 - all the people of the same time or age
 - travel in for the purpose of discovery
 - made up of

Set Books:

Modern English Readings:

Answer Three only of the following questions:

- How does a reviewer resemble a teacher?
(The Motives of the Writer)
- When the writer mentions Arabs, to whom does he refer?
(Early Arab Civilisation)
- What is the chief cause of violence in primitive communities?
(Primitive Justice)
- What effect may science have on a man's thought?
(The Value of Philosophy)

Flowers for Mrs Harris

- Mrs Colbert was an Ideal. Discuss.
- Love in its different kinds and aspects plays an important part in the story. Discuss.

II: Language Exercises

Do as shown between brackets or as required: (10 marks)

- The doctor asked the patient if he had tried that medicine and ordered him to take it regularly.
(Change into Direct Speech)
- Because the train had arrived late. I found no one waiting at the station.
(Change into a simple sentence)
- Show the difference in meaning between the words in the following pairs: (You may use them in sentences)
a) lie - lay b) hole - whole
- These shoes are too small for me to wear.
(Change into a complex sentence)

5. Supply suitable prepositions:
 - a) Don't put.....today's work until tomorrow.
 - b) People cannot do.....love alone.
 - c) We cannot do.....air.
 - d) I came.....some new words while I was reading the story.

6. Supply "a", "an", "the" if necessary
 - a).....bridge is made of.....steel
 - b).....aeroplanes are.....fastest means of transport.

7.
 - a) Give the opposites of: interior - descend - hide a secret
 - b) Form nouns from: consult - freeze - resolve

III: Translation (8 marks)

1. Translation into Arabic: (5 marks)

By car, by train, by ship and by plane, millions of tourists annually depart from home like migrating birds. They provide the best possible evidence to prove that the world does not seem to be so big now as it used to be in the past. For the modern tourist is no Marco Polo. He sets forth into the unknown and returns home in a matter of weeks, not years. Furthermore, he is equipped with pamphlets, maps and guide-books, which tell him where to go and how to get there, where to stay, what to see and what to eat when he arrives.

Translation from Arabic:

(3 lines)

A P P E N D I X I V

Students' Marks in the Secondary School Leaving Examination and their Marks in the Entry Test to the Department of English, Faculty of Arts (1975/1976)

<u>Number</u>	<u>Secondary School Leaving Examination Mark</u> (Marks are out of 60)	<u>Entry Test Mark</u> (Marks out of 20)
1	54½	14
2	55	13
3	54½	13
4	49½	13
5	54	11
6	54	11
7	54	11
8	52	10
9	56½	10
10	55	10
11	48½	10
12	52	10
13	57	10
14	51½	10
15	52½	10
16	52½	10
17	48	11
18	53	11
19	55	10
20	54	12
21	48½	9
22	47½	8
23	52½	8
24	52	9
25	52	8
26	52	8
27	52	8
28	56	8
29	53	8
30	53	9
31	53	9
32	53	9
33	52	9
34	48	8
35	47½	8
36	55½	8
37	48	8
38	56	8
39	50½	8
40	49½	8

Number	Secondary School Leaving Examination Mark (Marks are out of 60)	Entry Test Mark (Marks out of 20)
41	48	7
42	45	7
43	52½	7
44	48	7
45	48	7
46	56	7
47	48½	7
48	55	7
49	48	7
50	47	7
51	50	7
52	51	7
53	48	6
54	48	6
55	46½	6
56	52	6
57	42½	6
58	42	6
59	50½	6
60	47	6
61	48	6
62	49½	6
63	50	6
64	48½	5
65	52	5
66	46	4
67	51	4
68	45½	4
69	40	4
70	46½	5
71	42	5
72	50	6
73	45½	2
74	45½	3
75	45	0
76	37	0
77	44½	0
78	47	0
79	49	2
80	46½	3
81	45	3
82	47	3
83	44½	3

A P P E N D I X V

Hours of English, Faculty of Arts, Department of English

<u>First Year</u>	<u>No. of Hours per Week</u>	
	Language and Grammar	6
	Novel	2
	Drama	2
	Poetry	2
	History of England	2
<hr/>		
<u>Second Year</u>	Language and Grammar	6
	Novel	2
	Drama	2
	Poetry	2
	B.L.T.	2
<hr/>		
<u>Third Year</u>	Linguistics and Grammar	4
	Civilisation	3
	Novel	3
	Drama	2
	Poetry	2
	Criticism	3
<hr/>		
<u>Fourth Year</u>	Linguistics and Grammar	4
	Civilisation	2
	Novel	3
	Drama	3
	Poetry	3
	Criticism	2
	History of Language	2
<hr/>		

