

**A Psycholinguistic Study of Freshmen Students’
Interlanguage with Reference to Verbal
Negation in Declarative Sentences**

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Abstract

This study is concerned with the analysis of the interlanguage (hence - forth IL) of a homogenous group consisting of (140) freshmen students who were admitted to the English department at Al-Mustansiriya University at the beginning of the academic year 2001 - 2002. The analysis is carried out in association with the learning strategies (hence forth LS) hypothesized to account for 12 learners’ IL products and within the framework of verbal negation in declarative sentences. To elicit the data from the subjects, a number of testing devices were designed. The study consists of three sections:

Section one presents the theoretical background to the study. It presents a brief linguistic description of negation in both English and Arabic. Section two explains the method used to elicit & analyze the data. It also provides an analysis of the data in terms of LS hypothesized to account for IL products. These strategies are: 1- interference, 2- overgeneralization, 3- ignorance of

rule restrictions, 4- incomplete application of rules, 5- false concepts hypothesized and 6- simplification.

Finally, section three discusses the weaknesses of the framework of the analysis and the respective importance of L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition and contrastive analysis hypotheses with respect to the present data. Then it attempts to briefly provide the linguistic information about the subjects' IL that can be inferred from the errors they made in the data. Lastly, there will be presentation of the main results of the study and then conclusions summing up the main findings arrived at through the study and pointing out its significance.

Introduction

Within the field of education over the last few decades a gradual but significant shift has occurred, resulting in great emphasis on learners and learning rather than teachers and teaching (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). One consequence of this shift is “the focus on and use of language learning strategies (LLS) in second and foreign language (L2 / FL) learning and teaching” (Ibid). O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1) defined LLS as “the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information”. Another consequence is the hypothesis that an IL is the product of a process of learning L2 / FL. Accordingly, it is proposed that by studying and analyzing this IL we can infer the processes and strategies which L2 learners utilize in learning the target language (TL) (c. f. Selinker, 1972; Richards, 1971; Taylor, 1975; Corder, 1967; Brown, 1980).

The present study is aimed at adopting this approach to learners’ IL. It investigates practically the IL of a homogeneous group of 140 freshmen students who were admitted to the English department at Al-Mustansiriya University at the beginning of the academic year 2001 - 2002. Also, an attempt will be made to offer possible explanation to their deviant forms in terms of L2 hypothesized by Selinker and Richards among others to account

for L2 learners' IL products. This is done with reference to verbal negation in declarative sentences; one of the many areas which students find difficult to master. After analyzing the errors with regard to their possible sources, an attempt will be made to give an account of the information that the errors yield about the learners' system in learning the given constructions. The third and final aim in this study is to assess the respective contributions of the competing L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition and CA hypotheses in accounting for the subjects' IL products in the present data.

Section One

Linguistic Description of Negation in Both English and Arabic

1.1 A Brief Linguistic Description of Negation in English

In English, we make a statement in the negative in two ways:

1) by including somewhere in the sentence a negative word such as no, nobody, nowhere, never, none.

2) by expressly negating the verb phrase (VP) by means of the function word not or its reduced version n't (Frances, 1965: 54). These two methods are mutually exclusive (Ibid). Hence, there are two negative equivalents of each positive sentence, for example:

1- He has found someone.

a- He has found none.

b- He hasn't found anyone.

However, this study is concerned only with the second type of negation i. e. verbal negation. Therefore, how this process is formed shall be described.

The process of verbal negation in English is associated with VP as the main constituent in sentence structure. It is accomplished either by inserting the particle not or its reduced form n't between the operator and the prediction. At this juncture, it is important to point out that Pyles and Algo (1993: 218) opine that “contractions are in their very nature colloquial and thus would have been considered unsuitable for writing as most people still consider them”. It is also important to indicate that ‘operator’ here means either the first auxiliary verb of a complex VP or verb be. Concerning the difference between auxiliaries and verbs, Radford (1997: 45) states that auxiliaries differ from verbs in that “auxiliaries can generally be directed negated by a following not (which can usually contract down onto the

auxiliary in the form of n't)". Verbs, on the other hand, "can not themselves be directly negated by not / n't, but require indirect negation through the use of do-support". Thus, a problem arises with the negation of a VP which contains no auxiliary; i.e. a VP whose verb is a finite full verb other than be (Quirk et al, 1972: 375). As the VP does not contain an operator, the negative rule of simply inserting not does not work in such cases. This problem is overcome by introducing the auxiliary do, which like modal auxiliaries, is followed by the bare infinitive (Ibid). In this regard, Palmer (1990: 4) distinguishes the modal auxiliaries from other auxiliaries (do, be, have) and the other verbs by saying that modal auxiliaries do not have -s form for third person singular as *wills, *musts, *mays, *cans, etc. concerning the finite full verb have, Leech et al (1982: 70) point out that it may function, in some varieties of English, as an operator. Thus it is negated simply by adding not after it and no auxiliary verb need to be introduced; for example:

- 2. a. *She has two houses.*
- b. *She has not two houses.*

But, he maintains that "nowadays people use the operator do in such cases". Therefore, the sentence (2.c) would be produced instead of (2.b) above:

- 2. c. *She does not have two houses.*

Hence, forms occurred in the data of this study like the form exemplified in (2.b) above will be considered as deviant ones.

1.2 A Brief Linguistic Description of Negation in Arabic

Sentences in Arabic fall into two types: verbal and nominal. The predicate in the verbal sentence is a verb which may be composed of one or more verbal elements as demonstrated below:

3. / *daxala? Ahmadu lgurfata* /
(*entered Ahmad the room*)
'*Ahmad entered the room*'.
4. / *Kaana? Ahmadu qad daxalaalgurfata* /
(*was Ahmad entered the room*)
'*Ahmad had entered the room*'.

The predicate in the nominal sentence, on the other hand, is a form other than a verb (i.e. a noun, an adjective, an adverb, etc). Thus, such sentences do not contain verbal elements:

5. / ? *alkitaabu mufiidun* /
(*the book useful*)
'*The book is useful*'. (Anees, 1972: 318 – 324).

Accordingly, two types of negation can be distinguished in Arabic: verbal and nominal. So, the Arabic negative particle can be classified into:

1. Verb negators which are used to negate verbal sentences include the particles / *lam* / (did not), / *lan* / (will not), and / *laa* / (do not).
2. The nominal negator / *laysa* / is used to negate nominal sentences.
3. The general negator / *maa* / is used to negate both verbal and nominal sentences. (For more details, see Hasan, 1963, vol, 1 & 4).

Section Two

Data and Analysis

2.1 Data and Methods of Collection

Data collected for this study consists of written performance of the subjects used in this study in the given structure. Dulay et al, (1982: 10) note that “the proportion of interlingual errors changes with the elicitation task, translation in particular”. They maintain that translation tasks artificially increase the learner’s reliance on his L1 systems. Therefore, it has been decided to use testing devices other than translation to elicit the given structures.

The test which was designed to elicit the subjects’ written production consists of three types of tasks. The first task is a series of (22) Yes / No questions. To have the type of sentences required (i.e. negative sentences) the subjects are instructed to give negative answers to all the questions. The second two tasks are transformational exercises. The first one requires the subjects to change (21) affirmative declarative sentences into the negative. The second one requires the subjects to supply the correct tense for the verbs of (11) affirmative declarative sentences and change them into the negative. In fact, such a task is devised in order to let the subjects have a chance of providing the right operator verb and not only using the ones which are already given in the affirmative sentences as in the previous tasks.

