This unannotated bibliography consists of four sections. Section One is a general introduction to error analysis and interlanguage studies, aimed primarily at students writing their theses and at practicing teachers with little experience in these fields. Section Two presents a list of the journals referred to in the bibliography. Section Three, the bibliography proper, includes some 800 items on error analysis and interlanguage studies, covering the period from 1970 to 1979 (including also a few "classical" papers from the late 1960s). The two most important criteria for inclusion are that items have been published and that they are in English. Books and articles on contrastive analysis are included only if they deal with either or both of the two linguistic fields in question. Review articles are included. Bibliographical items are not categorized but are arranged alphabetically according to author, chronologically for each author. Section Four presents a list of other bibliographies in the field, arranged chronologically.
A SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ERROR ANALYSIS AND INTERLANGUAGE STUDIES

by

Rolf Palmberg
PREFACE


The bibliography consists of four sections.

Section One is a general introduction of Error Analysis and Interlanguage Studies. It is aimed primarily at students writing their theses, and at practising teachers who have little or no experience in these two related fields of linguistics.

Section Two presents a list of the journals referred to in the bibliography, indicating also, where necessary, what the abbreviated titles stand for.

Section Three is the bibliography proper. It includes over 800 select items on Error Analysis and Interlanguage Studies, covering the period from 1970 to 1979 (including, however, also a few 'classical' papers from the late 1960's). The two most important criteria for inclusion have been that the items have been published (or, occasionally, that they are in press; unpublished papers have been included only if frequently referred to in the literature), and that the language of writing is English. (The latter criterion does not necessarily mean that English is in all cases the target language under analysis. In fact, a dozen target languages other than English are represented in the bibliography.) Books and articles on Contrastive Analysis have been included only if dealing with either or both of these two fields of linguistics as well. (Readers interested primarily in contrastive work are referred to a recent bibliography in that area: Number 1 in the Jyväskylä Contrastive Studies Series, published in 1975 at the University of Jyväskylä and edited by Kari Sajavaara and Jaakko Lehtonen.) Also, review articles have been included. For the sake of convenience no categorization of items has been attempted. Instead, the bibliographical items have been arranged alphabetically according to author/s, and, for each author, chronologically.
Section Four, finally, presents a list of other bibliographies in the field, arranged chronologically.

My thanks are due to all those who, in different ways, have contributed to the final outcome of the volume, especially Håkan Ringbom at the Department of English, Åbo Akademi, and Michael Sharwood Smith, co-editor of the Interlanguage Studies Bulletin - Utrecht. My thanks are also due to the Research Institute of the Åbo Akademi Foundation (Stiftelsens för Åbo Akademi Forskningsinstitut), for a grant making the printing of this volume possible, and for their kind permission to include the volume in their Research Series.

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PREFACE II

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R.P.
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A LIST OF BIBLIOGRAPHIES .......................................... 83
The traditional attitude of language teachers towards errors committed by language learners was that they were a sign of unsuccessful learning and, ultimately, bad teaching. Language teachers, not surprisingly, saw the emergence of CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS, or, CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS (CA), in the late 1950's as a welcome solution to many teaching problems. In its original form (as presented by Robert Lado in his 1957 work Linguistics across Cultures), CA stated that, given a source language (the mother tongue of the learners) and a target language (the second or foreign language being learnt), a comparison would reveal the similarities and the differences between the two languages. The similar structures would be easy for the learners to master; the different structures would be difficult, and, in consequence, lead to language errors.

For a decade or so, teachers were very optimistic about this predictive ability of CA. Soon, however, it came obvious that CA had theoretical as well as practical limitations. Adequate comparisons of two languages were at times very difficult to make, and, even where these were possible, it often turned out that not all similarities between the source language and the target language were easy to master, nor were all differences difficult. What is more, difficulties existed which were not predicted by CA at all. A shift of interest from potential errors to those actually committed by language learners followed, and it was realized that systematic analyses of the latter could, in fact, map out all the sources of language difficulty.

This new field of applied linguistics, known as ERROR ANALYSIS (EA), came, in general, to include five different stages:

(i) The first stage is error identification, during which the analyst must determine which performance failures of the learners are proper errors of competence (in Chomskyian terms) and which are mere mistakes, i.e. slips of the tongue or pen. He must also, in each particular case, correctly (or as correctly as possible) interpret the learners' productions, since even if they are grammatically correct, they do not necess-
arily even come close to what the learners actually wanted or intended to produce.

(ii) Having recognized all the errors in the material being analyzed, the analyst may proceed to the next stage, error description. As the term implies, this stage requires that the errors are described linguistically within the framework of the grammatical model that best suits the purposes of the analyst. Describing the errors he may, of course, also be eclectic, i.e. not confine himself to one single model.

(iii) The third stage is error classification. Depending on their linguistic nature, the errors are divided into categories (and, if purposeful, subcategories). It has been customary to distinguish for example spelling errors, errors in article usage, prepositional errors, errors of concord, word-order errors, and vocabulary errors. However, owing to the existence of multiple errors, i.e. errors which belong to several categories at the same time, clear-cut categorizations of errors are not always possible.