A P P E N D I X V I

Hours of English, Faculty of Education, Department of English

	<u>No. of Hours Per Week</u>	
<u>First Year</u>	Language and Grammar	8
	Drama	3
	Novel	2
	Poetry	2
	Civilisation	2
<hr/>		
<u>Second Year</u>	Language and Grammar	8
	Drama	3
	Novel	2
	Poetry	2
	Civilisation	2
<hr/>		
<u>Third Year</u>	Linguistics and Grammar	6
	Drama	2
	Novel	2
	Poetry	2
<hr/>		
<u>Fourth Year</u>	Linguistics and Grammar	6
	Drama	2
	Novel	2
	Poetry	2

A P P E N D I X V I I

Hours of English, Non-Specialists

	<u>Faculty</u>	<u>No. of Hours per Week</u>
1)	Engineering	2 successive hours every other week for one year
2)	Commerce	4 hours a week for two years
3)	Law	<u>First Year</u> 2 hours a week <u>Second Year</u> One hour a week (terminology)
4)	Science	<u>First Year</u> One hour a week <u>Second Year</u> One hour a week
5)	Medicine and Dentistry	4 hours a week for one year
6)	Pharmacology	<u>First Year</u> 3 hours a week <u>Second Year</u> 2 hours a week (terminology)
7)	Arts (Other Departments) French Department Arabic Department History Department Geography Department Philosophy Department Anthropology Department Psychology Department Archaeology Department	2 hours a week for 4 years 3 hours a week for 3 years 2 hours a week for 3 years 2 hours a week at level of higher degrees only 2 hours a week for 2 years only 2 hours a week for 1 year 2 hours a week for 3 years 2 hours a week for 3 years

8)

Education (Other Departments)

French Department

History Department

Philosophy Department

(

(

(

As for Arts
(Other Departments)

A P P E N D I X V I I I

Composition Topics as presented to Non-Specialists and
Stage 1, October 1974

- 1) You are in Alexandria spending a fortnight's holiday at the beach. When you arrived in the city you found that all the inexpensive hotels were fully booked and that you could only find a room in the very expensive hotels. Finally you managed to get a nice room not too far from the seaside. Write a letter to your parents telling them of what happened to you and how you spent your first enjoyable day at the beach.

- 2) Starting university means starting a new period in your life and in your education. The first day at the university must have been a very exciting day for you. You met some old schoolfriends and made the acquaintance of new people. You had to sit for your entrance examination. The buildings must have seemed strange and university life unfamiliar. Could you describe your first day as you remember it?

- 3) People make friends everywhere and anywhere for man cannot live alone. However there are differences between friends and acquaintances. Relations with people differ. Once a friendship is made, it is very difficult to keep this friendship. Circumstances in life can cause misunderstandings and friends can separate or quarrel. Write on either an experience that you had or on your general observations of friends and friendship.

- 4) It is a known fact that a well travelled person gains a lot of knowledge and experience. Have you ever travelled abroad? If you have, in what way has travel broadened your mind? If you have not been abroad, do you feel that travel could add to your knowledge. If so, what do you think you could gain?

- 5) Nowadays there is a great deal of emphasis on education in our country. All education, even education at the university, is free. As a result of this we have many qualified people in our country. What we lack however is the skilled technician for the emphasis has always been on academic and not technical education. Do you agree that what we need in our country is a more technical education? What do you think are the causes of the lack of technical education? Why is technical education important nowadays?

- 6) A great number of tourists visit Egypt every year. They are mostly interested in seeing the great monuments and visiting the museums. They know a lot about our history but little of our customs and traditions. If a tourist asks you what are the typical customs and traditions of Egypt, what would you tell him and how would you explain some of our actions that may seem strange to him?

A P P E N D I X I X

Composition Topics as presented to Stage II, October 1975

- 1) There are too many road accidents nowadays. Cars have increased in number and roads have not been widened to accommodate them. Motorists are impatient and break traffic rules. People tend to cross roads away from pedestrian crossings. Traffic policemen are too hot, and too tired, to stop all motorists who break the law. The situation is getting out of hand. Have you ever witnessed a road accident? What caused it? Who was in the wrong? How did you feel about it?