2.2 Method of Analysis

To analyse the data, three principal and complementary steps are involved: 1. Identification: this step simply involves recognizing erroneous utterances. 2. Description and classification: description of errors is a necessary antecedent step of their explanation. At this point, it is essential to distinguish what is meant by description of errors and explanation of errors. While the former “gives an account of what has to be explained”, the latter explains “how errors come about” (Corder, 1973: 275). That is, the former gives a linguistic description of errors in terms of “the physical difference between the learner’s utterance and the reconstructed version” (Ibid) whereas the latter is “a psychological explanation in terms of the learner’s strategies and the process of learning” (Ibid”). Errors may be classified into error taxonomies of which there are several types. Dulay et al (1982: 146-164) discuss three types of taxonomy: 1. linguistic category taxonomy, 2. surface strategy taxonomy, and 3. comparative taxonomy. However, the procedure of these approaches are well known and there is no need to go into them here. Rather, it is important to point out that my approach to error description has been similar to the second one described by Dulay et al (Ibid: 150) i.e. surface strategy taxonomy whereby errors are classified into four categories: 1. omission, 2. addition, 3. misformation and 4. misordering. The advantage of this approach is that it highlights the behaviour of the learner and the ways surface structures are altered. It also makes us aware that surface elements of a language are altered in systematic ways and that learners’ errors are not the result of laziness but rather of “the learner’s use of interim principles to produce a new language” (Ibid). Finally, it is important to emphasize that this categorization is just an aid to provide a framework within which we can locate the errors occurred in the data of the

study. 3. The third and ultimate objective of analysis is the explanation of how errors come about. It has already been pointed out that this step attempts a psychological explanation of the learners' IL products in terms of their strategies and processes of learning. In this regard, Selinker (1972: 35-36) suggests that L2 learner's IL products should be explained in terms of the strategies hypothesized to be utilized by the L2 learner in learning the target system and to account for his IL products. It is intended, as mentioned earlier in the introduction, to adopt this approach in explaining and accounting for the IL products occurred in the data of the present study.

There are two conventional procedures for studying IL; "deductive" & "inductive" (Zydatiss, 1977: 40). The former refers to the investigator's experiential intuitions while the latter refers to the observation of the learners' L2 performance. Corder (1981: 56-64) and Kellerman (1974: 186) contend that learners' intuitions about the grammar of their IL must also be taken into account by analysts. However, there are some reservations about this intuitional data. Thus, Kellerman (Ibid: 175) advises the researchers to "treat the data derived from such elicitation with some care". Furthermore, some analysts found the help that this type of data provides them with was not commiserate with the effort and time they spent in questioning the subjects to elicit their intuition about the grammar of their IL. Therefore, it is intended to adopt Selinker's suggestion (1972: 34) in that he rejects the use of intuitional data and advises us as researchers to restrict our analysis to the textual data.

2.3 Analysis

To carry out the analysis, the data must be presented first. It will be presented, as it has already been mentioned, within the frame of a surface strategy taxonomy (see Appendix A). Then an attempt will be made to explain it in terms of the LS. These LS are: 1. interference, 2. overgeneralization, 3. ignorance of rule restrictions, 4. incomplete application of rules, 5. false concepts hypothesized and 6. simplification.

2.3.1 Interference (Interf)

This term has two uses: 1. the psychological use and 2. the sociolinguistic use. The former use refers to “the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned” (Dulay et al, 1982: 98). The latter use, on the other hand, refers to language interaction when two languages are in contact (Ibid). The term ‘Interf’ in its sociolinguistic use was first used by Weinreich (1953: 1) who defines it as:

Those instances of deviation from the norms of either languages which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language, i.e. as a result of languages in contact.

In this sense, it is quite different from the phenomenon of L1 Interf as conceived by the Contrastive Analysis (CA) hypothesis whereby Interf is attributed to unfamiliarity with the L2, that is “to the learner’s not having learned target patterns” (Dulay et al, 1982: 99). This suggests that L2 learners fall back on their L1 whenever they attempt to produce utterances or structures in the L2 they have not yet learnt or acquired. Thus, Selinker (1972: 37) states that if “fossilizable items, rules and subsystems which occur in L2 performance are a result of the NL” then the process of language

transfer is operating. However, transfer can be of two types: ‘positive’ and ‘negative’. If transfer from the L1 results in target-like forms, the transfer is said to be positive, whereas it is negative if it gives rise to deviant forms. The deviant forms that are due to negative transfer from L1 (i.e. L1 Interf) should in theory be able to be predicted by the CA hypothesis and can certainly be explained by contrasting the relevant structures in the NL and the TL.

1) The most common example of L1 Interf in the data under study (108 occurrences i.e. 62.79 %) is the omission of the auxiliary verb do which results in the placement of the negative particle not before the main verb, for example:

*8 *No, she not teach first classes last year.*
“*No, she didn’t teach first classes last year*”.
*27 *No, my brother not arrived yesterday.*
“*No, my brother didn’t arrive yesterday*”.

These deviant negatives are instances of L1 Interf. They reflect the form of Arabic negatives. The affirmative declarative verbal sentence in Arabic is negated simply by placing the relevant negative particle before the first or only verb in the VP. For instance, the equivalent structure for the deviant negative exemplified in (27) above would be:

/ lam yasil? Axi ilbaariha /
(not arrive brother+my the yesterday)
‘My brother did not arrive yesterday’.

It may be argued, however, that this deviance is not interlingual, but rather developmental as it occurs in the speech of children acquiring English as their L1. Klima and Bllugi (1966) record such a deviancy in the speech of three children: Adam, Eve and Sarah acquiring English as their L1, for example: (* He no bite you). Similarly, Ravem (1968), Milon (1974) report

the omission of the auxiliary do and placing the negator no / not before the verb as characteristic of the negation in the IL of Norwegian and Japanese children respectively acquiring English as a second language naturalistically, for example:

**I not like that.* (Ravem, *Ibid*)
**Inot give you candy.* (Milon, *Ibid*)

However, the subjects in this study, who are of greater linguistic maturity than the above mentioned children, added to the fact that they are learning English as a foreign language as opposed to a second language, I feel that the omission of the auxiliary do is a function of L1 Interf rather than is a parallel with the L1 acquisition of English negation. Likewise, Scott and Tucker (1974: 77) explain this type of deviancy in terms of L1 Interf on the basis that Arabic has no auxiliary verbs.

2) Another instance of L1 rules being applied and resulting in a deviant form (30 occurrences i.e. 17.44%) is the omission of the copula as in:

**18 I not a teacher.*
"I am not a teacher".
**45 Ali not swimming.*
"Ali is not swimming".

As Arabic lacks copula verb, the deviant forms given above which involve the omission of the copula can be ascribed to L1 Interf. Similarly, Scott and Tucker (*Ibid*) attribute the omission of the copula by Arabic speakers to L1 Interf. Their assumption that the L1 Interf is at the source of the copula omission is based on the fact that Arabic has no copula. Thus, (30) occurrences of such deviancy in the data of this study can be sufficient evidence to support this claim.

Alternatively, it may be argued that such a deviancy can be the result of system simplification whereby the learner reduces the system of the TL to

a simple code in order to lighten his learning burden. Thus, such a deviancy is noticed to characterize the speech of children acquiring English as their L1 and as L2 naturalistically. In the work on L1 acquisition, Klima and Bellugi (1966) report similar deviancy to be produced by three children acquiring English as their L1 as in the following example:

**He not little.*

Also in the work on L2 learning, similar deviancy is cited by Ravem (1968) to characterize the IL of his 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ year old Norwegian son, Rune, whilst acquiring English in a second language environment; for example:

**I not looking for edge.*

It is interesting to note that the subjects participated in this study tend to omit the copula mainly when it functions as auxiliary (26 occurrences) rather than when it functions as a main verb (4 occurrences). It is also noticed under the other categories of error explanation that verb be in the sentences where it functions as an auxiliary verb is a great potential source for resulting IL products. However, this type of deviancy is counterbalanced by other instances of deviancy which involve redundancy of the copula (such instances will be discussed later under the phenomenon of overgeneralization).

3) Another type of deviancy occurred in the production of the negatives resulting from L1 Interf is the omission of the subjective personal pronoun (4 occurrences i.e. 2.33%); for example:

**2 No, isn't fat.*

"No, she isn't fat".

**15 No, watch TV tonight.*

"No, O won't watch TV tonight".

The omission of the subject in the above examples reflects the structure of Arabic. The equivalent structures in Arabic for the deviant forms

exemplified in (2 & 15) above respectively consists of (the relevant negative particle + adj) and (the relevant negative particle + verb). Thus, they would be:

2 / *laa, laysat badiina* /
(no, not fat)
“No, she is not fat”.
15 / *laa, lan ushaahida altilfizyawn haḍihi ilayla* /
(no, not watch TV this night)
“No, I won’t watch TV tonight”.

However, one may argue that these cases of ellipsis could be the result of system simplification in an attempt on the part of the learner to relieve himself of the effort of producing what may be obvious from the context. Unfortunately, the ellipsis in these cases diverges so widely from the TL system that it results in deviant forms since the use of the subject whether in the form of noun or pronoun is obligatory in English.

4) Other instances of L1 Interf occurred in the data of this study (30 occurrences i.e. 17.44%) are:

*32 *Ali not has broken the window.*
*36 *They not will arrive.*
*39 *I not can speak Kurdish.*
*47 *John not is a teacher.*

The preposing of the negative particle not to the verb phrase in the above examples reflects the structure of Arabic whereby verbal sentences are negated by placing the relevant negator before the verb. We are assuming here that the learner regards the two-element verbs has broken, will arrive, can speak in the examples (32, 36, 39) given above as one verb.

So far, we have seen that a large part of the learners’ IL, namely 172 occurrences (i.e. 10.01% of all the deviant forms occurred in the data) are accounted for in terms of L1 Interf. However, “there must be other processes at work” (Littlewood, 1984: 21). One of these processes hypothesized to

account for the learner's IL products is 'overgeneralization'. Now, let us consider the deviances occurred in the data that can be accounted for in terms of this process.

2.3.2 overgeneralization (OG)

OG is a LS which is hypothesized to be due to mutual Interf of structures and rules within TL itself. Thus, Richards (1971: 174) states that:

Overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of his experience of the structures in the target language.

Likewise, Brown (1980: 87) defines OG as

A strategy that occurs as the second language learner acts within the target language-irrespective of the native language-beyond legitimate bounds.

1) This process is clearly manifested in the deviant forms (145 occurrences i.e. 31.93%) where the tense marker is added to both the auxiliary do and to the main verb, as in:

**14 No, I didn't went to the library yesterday.*

"No, I didn't go to the library yesterday".

**25 She doesn't gets up early.*

"She doesn't get up early".

**30 I didn't had my breakfast.*

"I didn't have my breakfast".

**41 It doesn't rains in summer.*

"It doesn't rain in summer".

In the above deviant forms, the past tense morpheme –ed as in the ones exemplified in (14 & 30) and the present tense morpheme for the 3rd singular –s in (25 & 41) are extended to environments in which, to the learner, they could logically apply, but just do not (c.f. Selinker, 1972: 38).

2) Another instance of OG of TL rules is seen in the following deviant forms (50 occurrences i.e. 11.01%):

- *28 *She willn't have an exam tomorrow.*
"She won't have an exam tomorrow".
- *36 *They willn't arrive tomorrow.*
"They won't arrive tomorrow".

In fact, what is involved in the above examples is that the learner has produced the deviant form *willn't by analogy with the English verbs isn't, wasn't, weren't, aren't, didn't, don't, doesn't, haven't, can't etc.

Another instance of OG which seems to be due to the same process occurred in the data of this study (14 occurrences i.e. 3.08%) is the production of the deviant form *amn't as in:

- *18 *I amn't a teacher.*
"I am not a teacher".
- *34 *I amn't going home.*
"I am not going home".

Again, what is involved here is that the learner has produced the deviant form *amn't by analogy with the rest of target copular negatives isn't, wasn't, aren't, weren't, and by analogy with the verbs, don't, doesn't, didn't, can't etc.

3) Richards (1971: 174) also states that OG generally involves “the creation of one deviant structure in place of two regular structures”. This process is clearly manifested in the following deviant constructions (37 occurrences i.e. 8.16%):

*37 *I am not leave tonight.*
“*I am not leaving tonight*”.
*45 *Ali isn't swim.*
“*Ali isn't swimming*”.

Here, the learners have created these deviant forms by a kind of hybridisation of two regular structures. For instance, the deviant structure exemplified in (37) above has been produced in place of the two regular structures: 1. *I am not leaving* and 2. *I don't leave*.

4) Another type of deviancy appeared in the data of the study (33 occurrences i.e. 7.27%) which could be attributed to this process is the substitution of the auxiliary verb be as in the following examples:

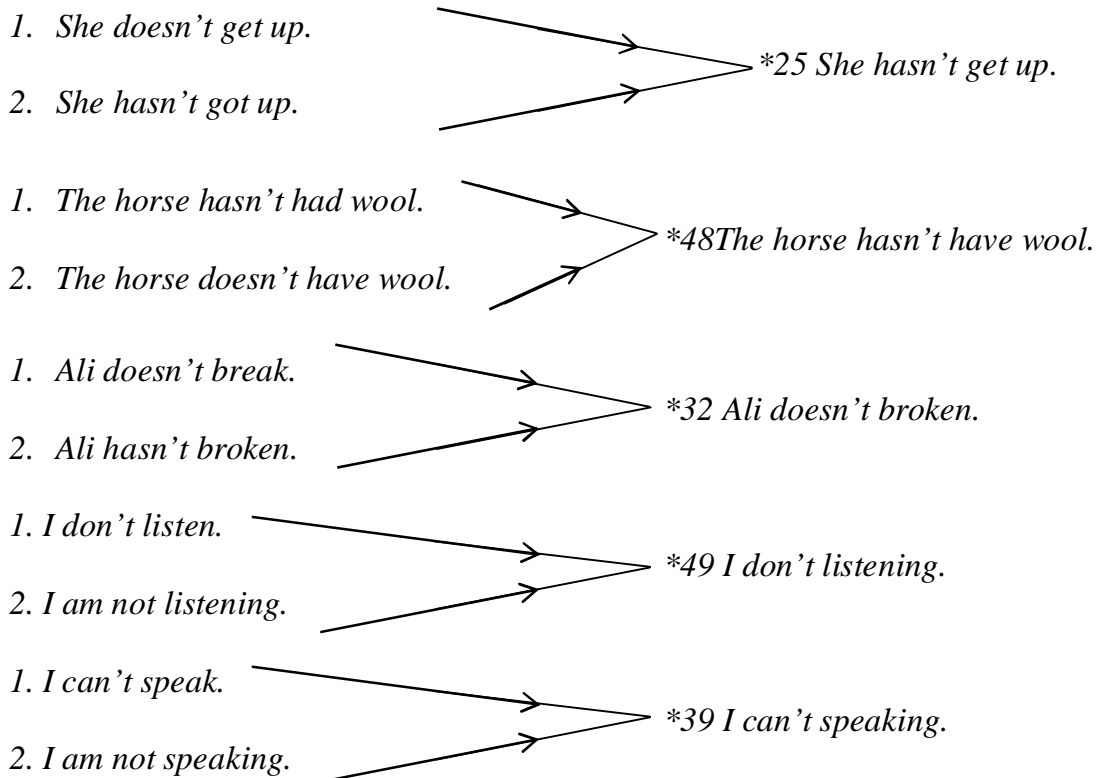
*34 *I don't going home.*
“*I am not going home*”.
*35 *They didn't cleaning the house.*
“*They were not cleaning the house*”.