- 2) Poverty, unemployment, overpopulation and corruption are worldwide problems. Every nation suffers from them in one way or another. The reasons for their existence differ in different countries. Which do you think is the problem that we suffer from most in our country? What do you think are the causes of this problem? Is it in any way connected to the other problems?

- 3) People are happy as long as they do not have any difficulties or worries. When they are happy, they tend to forget God. It is only in times of danger and difficulty that they turn to God and ask for His help. They promise to be good, not to hurt anyone and pray day and night so that God may help them through their difficulties. Once the difficulty is over, they tend to forget God and their promises to Him. Do you think this is true of all people? Have you been through such a situation before?

- 4) The world around us is colourful. The sky is blue, the grass is green, the flowers and fruits are varied in colour. What if the world was like a black and white film? How would you feel about it? Colours make different impressions on people. Generally different colours are associated with different things. White is associated with purity, red with war, yellow with cowardice and green with envy. Which colours do you like best? What impressions do they give you? Why do you prefer those particular colours?

- 5) We all have our hopes and dreams about the future. Some people want to be rich, others want to be famous while others still want to travel around the world. Some want to be surgeons, others writers and still others long for a little home with a nice husband and beautiful children. But we make our future with our own hands. We work towards what we want and hope that we shall achieve success. What is your future as you visualise it?
- 6) Lying is a social disease and a pleasure. People never know when to stop lying once they start. They cannot tell the difference between a white lie and a lie with serious consequences. Anyway any lie is bound to be harmful. What do you think of lying? How many types of lies are there? Do you think all lies are harmful? Can you tell when people are lying to you? Can one be forgiven for a lie? What are your feelings about this phenomenon?

A P P E N D I X X

Composition Topics as presented to Stage III, October 1976

- 1) In our society, young people whether male or female are not permitted to live alone if they are single. Only when circumstances make it inevitable are they allowed to live alone. But living alone can teach a young person a lot. It can teach him how to rely on himself, how to be independent and how to fend for himself in our difficult world. On the other hand living alone is not easy. Loneliness is a major human problem. Nothing can compensate for the feeling of love and affection. Would you like to live alone and be independent of your family? Why?

- 2) We are fortunate in not having to live through long grey dull days of winter as some other people have to. Colour seems to be all round us throughout the year. How do you think the world would appear if it were deprived of all its beautiful colours? Would you like to live in it? How do you think people would be affected?

- 3) Recently, Egyptian newspapers have been constantly stressing the fact that we need new larger roads to cope with the congested traffic especially in the large cities. They insist on strict traffic laws and fines for people who break them. We do not have seat belts in our motor cars. The traffic lights are not timed automatically but are operated manually by a policeman. What do you think are the hazards of this state of affairs?

- 4) Now that you have had experience of university life what do you think are the differences between school life and university life? Which do you prefer and why?

- 5) Sometimes it is a pleasure to meet one's countrymen abroad and sometimes it is a great disappointment. Have you had such an experience? What can you tell us about it?

- 6) The greatest problem facing us today is.....

A P P E N D I X X I

Textbooks used in the Department of English, Faculty of
Arts 1975/1976

First Year

Essay, Precis and Comprehension:

L.G. Alexander, Sixty Steps to Precis. Longman
Anthology compiled by the Department

Linguistics and Conversation:

E.D. Graver, Advanced English Practice, O.U.P.

Poetry:

Anthology compiled by the Department

Novel:

Walter Allen, The English Novel. Pelican
Robin Mayhead, Understanding Literature. O.U.P.
Dickens, Oliver Twist.
George Eliot, Silas Marner.
A collection of short stories.

History of England and History of Literature:

G.M. Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England. Pelican
Ifor Evans, A Short History of English Literature. Pelican

Arabic and Translation

French

Drama:

Shaw, Major Barbara. Penguin
Oscar Wilde, The Importance of Being Earnest. Penguin

Second Year

Essay

Linguistics and Conversation:

H.L.B. Moody, Varieties of English. Longman

Poetry:

Edward Lucie-Smith, The Penguin Book of Elizabethan Verse.

Novel:

Defoe, Robinson Crusoe.
Fielding, Tom Jones.
Jane Austen, Emma.

Drama:

Shakespeare, Macbeth.
Shakespeare, Richard III
Jonson, Volpone.

Classical Heritage and B.L.T.