Here, again the learners have produced the deviant from exemplified in (34) above by a kind of hybridisation of the two regular structures: 1. *I don't go* and 2. *I am not going*. Similarly, the deviant negative exemplified in (35) above has been resulted from hybridisation of the two regular structures: 1. *They didn't clean* and 2. *They were not cleaning*.

5) Likewise, the following deviant structures have been produced by a kind of hybridisation of two regular structures (146 occurrences i.e. 32.16%):

*25 *She hasn't get up early.*
“*She doesn't get up early*”.
*48 *The horse hasn't have wool.*
“*The horse doesn't have wool*”.
*32 *Ali doesn't broken the window.*
“*Ali hasn't broken the window*”.
*49 *I don't listening to the radio every morning.*
“*I don't listen to the radio every morning*”.
*39 *I can't speaking Kurdish.*
“*I can't speak Kurdish*”.

The process underlying the above deviant forms may be diagrammed respectively thus:



6) Another example of OG whereby the learners rationalize a deviant structure from their previous knowledge about the system of the TL is the addition of the copula (29 occurrences i.e. 6.08%) as in:

- *13 *No, I am don't get up early.*
 "No, I don't get up early".
- *15 *No, I am will not watch TV tonight.*
 "No, I won't watch TV tonight".
- *39 *I am cannot speak Kurdish.*
 "I cannot speak Kurdish".

In the above examples, the learners invent a deviant rule in that the in that the pronoun I must be followed by the copula irrespective of the verb form or the verb tense of the sentence. Alternatively, it seems plausible to

attribute this type of deviancy to high frequency of the occurrence of the sequence I + am in the input that the learners are exposed to.

However, these suggestions are merely conjecture as it is not possible to trace the deviances decisively and unambiguously to a certain process rather than the other. This in turn could be due to the overlapping nature of the LS. Nevertheless, the process of OG appears to account for 454 i.e. 29.24% of the deviant forms occurred in the data. Note that other instances of OG may be discussed under the LS hypothesized by Richards (1971: 175-178) that give rise to OG deviances: 1. ignorance of rule restrictions, 2. incomplete application of rules and 3. false concepts hypothesized. Now let us consider other types of IL products occurred in the data in terms of these LS.

2.3.3 Ignorance of Rule Restrictions (I R R)

Richards (1971: 175) relates to OG “the failure to observe the restrictions of existing structure”. So due to that failure, the learner applies certain target language rules to contexts where they are grammatically inapplicable. Thus, Richards (Ibid) defines this process as “a type of generalization or transfer, since the learner is making use of a previously acquired rule in a new situation.” He maintains that some instances of rule restriction deviances may be interpreted in terms of analogy and other instances may be due to rote learning of rules.

1) Examples of deviancy occurred in the data which can be due to I. R. R. (96 occurrences i.e. 18.75%) are as follows:

*6 *No, she doesn't get a car.*

“No, she hasn't got a car”.

*16 *No, I didn't close the door.*

“No, I haven't closed the door”.

*51 *I don't send the telegram yet.*

"I haven't sent telegram yet".

In the type of deviancy exemplified in (6, 16 & 51) above, the learners seem to be ignorant of the rule that the verb phrase that contains the operator have can be negated without the need of introducing the auxiliary do. Alternatively, these deviant forms may be attributed to the learners' ignorance of the rules required for negating such a verb phrase. So, in order not to show their ignorance, they had recourse to adopting a 'compensatory strategy' (in Coady's term, 1979: 6) whereby the learners compensate for what they do not know or are not certain about by what they know or are certain about. Thus, the learners erroneously substituted the present perfect tense by the simple present tense as in the deviant forms exemplified in (6 & 51) above, and by the simple past tense as in the deviant form exemplified in (16) above. Another explanation one may give for this deviancy is that it may be ascribed to chronological factors whereby "patterns learned first have priority over patterns learned at a later date because of the convenient simplicity of these first basic structures" (Nickel, 1971 quoted in Richards & Sampson, 1974: 14).

2) Other examples occurred in the data that can be interpreted in terms of I R R are two contradictory cases:

In the first case, the learners have introduced the auxiliary do where there is no need to it (59 occurrences i.e. 11.52&) as in:

- *15 *No, I don't watch TV tonight.*
"No, I won't watch TV tonight".
- *36 *They don't arrive tomorrow.*
"They won't arrive tomorrow".
- *40 *He don't see well.*
"He cannot see well".

In the second case, on the other hand, the learners do not introduce the auxiliary do where it is obligatory to be introduced (43 occurrences i.e. 8.39%) as in:

- *4 *No, she wearn't glasses.*
 "No, she doesn't wear glasses".
- *26 *I liven't in Baghdad.*
 "I don't live in Baghdad".
- *50 *I visited not my friend yesterday.*
 "I didn't visit my friend yesterday".

The deviant forms in the first case which are exemplified in (15, 36 & 40) above reflect the learners' ignorance of the rule that the modal verb can serve as operator and there is no need to introduce the auxiliary do. On the other hand, the deviant forms in the second case which are exemplified in (4, 26 & 50) above reflect that the learners seem to be ignorant of the rule that the finite full verbs other than be can not function as operator. Thus, the introduction of the auxiliary do is obligatory to negate verb phrases that consist of such verbs. However, Wode (cited by Littlewood, 1984: 42) reports similar deviancy to be produced in the speech of German speaking children acquiring English as a second language naturalistically, as in the following example:

- **John go not to school.*

Interestingly, this type of deviancy had been attributed to the subjects' L1 interference i.e. to German.

3) Other instances of I R R errors occurred in the data (125 occurrences i.e. 24.41%) are:

- *30 *I had not my breakfast.*
 "I didn't have my breakfast".
- *48 *The horse hasn't wool.*
 "The horse doesn't have wool".

The deviant forms exemplified in (30 & 48) above reflect the learner's ignorance of the rule that the full verb have doesn't carry negation as it cannot function as operator. Thus, the auxiliary do has to be introduced to take the role of the operator. However, these forms are not considered deviant in some varieties of English (notably British English) as it is grammatically acceptable for the verb have as a full verb or auxiliary verb to carry negation (see 1.1). The subjects of this study are not exposed to such varieties of English in the natural environment. Rather, they might be exposed to such structures through the classroom input where teachers accept their production as they are grammatically acceptable in British English. Another plausible explanation one may give for this type of deviancy is that it may be due, so Taylor (1975: 101) suggests, to the pressure from forms such as doesn't, didn't, don't, isn't, wasn't, aren't, weren't.

4) Other examples of I. R. R. deviancy (43 occurrences i.e. 8.39%) are:

*18 *No, I aren't a teacher.*

"No, I am not a teacher".

*19 *No, I aren't going to the library.*

"No, I am not going to the library".