G.M. Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England. Pelican
S.T. Bindoff, Tudor England. Pelican
Maurice Ashley, England in the Seventeenth Century, Pelican
G.M. Trevelyan, Social History of England. Pelican

H.D.Kitto, The Greeks. Pelican
R.H.Burrow, The Romans. Pelican
Carl Kerényi, The Gods of the Greeks. Pelican
Sophocles, Antigone.

French

Third Year

Essay

Linguistics and Spoken English:

A University Course in Modern Linguistics, Abou Sida, A.M.,
Cairo, 1975

Novel:

Jane Austen, Emma.
E. Bronte, Wuthering Heights.
C. Dickens, Little Dorrit.
G. Eliot, Middlemarch.

Drama:

Shakespeare, Hamlet.
Shakespeare, Henry IV - Part II
J.Webster, Duchess of Malfi.

Criticism:

Aristotle, Poetics.
Plato, Ion.
Aristophanes, The Frogs.

B.L.T.:

Maurice Ashley, England in the Seventeenth Century.
J.H.Plumb, England in the Twentieth Century.
G.M.Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England.
G.M.Trevelyan, English Social History.

Arabic

Translation

French

Poetry:

An Anthology compiled by the Department.

Fourth Year

Essay

Linguistics and Spoken English:

A University Course in Modern Linguistics, Abou Sida, A.M.,
Cairo, 1975

History of Language

Drama:

Shakespeare, Othello.
Shakespeare, The Merchant of Venice.
Shakespeare, Antony and Cleopatra.
Shakespeare, The Tempest.
Beckett, Waiting for Godot.
Albee, The Zoo Story.

Novel:

Conrad, Lord Jim.
D.H.Lawrence, The Rainbow.
V.Woolf, Mrs. Dalloway.
F. Scott Fitzgerald, The Great Gatsby. Penguin
W. Faulkner, The Sound and the Fury.
Steinbeck, The Grapes of Wrath.
R. Ellison, Invisible Man.

Poetry:

Boronowski, William Blake. Penguin
David Wright, English Romantic Verse. Penguin

Criticism:

D.J.Enright, English Critical Texts 16th - 20th Centuries.
Oxford Paperbacks.

Civilization and B.L.T.

Trevelyan, A Shortened History of England.
Trevelyan, Social History of England.
J.P.Plumb, England in the Eighteenth Century
David Thompson, England in the Nineteenth Century

Translation:

A P P E N D I X X I I

Textbooks Used in the Department of English, Faculty of Education
1975/1976

First Year

Essay and Linguistics:

D.H.Spencer, Guided Composition Exercises. Longman

Speech Training and Grammar:

Allan Wakeman, English Fast.

Spencer, Guided Composition Exercises.

Robert Best, Pick and Choose. Longman

Drama:

Ibsen, A Doll's House.

Modern One-Act Plays. Lotus Books, Anglo-Egyptian
Bookshop, Cairo.

Poetry:

Anthology compiled by the Department.

Civilisation:

G.C.Thornley, An Outline of English Literature. Longman

I. Evans, A Short History of English Literature. Penguin

A.G.Eyre, An Outline History of England. Longman

Translation:

Novel:

G.C. Wyneham, The Chrysalies. Penguin

French

Arabic

Second Year

Essay and Comprehension:

D.H.Spencer, Guided Composition Exercises. Longman

Phonetics and Grammar:

Robert Best, Pick and Choose. Longman

Drama:

Shakespeare, Macbeth.

Shaw, Pygmalion.

Civilization:

G.C.Thornley, An Outline of English Literature. Longman

Ifor Evans, A Short History of English Literature. Pelican

A.G.Eyre, An Outline History of England. Longman

Novel:

Somerset Maugham, Collected Short Stories, Vol. I. Penguin

Graham Greene, The Quiet American. Penguin

Translation

French

Arabic

Third Year

Essay and Linguistics:

A University Course in Modern Linguistics
Abou Sida, A.M., Cairo, 1975

Grammar and Phonetics:

Methodology Practice.

Drama:

Shakespeare, The Winter's Tale.
Shaw, Arms and the Man.