Here the learners appear to be ignorant of the rule of subject verb agreement. Another plausible explanation one may give for this type of deviancy is that the learners seem to be aware consciously or unconsciously of the rule restriction that only am among the finite forms of verb be does not have a short negative form. So, in order to avoid producing a deviant form such as *amn't, they overapply the negative copula aren't to a context where it is grammatically inapplicable as seen in the deviant forms exemplified in (18 & 19) above.

5) Another type of deviancy which may be attributed to I R R (14 occurrences i.e. 2.73%) is the misplacement of not as in the following sentences:

**28 Layla will haven't an exam tomorrow.*

"Layla will not have an exam tomorrow".

**36 They will arrive not tomorrow.*

"They will not arrive tomorrow".

Here, the learners appear to be ignorant of the rule that the modal verb has to carry the negation. Alternatively, it could be due to not applying one of the requirements of negativization. The learners appear to succeed in introducing the appropriate elements required for negativization but they fail to produce them in the right order.

6) The following examples also reflect the learners' ignorance of certain TL rules (71 occurrences i.e. 13.86%):

**11 No, she don't next year.*

"No, she won't do it next year".

**46 I don't anything tomorrow evening.*

"I won't do anything tomorrow evening".

Here, the learners seem to be ignorant of the distinction between the two functions of the verb do: its function as a main verb and its function as auxiliary. So, this ignorance led the learner to omit the operator will and use do the main verb in these sentences to take the role of the operator and the role of the main verb.

7) I. R. R. seems also to account for the following deviant forms (61 occurrences i.e. 11.91%):

**6 No, she hasn't get a car.*

"No, she hasn't got a car".

**31 No, they haven't finish their homework.*

"No, they haven't finished their homework".

In this type of deviancy, the learners seem to be ignorant of the rule that the auxiliary verb have is followed by the past participle to form the perfect tense. Another explanation one may offer for this type of deviancy is that it may be accounted for in terms of OG whereby the learners have created the deviant form exemplified in (6) above in place of the two regular structures: 1. *She hasn't got a car* & 2. *She doesn't get a car*. Similarly, by a kind of hybridisation of the two regular structures: 1. *They haven't finished their homework* & 2. *They don't finish their homework* the learners have produced the deviant structure instanced in (31) above.

However, the process of I. R. R. seems to account for 512 occurrences i.e. 33.09% of all the deviances occurred in the data of the present study.

2.3.4 Incomplete Application of Rules (I. A. R)

Another source of errors is the phenomenon of I. A. R. this phenomenon underlies the occurrence of “structures whose deviancy represents the degree of development of the rules required to produce acceptable utterance” (Richards, 1971: 177). Furthermore, he (Ibid) contends that many reasons could be at the source of such deviancy; such as the inherent difficulty in the TL system, the teaching techniques and teaching materials, and learners' motivation to achieve communication which can be achieved without needing to produce grammatically correct sentences.

1) This process is manifested in the deviant forms where the learners have substituted one form of the auxiliary do for another form of it (94 occurrences i.e. 45.63%) as in the following examples:

*4 *No, she don't wear glasses.*

“No, she doesn't wear glasses”.

*14 *No, I don't go to the library yesterday.*

“No, I didn't go to the library yesterday”.

*50 *I doesn't visit my friend yesterday.*

"I didn't visit my friend yesterday".

In these deviant forms, the learners appear to succeed in introducing the auxiliary do required to negate verb phrases consisting of finite full verbs other than be but they fail to introduce the appropriate form of it. This in turn may be due to the redundancy of the forms of the auxiliary do i.e. inherent systematic difficulty of the auxiliary do.

2) The process of I A R coupled with the process of I A R seems to be at the source of the following deviant forms (32 occurrences i.e. 15.53%):

**27 My brother doesn't arrived yesterday.*

"My brother didn't arrive yesterday".

**41 It don't rains in summer.*

"It doesn't rain in summer".

These deviant forms reflect the learners' failure to introduce the appropriate form of the auxiliary do. They, also, reflect the learners' ignorance of the rule that full finite verbs lose the inflectional marker for tense while the auxiliary do takes them.

3) The process of I A R is also manifested in the deviant forms where the present form of the modals is substituted by their past form (36 occurrences i.e. 17.47%) as in the following examples:

**15 No I wouldn't watch TV tonight.*

"No, I won't watch TV tonight".

**40 He couldn't see well.*

"He can't see well".

Again, in these deviant forms, the learners appear to be aware of the rules required for negativization but they fail to produce the correct form of the modal verbs. Note that four deviances occurred with the modal verb can while thirty two deviances occurred with the modal verb will. Thus, we are justified to consider the deviancy with the modal verb can as a performance error rather than a competence error. The deviances with the modal verb

will, on the other hand, may be attributed to a “compensatory strategy” (in Coady’s term; 1979: 6). So in order to avoid producing the deviant form *willn’t as some learners actually did (see page 16-17); they erroneously produced wouldn’t instead of the correct form won’t which they do not know.

4) Other instances of deviant forms that can be accounted for in term of the process of I A R (44 occurrences i.e. 21.36%) are:

*6 *No, she hadn’t got a car.*

“No, she hasn’t got a car”.

*17 *I hasn’t finished my work before I went to bed.*

“I hadn’t finished my work before I went to bed.

*32 *Ali haven’t broken the window.*

“Ali hasn’t broken the window”.

In these deviant forms, the learners also appear to be aware of the rules required for negativization but they fail to introduce the correct form of the auxiliary have. It may be regard as well that such a deviancy can be due to the learners’ ignorance of the distinction between the form of the past perfect and the form of the present perfect as in the deviant forms exemplified in (6 & 7) above. Furthermore, the deviant forms exemplified in (17 & 32) reflect the learners’ ignorance of the rule of subject - verb agreement. However, the process of I A R seems to account for 206 occurrences i.e. 13.31% of all the deviant forms occurred in the present data.

2.3.5 False Concepts Hypothesized (F C H)

Richards (1971: 178) states that this process underlies “a class of developmental errors which derive from the faulty comprehension of distinction in the target language”. Thus, the learners’ failure to grasp the distinction in the TL gives rise to hypothesizing false concepts.

1) The following deviant sentences are examples of this process (243 occurrences i.e. 76.39 %):

- *4 *No, she isn't wear glasses.*
 "No, she doesn't wear glasses".
- *26 *I am not live in Baghdad.*
 "I don't live in Baghdad".
- *48 *The horse isn't have wool.*
 "The horse doesn't have wool".

In these deviant forms, the learners seem to have formulated the faulty hypothesis that negativization requires insertion of copula before verbs. Alternatively, this type of deviancy may be due to overdrilling of copular negatives.

2) The process of F C H is also manifest in the following deviant forms (101 occurrences i.e. 23.61%):

- *6 *No, she is not got a car.*
 "No, she hasn't got a car".
- *32 *Ali is not broken the window.*
 "Ali hasn't broken the window".
- *51 *I am not sent the telegram yet.*
 "I haven't sent the telegram yet".
- *15 *I am not watch TV tonight.*
 "I won't watch TV tonight".
- *21 *No, I am not swim.*
 "No, I can't swim".
- *36 *They aren't arrive tomorrow.*
 "They won't arrive tomorrow".