Novel:

Richard Hughes, A High Wind in Jamaica, Penguin
Jane Austen, Persuasion

Poetry:

An Anthology compiled by the Department

Translation

Fourth Year

Essay and Linguistics:

A University Course in Modern Linguistics
Abou Sida, A.M., Cairo, 1975

Phonetics and Grammar:

Consolidation of what has been done before

Drama:

Shakespeare, Hamlet
Chekhov, The Cherry Orchard, Penguin Edition

Novel:

Iris Murdoch, The Sandcastle. Penguin
Hemingway, A Farewell to Arms. Penguin

Poetry

Translation

A P P E N D I X X I I I

Textbooks Used in Other Faculties for Non-Specialists 1974/1975

Faculty	Textbooks
1) Engineering	Selections from Thornley, G.C., <u>Further Practice in English</u> . Longmans, London 1971 plus Letter Writing a) Friendly Letters b) Letters of Application
2) Commerce	<u>First Year</u> <u>Commercial Correspondence and Terminology</u> , Dr. Ahmed Fathy Bahig. (Local) <u>Second Year</u> <u>English for Commercial Students Book II Passages</u> by Dr. Hussein A. Essawy. (Local)
3) Law	<u>First Year</u> <u>Practice and Progress</u> , Alexander, L.G., Unit II, 25 - 40, Longmans, London, 1970. Passages for comprehension compiled by the department
4) Science	<u>First Year</u> <u>A Course in Scientific English</u> , La Torre, Longman, London <u>Second Year</u> More passages from the same book
5) Medicine & Dentistry	As for Science
6) Pharmacology	As for Science
7) Arts (Other Departments)) <u>First Year</u>) <u>Units I, 1 - 15 of Developing Skills</u> , by L.G. Alexander, Longmans, London, 1971) <u>Second Year</u>) <u>Unit II, 21 - 35</u>) <u>Third Year</u>) <u>Unit III, 40 - 52</u>) Anthology compiled by the department

- 8) Education (Other Departments
French Department)
History Department) As for Arts
Philosophy Department) (Other Departments)

APPENDIX XIV

Samples of the learner's composition in the Cross-sectional Study, Stage I, Stage II and Stage III respectively.

Cross-sectional Study:

"40 Manyal Street
Damanhour.
22/11/1975.

Dear my family,

I long to see you very much. In this letter I want to tell you how I spent my day on the beach. In the morning I get up early and take my breakfast. After that I prepare my needs and I go to the beach with my friends. We prepare a quite place. We change our clothes and wear our see clothes. We swim together and sometimes play on the sand and take sun bathes. In the afternoon we take our lunch togeter and take rest. In the evening we wear our clothes and go out for walking. Sometimes we go to the sinema. After we spend nice time we returne again.

My best wishes for every one.

your daughter,
Nawal."

Stage I:

"It is Incredibly Hard to Make Friends".

"Though Friendship is supposed to be the simplest relation between its makers; yet, it is the most subtle kind of relation which occurs between people. Actually, it is a castle that requires a lot of understanding and mutual response

from its inmates. We do realize at sometimes Friendships growing between people who do not possess equal qualities, interests or habits; and still they raise a Friendship which is very strong and enduring. On the other hand, one could meet a person who has lots of qualities and interests similar to those of his mates, but, unfortunately he might have no Friends. This was the situation with John.

He had many things in common with his mates, yet he felt it was impossible to grow a real everlasting Friendship. We might as well think that he was sort of strange or rather odd, which he was not. It is simply the fact that John was put into different sensitively dangerous situations and found no one standing by his side or giving him a hand. How often had he offered his help to those who needed it. How rare had he also been given a hand on return. Was it because that he was so kind-hearted, that people took advantage of him? Is this the reward that is given to good people in such a world? As a matter of fact, John was not odd, nor was he a pessimist. John was the virtuous man that God created in this sort of "allergicness" to Friends, in order to rescue him from the mischievous, malignant monsters that surround him. Friendship must never be at the expense of ruining a man, of causing his descent rather than his progress. Real Friendship is to be able to give and take, not only give with no return. So let's be truthful to admit that in this world "benefit" is the winner. The majority of people long for friendships merely for the cause of benefits nothing more. Eventually, let's not call those "so called" relations of Friendship that we discern everywhere, real subtle Friendship. These grow by coincidence, and just for the sake of occasions not more. Really, I do agree, it is incredibly hard to make Friends in such a world! "

Stage II

"Lying is a social pleasure"

Truth is the sun of life and lie is its cloud which hides this beautiful sun. Sometimes lying becomes necessary and this usually happens in certain circumstances.