In these deviant forms, finite forms of the verb be appear to have been interpreted as the only carrier of negation. Thus, it seems that the auxiliaries required for carrying the negation are the most potential source for F. C. H. in particular and for other types of OG deviances in general. This in turn could be due to the redundancy feature that characterizes most of the English auxiliaries i.e. inherent systematic difficulty in the English auxiliaries themselves. Apart from that, this can be due to poor input. That is, the input

to which the learners were exposed was so poor that the learners were unable to systematize and generate it correctly. However, the process of F C H seems to account for 344 occurrences i.e. 22.22% of all the deviances occurred in the present data.

2.3.6 Simplification (SF)

This LS is characterized, as described by Selinker (1972: 40), by “a tendency on the part of learners to reduce the TL to a simpler system” in an attempt to lessen their linguistic burden. Thus, this process is usually referred to as ‘redundancy reduction’ whereby many items which are redundant to conveying the intended message are eliminated (Littlewood, 1984: 28).

This process is manifest in the following types of deviancy:

- 1) Omission of auxiliaries. There are 108 instances of the omission of the auxiliary do and 30 instances of the omission of the verb be. These types of omission have already been discussed under ‘interference’ and traced to interfering factors from the subjects’ L1 as Arabic has neither auxiliary nor copula.
- 2) Omission of the subjective personal pronouns I (3 occurrences) and she (1 occurrence). This type of deviancy is also attributed to L1 interference as it reflects the system of the subjects’ L1 Arabic.
- 3) The third deviancy type occurred in the data which can be attributed to SF strategy uncoupled by any interlingual factor is the case of forming the negative simply by placing no before the utterance (31 occurrences) for example:

**2 No, she is fat.*

“No, she isn’t fat”.

**12 No, she was abroad last year.*

- “No, she wasn’t abroad last year”.*
 *26 *No, I live in Baghdad.*
“No, I don’t live in Baghdad”.
 *41 *No, it rains in summer.*
“No, it doesn’t rain in summer”.

In these examples, the learners reduce the TL system to a simple code in an attempt to lighten their learning burden. Alternatively, it is possible to see this type of deviancy as the outcome of a communication strategy through which the L2 learner “can convey meanings which would otherwise be beyond his acquired competence” (Littlewood, 1984: 31). However, it is not always possible, as he (Ibid) emphasizes, to determine whether a deviancy of simplified usage is the result of a communication strategy or an internalized rule. Nevertheless, numerous examples of such a deviancy are reported in the various studies on child L1 acquisition of English and L2 naturalistic acquisition of English by Norwegian and Arabic speaking children respectively:

- L1: *No wipe finger (Klima & Bellugi, 1966)*
*L2: *Not like it now (Ravem, 1968)*
*L2: *No, English (Hanania and Gradman, 1977)*
**Not, raining*

4) it is interesting to note that there are 12 sentences occurred in the data which can be attributed to SF strategy and which are consistent with TL negative system; the learner placed the negator never before the verb as in the following examples:

- 25 She never gets up early.*
29 He never went to Basrah.
41 It never rains in summer.
50 I never visited my friend yesterday.
53 I never finished my work before I went to bed.

One may contend that these IL products do not necessarily indicate that the learner has acquired the negative structure. But rather, the learner had

recourse to adopting “compensatory strategy” in Coady’s term (Coady, 1979: 6) whereby the learner compensates for what he does not know or is not certain about by what he knows or is certain about. Thus, the learner avoided the complex code of the negator not. Instead, he adopted a simple code of TL negative forms whereby never is simply placed before the finite verbs other than verb be in an attempt to lighten his learning burden. Nevertheless, the process of SF seems to account for 31 occurrences i.e. 2.004% of all the deviances that occurred in the present data.

To sum up, we introduce table 1 below to point out the proportion of the contribution of each LS and of interlingual errors as opposed to intralingual errors in accounting for the deviances occurred in the data:

Table 1
The production of Interlingual & Intralingual Errors

Types of Errors	LS	Proportion	%	Total	%
Interlingual errors	Interf	172	10.01	172	10.01
Intralingual errors	OG	454	29.24	1547	89.99
	I R R	512	33.09		
	I A R	206	13.31		
	F C H	344	22.22		
	SF	31	2.004		
The total of errors				1719	

Section Three

Discussion & Conclusions

3.1 Discussion

3.1.1 Weaknesses of the Framework of the Analysis

As we have seen a major weakness in the use of a taxonomy for the explanation of errors, such as the one adopted in this study, is the lack of clear boundaries between its categories. It is noticed that there is a considerable amount of overlap between the three categories: ‘ignorance of rule restrictions’, ‘incomplete application of rules’, & ‘false concepts hypothesized’ on the one hand and ‘overgeneralization’ on the other. There is also a considerable overlap between ‘simplification’ and ‘interference’. Furthermore, ‘interference’ & ‘overgeneralization’ seem to be, as Brown (1980: 87) states, as “simply extensions of general psychological principles”. The former is simply a form of “generalizing that takes prior first language experiences and applies them incorrectly” (Ibid). The latter, on the other hand, is the incorrect application of “previously learned language material to a present second language context” (Ibid). Thus, “all generalizing involves transfer, and all transfer involves generalizing (Ibid). So, it seems that the overlap between the categories is so great that we would be justified in claiming that they are all several manifestations of the same process - the process of ‘simplification’. This seems natural as the immediate objective for a language learner, as Richards (1975: 118) points out, is “to construct an optimum grammar, that is a grammar in which the fewest number of rules do the maximum amount of work”. A further weakness in the use of taxonomy of this kind to explain errors is that, due to the overlapping nature of the categories, the analyst is obliged to make “a number of difficult and ultimately arbitrary decisions” in order to attribute a single source to an error (Dulay et al, 1982: 144). Likewise, Selinker (1972: 42) contends that

analysts can not always decisively identify to which of these processes the observable data is to be attributed. Thus, the attribution of errors to set categories of explanation is, to a greater or lesser extent, a matter of conjecture as “explaining error types is not simply a matter of assigning a single source to each error that occurs” (Dulay et al, 1982: 144). Therefore, it is contended that “an adequate explanation of language learner’s verbal performance seems much too complex to be squeezed into taxonomic formats” (Ibid).

3.1.2 The Learners’ IL Systems

It is found that of total of 1719 errors made by the subjects (172) (i.e. 10.01%) are interlingual, and (1547) (i.e. 89.99%) are intralingual. The interlingual errors arose, as we have seen throughout the analysis, from interference from the L1, whereas intralingual errors arose from mutual interference within the TL itself. Such types of errors are hypothesized to be “overt manifestation of learners’ systems” (Brown, 1980: 166). So, let us state the information that these errors may yield about the learners’ systems in learning the English system for verbal negation. The systems operating within the learners that are revealed by their interlingual errors are:

1. The copula & auxiliary verbs are redundant and the preposing of not to the only verb or to the verb phrase / to the noun or to the adjective is all that is required for forming negation.
2. The subjective personal pronouns she and I are not obligatory constituents in the negative sentence, and thus, they can be omitted.

The systems which can be inferred from the intralingual errors are:

1. The tense morpheme has to be added to both the auxiliary do and the main verb of the sentence.
2. All that is required for negating will is a mere addition of n't (the reduced version of not) to it. This in turn indicates that won't (the contracted negative form of will) has not been acquired yet.
3. What is required for negating am is an addition of n't to it. This also indicates that am not the only negative form of am has not been acquired yet.
4. The pronoun I has to be followed by the copula am irrespectively of the verb of the sentence. In other words, the elements of the sequence I + am are inseparable.
5. Two contradictory pieces of information: the first one is that the verb be can not stand before not, and thus, it has to be substituted by the auxiliary do which can stand before not whereas the second one is that negativization requires insertion of the verb be.
6. The uses of the verb have have not been acquired yet.
7. The verb do does not have the function of indicating the tense, but rather it has just the function of standing before not.
8. a. The same do can carry out the functions of the verb do as auxiliary and as a main verb. That is, it stands before not and supplies the meaning.
8. b. Also, the same have can perform the function of the verb have as auxiliary and its function as a main verb. Finally, negativization simply requires the preposing of no to the affirmative sentence.

3.1.3 The Respective Importance of the CA & L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition Hypotheses in the Analysis of the Present Data

The findings of the analysis of the present data are in support of the latter hypothesis rather than the former. The L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition hypothesis has been found to play a major role in accounting for the learners' IL systems, namely 89.99%. The CA hypothesis, on the other hand, has been found to account just for a small proportion of their IL systems, viz 10.01%. It is proposed that the environment in which an L2 is learned or acquired may have some bearing on the extent of mother tongue interference (Dulay et al, 1982: 109). Hence, the ratio of interlingual errors to intralingual errors is supposed to be great for learners such as the subjects of the study who are learning English under classroom conditions in a foreign environment. So, there should be other factors which may affect the proportion of the contribution of the CA hypothesis in accounting for the IL products. Some of these factors may be the kind of structure being investigated and elicitation tasks being used in gathering the language data.

However, it seems safe to suggest that neither CA hypothesis nor L2 acquisition = L1 acquisition hypothesis, as they stand alone, can account wholly for the learners' IL systems. So, in order to achieve adequate analysis of the learners' IL, the two hypotheses have to be considered rather than considering one and neglecting the other. That is, the two hypotheses have to be regarded as complementary hypotheses rather than contradictory ones. In support of this compromise view, Wode (1981: 51) suggests that the solution "cannot be to deny the one or the other but to retain both and determine their respective status". Likewise, Richards (1971: 82) among others, emphasizes the respective importance of the two variables in accounting for L2 learners' IL systems.

3.2.1 The Results of the Study

The study has revealed that all the processes hypothesized to account for L2 learners' IL systems are at work but with different ratios as shown below:

1. Interference has been found to account for (172) i.e. (10.01%) out of the total of 1719 errors made by the subjects.
2. Overgeneralization accounts for (454) errors i.e. (29.24%).
3. Ignorance of Rule Restrictions accounts for (512) errors i.e. (33.09%).
4. Incomplete Application of Rules accounts for (206) errors i.e. (13.31%).
5. False Concepts Hypothesized accounts for (344) errors i.e. (22.22%).
6. Simplification accounts for (31) errors i.e. (2.004%).

Thus, interlingual errors which are due to interference from the L1 accounts for (172) errors i.e. (10.01%). And intralingual errors which are due to mutual interference within the TL itself (including overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized, and simplification) accounts for (1547) errors i.e. (89.99%).

The study has also revealed that the major sources of intralingual errors are the processes of ignorance of rule restrictions and overgeneralization. The former accounts for 33.09% and the latter accounts for 29.24% of the learners' IL systems for verbal negation.

3.2.2 Conclusions

Despite the deficiencies of the analysis of the type adopted, it is possible to deduce some conclusions. Recognizing phenomena such as regularizing and simplifying what appears to be confusing and complex provides essential evidence in support of the proposition that the errors made by the learners in producing the TL are resulting from systematic application of LS and testing hypotheses about the TL. Thus, even though at a

preliminary level, the study has contributed in reevaluating the learners' IL products as a corpus of LS rather than as a corpus of errors and signs of inhibition. A further indication is that the learners are creative beings that interact with the linguistic material they are learning rather than transfer mechanically from their L1 to the TL. Another conclusion that can be drawn is that interference from the L1 is just one among a number of mechanisms that can be at the source of the learners' IL products. Finally, it is essential to point out that with clear understanding of the nature of the learners' IL, we will realize that only by allowing errors to occur and by analyzing the learners' errors with regard to their possible sources we can "discover any discrepancies that might exist between what the student actually learnt and what we intended him to learn" (Clark, 1975: 336). Furthermore, learners should be encouraged to think of their IL as an acceptable language and to think of their errors as inevitable products of the process of language learning. As any learner in the process of learning any L2 has "a propensity to construct for himself this Interlingua" (James, 1972: 6; 1981: 63), it would be unrealistic to expect him to produce target-like forms right from the start.

In short, the researcher emphasizes that L2 learners' IL products with regard to their possible sources are worth studying. It is on the basis of such diagnostic knowledge as James (1980: 148) suggests that "the teacher organizes feedback to the learner and remedial work". Moreover, there is no doubt, as Hocking (1975: 87) states that "a teacher who knows why a particular mistake is made is in a better position to correct it, or even to forestall it altogether, than one who doesn't".

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Appendix A

The Types of Errors Occurred in the Data of the Study

Error Type	Example	Sentence Number	Frequency
1. Omission 1.1.a Omission of the auxiliary <u>do</u> and placing <u>not</u> after the main verb.	*4. No, she wearn't glasses. *26. I liven't in Baghdad. *41. It rains not in summer. *50. I visited not my friend yesterday.	4, 13, 25, 26, 27, 29, 41, 44, 49, 50, 53.	43
1.1.b Omission of the auxiliary <u>do</u> and placing <u>not</u> before the main verb.	*8 No, she not teach 1 st classes last year. *26 I not live in Baghdad *27 My brother not arrived yesterday. *41 It not rains in summer. *50 I not visited my friend yesterday.	8, 13, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 41, 44, 48, 49, 50, 53.	108
1.1.c Omission of the auxiliary <u>do</u> with the verb <u>have</u> and placing <u>not</u> after the main verb <u>have</u> .	*30 I had not my breakfast. *48 The horse hasn't wool.	30, 48.	125
1.2.a Omission of the verb <u>be</u> as a main verb.	*1 No, the person not male. *5 No, she not single. *18 No, I not a teacher.	1, 5, 18.	4
1.2.b Omission of the verb <u>be</u> as an auxiliary verb.	*19 I not going to the library. *35 They not cleaning the house. *45 Ali not swimming now.	19, 22, 35, 45.	26
1.3.a Omission of the negative particle <u>not</u> .	*2 No, she is fat. *12 No, she was abroad last year.	2, 12, 18, 19, 37.	10
1.3.b Omission of the negative particle <u>not</u> & its carries.	*4 No, she wear glasses. *26 No, I live in Baghdad. *41 No, it rains in summer.	4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 26, 36, 41.	21
1.4 Omission of the subjective personal pronoun.	*2 No, isn't fat. *15 No, watch TV tonight.	2, 14, 15, 39.	4
1.5 Omission of <u>do</u> as a main verb and the use of the auxiliary <u>do</u> instead of <u>will</u> .	*11 No, she don't it next year. *46 I don't anything tomorrow evening.	11, 46.	71
2. Addition 2.1. Double markings.	*14 No, I didn't went to the library yesterday.	7, 8, 14, 25, 27, 29, 30, 41, 44,	145