Sometimes one does not like a person in front of him, as a result of being silly or a boring person; but human courtesy obliges him to make friendship with this person and to praise him if he asks his opinion about his attitude. In various cases social necessity obliges us to tell lies and we call them white lies: when a friend asks one opinion about a dress or any thing else, we try to tell her that her dress is beautiful though it can be very ugly because we do not want to offend this dearest friend. Here lying becomes a pleasure as it pleases the friend, in some occasions when we meet a friend and we are in a hurry but necessity obliges us to talk with this friend. So we invent any trivial subject in order to prove our existence, as the weather for example or we try to tell about our circumstances and ask our friend about her state, we call those monotonous conversations for social necessity.

Some people try to spread rumours as a sort of showing up themselves in society. Those rumours can be useful and evil at the same time, they can be useful in the way: for example when someone spread a rumour that he discovered a new machine to help in the factory, all the people will admire him for this discovery and he will get the respect of everyone and will be famous, though it is a false success.

In some cases it happens that people find out that this is a false rumour and a lie. Here is the danger, they will look at this person with degradation and in this Case lying will not be a social pleasure but an undesirable thing.

In life a person must be very accurate in his behaviour and his communications with the people. He must be balanced between being earnest and joking in order to lead a happy life."

Stage III:

"Essay

Living Alone

"If only they would go and leave me alone, can't a person get some peace in this house....."

With these words and thoughts I remembered my parents' house before I moved out. Coming to think about it I never had any privacy, or any peace they were always in my way and these were the main reasons that made me move out for I couldnot stand their meddlings into my affairs. But now, today, I'd pay anything to be back again - but it's too late, besides I don't have the courage to tell them in clear words I am homesick, I miss you, and I want to come back.

Here alone and looking around me I find nothing but dead objects staring back at me although they once shared my jokes, talked to me, kept me company and were the best of my silent companionies.

I remembered when I first took the flat; how alive and full of vitality I was I was young then, and then youth has a certain quality about it, something special that not any age can have. It is fresh and lively as though it is a moving spring, its traces are depicted everywhere. I was crazy about the flat. It's only a huge living room, a bathroom and a little kitchenette. This is all and this was enough. It was my little heaven on earth. I was crazy with the idea of living alone, doing what I feel like with no interference from my parents, no disturbance from my sister, just in a world of my very own.

Instantly I fell in love with it and I set to decorate it, every corner in it is done with love + care. Till now every now and then when I'm doing some shopping or going through the leaves of some catalogue or anthor and I'd fall on something that's great, I add it immidiatly to my world.

It started with a thick wall to wall carpet in brick and a huge sofa bed. It is squared in beige, brown, orange, yellow, brick, green .. real great. The minute I saw it in the Sears catalogue I knew that it must be mine.

I stayed sometime with this for furniture. But bit by bit, my job was getting on swell and I could afford to cover the nakedness of my paradise. I added a huge comfortable brown leather chair, and threw a lot of coloured cushions over both the sofa and the chair. I also have some on the carpet. This has given it a homey touch and I used to spent hours doing nothing but admiring the beauty of my flat + praising myself on my excellent taste. I have plants in the corners also I ordered severl shaleves for my books, TV set, records and tapes, jottings out of one of them is a little desk for me to work on I also ordered a wall cabinet for my clothes and all my personal belongings.

I love copper objects, so I supplied the house with an enormous stock. The plants' pots are in copper. The little plates on the white walls are copper engravings. Even the lamp shades on either side are in copper.

I was happy for some time but suddenly I couldnot do with those deal lifeless things any more. So I took care of my little library. I was always intrested in reading and so I started picking my books with care. This became my new hobby after interior decoration. I read all types of classical novels. I bought the best sellers of the year, from Ruby M. Ayres to Harold Robbins + Irving Wallace. I passed by all. But suddenly I could read no more. For I discovered that I can never have any peace with myself as long as I donot have any peace inside me. I also discovered what the universal word - 'loneliness' means. And this was bitter.

I am a very sociable person and I have a lot of friends but this is not what is bothering me. What I hate is that when I come home after an outing with my friends or after a party I threw at my place and everybody is gone, and you sit just you and yourself. Trust me this is not much fun & not much of a company. I switch on the TV, try and read or listen to some music, but the trick doesnot work any more and I can't find anybody to talk to, anybody who would understand me and listen to what I have to say.

For then, no furniture, no dumb books, no sets of whatever entertainment can take away the loneliness and boredom that a man can feel. But even if my parents ask me back, I can't go. For after getting to too much privacy and living alone, you are never yourself with people and never at your ease. And so I am caught in my own doings for 'I can never go home anymore', just like the song says, 'and that's called Bad'. "

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