	*25 She doesn't gets up early. *41 It doesn't rain in summer.	50, 53.	
2.2 Simple addition of copula.	*13 No, I am don't get up early. *15 No, I am will not watch TV tonight. *39 I am cannot speak Kurdish.	13, 14, 15, 20, 21, 30, 33, 39, 50, 51, 53.	29
3. Substitution 3.1. Substitution of the auxiliary <u>do</u> by the verb <u>be</u> .	*4 No, she isn't wear glasses. *26 I am not live in Baghdad. *27 My brother wasn't arrived yesterday. *48 The horse isn't have wool.	4, 7, 8, 13, 14, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 41, 44, 48, 49, 50, 55.	243
3.2. Substitution of the auxiliary <u>do</u> by the verb <u>have</u> .	*25 She has not get up early. *30 I had not have my breakfast. *48 The horse hasn't have wool.	25, 30, 48, 49.	7
3.3 Substitution of the verb <u>have</u> by the verb <u>do</u> .	*6 No, she doesn't got a car. *31 They don't finished their homework. *32 Ali doesn't broken the window. *51 I didn't sent the telegram yet.	6, 10, 16, 17, 31, 32, 33, 38, 51, 52.	106
3.4 Substitution of the verb <u>have</u> by the verb <u>be</u> .	*6 No, she is not got a car. *32 Ali is nit broken the window. *51 Iam not sent the telegram yet.	6, 10, 16, 17, 31, 32, 33, 38, 51, 52, 54.	81
3.5 Substitution of the modal verbs by the verb <u>be</u> .	*15 No, I am not watch TV tonight. *21 No, I am not swim. *36 They aren't arrive tomorrow.	9, 11, 15, 20, 21, 36, 42.	20
3.6 Substitution of the modal verbs by the auxiliary <u>do</u> .	*15 No, I don't watch TV tonight. *36 They don't arrive tomorrow. *40 He don't see well.	9, 11, 15, 20, 28, 36, 39, 40, 42.	59
3.7 Substitution of the verb <u>be</u> by the auxiliary <u>do</u> .	*34 I don't going home. *35 They didn't cleaning the house.	19, 22, 34, 35, 37.	33
3.8 Substituting one tense another. 3.8.a Substituting present perfect by simple present.	*6 No, she doesn't get a car. *31 They don't finish their work. *51 I don't send the telegram yet.	6, 10, 31, 32, 38, 51, 52, 54.	43
3.8.b Substituting present perfect by simple past.	*6 No, she didn't get a car. *16 No, I didn't close the door. *51 I didn't send the telegram yet.	6, 10, 16, 31, 32, 38, 51, 52, 54.	53
3.9 Substituting the negator <u>not</u> by the negator <u>never</u> and	*25 She never gets up early. *41 It never rains in summer.	25, 29, 41, 44, 49, 50, 53.	12

producing target-like products.			
4. Misordering 4.1 Misordering of the negative particle <u>not</u> and placing it before the verb phrase.	*32 Ali not has broken the window. *36 They not will arrive tomorrow. *39 I not can speak Kurdish. *47 John not is a teacher.	17, 31, 32, 33, 36, 38, 39, 42, 47.	30
4.2 Misordering of the negative particle <u>not</u> and placing it after the verb phrase.	*28 Layla will haven't an exam tomorrow. *36 They will arrive not tomorrow.	28, 36.	14
5. Misformation 5.1 Misform of the negative contracted form <u>won't</u> .	*15 I willn't watch TV tonight. *28 She willn't have an exam tomorrow. *36 They willn't arrive tomorrow.	9, 11, 15, 28, 36, 42.	50
5.2 Misform of the negative form <u>am not</u> .	*18 No, I amn't a teacher. *34 I amn't going home.	18, 19, 34, 37.	14
5.3 Misform of the -ing form after the auxiliary <u>be</u> and using instead if it the simple form (i.e. base).	*37 I am not leave tonight. *45 Ali isn't swim.	22, 34, 35, 37, 45.	37
5.4 Misform of the verb form after the auxiliary <u>do</u> and using -ing form instead of simple form.	*7 No, she doesn't teaching drama. *26 I don't living in Baghdad. *44 He does not staying at home in the evening every day. *49 I don't listening to the radio every morning.	7, 26, 44, 49.	27
5.5 Misform of the verb form after modal verbs and using -ing form instead of simple form.	*21 No, I can't swimming. *39 I can't speaking Kurdish.	21, 39.	6
5.6 Misform of verb <u>be</u> .	*18 No, I aren't a teacher. *19 No, I aren't going to the library. *47 John weren't a teacher.	18, 19, 47.	43
5.7 Misform of the verb form after the auxiliary <u>have</u> and using the simple form instead of the past participle.	*6 No, she hasn't get a car. *16 No, I haven't close the door. *31 They haven't finish their work.	6, 16, 17, 31, 32, 33, 38, 51, 52, 53, 54.	61
5.8 Misform of the auxiliary <u>do</u> .	*4 No, she don't wear glasses. *4 No, she didn't wear glasses.	4, 7, 8, 13, 14, 25, 29, 30, 41,	94

	*14 No, I don't go to the library yesterday. *50 I doesn't visit my friend yesterday.	44, 48, 49, 50, 53.	
5.9 Misform of the auxiliary <u>do</u> and the main verb.	*27 My brother doesn't arrive yesterday. *41 It don't rains in summer. *50 I don't visited my friend yesterday.	25, 27, 29, 30, 41, 44, 48, 50.	32
5.10 Misform of modal verbs 5.10.a Misform of <u>will</u> and producing <u>would</u> instead of it.	*9 No, she wouldn't teach us next year. *15 No, I wouldn't watch TV tonight. *42 He wouldn't join the popular army.	9, 11, 15, 28, 36, 42.	32
5.10.b Misform of <u>can</u> and producing <u>could</u> instead of it.	*20 No, I couldn't speak French. *40 He couldn't see well.	20, 21, 39, 40.	4
5.11 Misform of the auxiliary <u>have</u> .	*6 No, she hadn't got a car. *6 No, she haven't got a car. *17 No, I hasn't finished my work before I went to bed. *32 Ali haven't broken the window.	6, 10, 16, 17, 32, 33.	44

Appendix B

The test

Q1. Give negative responses only to the following Yes / No questions:

1. Is the person male?
2. Is she fat?
3. Is she short?
4. Does she wear glasses?
5. Is she single?
6. Has she got a car?
7. Does she teach drama?
8. Did she teach first classes last year?
9. Will she teach you next year?
10. Has she got PH D?
11. Will she do it next year?
12. Was she abroad last year?
13. Do you get up early?
14. Did you go to the library yesterday?
15. Will you watch TV tonight?
16. Have you closed the door?
17. Had you finished your work before you went to bed?
18. Are you a teacher?
19. Are you going to the library?
20. Can you speak French?
21. Can you swim?
22. Were your sister and brother reading all the day yesterday?

Q2. A. Turn the following affirmative sentences into negative:

23. She is a teacher.
24. He was a pupil.

25. She gets up early.
 26. I live in Baghdad.
 27. My brother arrived yesterday.
 28. Layla will have an exam tomorrow.
 29. He went to Basrah last week.
 30. I had my breakfast.
 31. They have finished their homework.
 32. Ali has broken the window.
 33. I had cleaned the room before I finished my homework.
 34. I am going home.
 35. They were cleaning the house.
 36. They will arrive tomorrow.
 37. I am leaving tonight.
 38. Zeki has just finished his work.
 39. I can speak Kurdish.
 40. He can see well.
 41. It rains in summer.
 42. He will join the popular army.
 43. She is a nurse.
-

Q2. B. Rewrite the following sentences putting the verbs in brackets in the correct tense and in the negative form.

44. He (stay) at home in the evening every day.
45. Ali (swim) now.

46. I (do) anything tomorrow evening.
47. John (be) a teacher now.
48. The horse (have) wool.
49. I (listen) to the radio every morning.
50. I (visit) my friend yesterday.
51. I (send) the telegram yet.
52. He (finish) his homework yet.
53. I (finish) my work before I went to bed.
54. I (visit) my friend since last week.