(iv) Whereas the three previous stages have been purely linguistic, stage four, error explanation, is primarily psycholinguistic. It attempts to account for the reason/s why a particular error has been committed. In general, there seem to be three such principal causes to error: the mother tongue of the learner, the target-language structures, and the teaching techniques. An important distinction to be made is that between interlingual and intralingual errors. The first term refers to the fact that it is the mother tongue of the learner (or, a third or fourth language learnt before or at the same time as the target language) that is the prime cause of error, a phenomenon frequently referred to as mother-tongue interference. Intralingual errors, on the other hand, are errors which result from overgeneralizations of target-language structures. These errors are of the very same kind as those made by children learning that target language as their mother tongue, and have therefore also been referred to as developmental errors. The third category of errors, i.e. those that arise from faulty teaching techniques, are very difficult to study systematically. For this reason such (teaching-) induced errors have been dealt with to a very small extent in the literature.

(v) The first four stages of EA give the analyst a general idea of what the learners' principal learning difficulties are (seen, for ex-
ample, in error categories and error frequencies), and some directions as to their probable causes. This is not sufficient to determine priorities for remedial work (nor, of course, to assess the learners' knowledge of the target language). During the fifth stage, that of error evaluation, the analyst must undertake the difficult task of measuring the degrees to which the errors committed deviate from the target-language norm, and, where communicative competence in the target language is the prime goal of teaching, the effects of different errors upon the efficiency of communication.

A period of intensive work in EA followed. The results of numerous investigations into error were published, and, in the hands of syllabus designers and textbook writers, such accounts of 'common errors in second-language learning' could soon be used on a larger scale too, in the preparation of teaching materials. The year of 1972, to give one example, saw the first pedagogical grammar based on EA: The Gooficon. A Repair Manual for English, by Marina Burt and Carol Kiparsky.

Meanwhile, recent research in EA has been taken further on similar lines. But although the main interests today include 'applied' areas such as the treatment of error, the correction of error in classroom interaction, learner reactions to error correction, learner preferences of error correction, and native-speaker judgements and tolerance of learner errors, it must not be forgotten that there is also another important, more theoretical function, assigned to EA. This is the providing of a better understanding of second and foreign-language learning in general.

From this point of view, one of the most notable outcomes of early EA was that errors made by second-language learners were no longer necessarily seen as an disadvantage. Instead, they were more and more often viewed as evidence of progress in the learning process. The errors committed were (despite some variability in the data) observed to be mainly systematic, thus giving the 'language' used by second-language learners a unique, independent status between the mother tongue and the target language. These learner versions, most of which gradually developed towards the target-language norm (the non-developing versions were said to be 'fossilized'), were in due course given a collective name, that of INTERLANGUAGE.

The concept of interlanguage was first referred to as early as in
1967 by Pit Corder, who called it a learner's "transitional competence" of a second language, or, rather, his "transitional dialect" of that language. It was independently termed "approximative systems" by William Nemser, "interlingua" by Carl James, and "interlanguage" by Larry Selinker, the term which was to gain the widest use among linguists in recent years. In an elaboration of the concept, Selinker defined it as "a separate linguistic system ... which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language norm" (1972:214).

Contrary to EA, which, by definition, has commonly drawn its data from any material (notably compositions and translations), studies of learner interlanguages are not restricted to any data. Nor are they restricted to errors alone, although the hypotheses that they want to test are often based on EA results. Interlanguage studies are, in fact, attempts to account for different aspects of the whole range of utterances and sentences produced by learners in the target language, errors as well as 'non-errors' (hence Jan Svartvik's proposal in 1973 that the term 'error analysis' should be replaced by the 'broader' term 'performance analysis'). The data for interlanguage studies, therefore, must be selective, collected by what have been referred to as elicitation techniques.

The great number of interlanguage studies and projects carried out in the 1970's have tended to differ considerably not only in the source of data but also in their aims. The reasons are partly individual research interests, partly the theoretical and methodological problems involved. Several types of elicitation techniques have been used, such as recordings of free speech over periods of time, elicited imitation, elicited translation, elicitation of intuitional data, questionnaires, and participant observation.

As for aims, recent interlanguage studies may be grouped into three main categories:

(i) studies relating to the dependance of the mother tongue (or a third language) upon the learning of a target language. This is the old question brought up by Robert Lado and his colleagues; at present of considerable interest to students of CA and classical EA as well;

(ii) studies relating to whether the target language is learnt, or (if, following Stephen Krashen, one wants to reserve the term 'learning' for the result of formal instruction and use the term 'acquisition' for
the kind of learning which takes place in natural settings) acquired, in developmental sequences. People doing research in this area are, to put it differently, interested in finding out whether certain structures appear in learner interlanguages independently of factors such as age and mother-tongue background, and, should this be the case, whether these sequences are the same as for children acquiring that target language as their mother tongue. Such studies, which may have great consequences on textbook writing, have frequently concentrated on either morphemes, auxiliaries, negation, or certain higher order structures;

(iii) studies relating to the different types of strategies involved in language learning and language production, and the various factors that influence the choice of strategy. The corresponding strategies have been termed learning strategies (i.e. the search for regularities in the data presented to the learners) and production strategies (the systematic devices adopted by learners when faced with the need to produce target-language sentences in spite of an inadequate command of that language) - or, where communication is the sole purpose for language production, communication strategies. The most important learning strategies distinguished in the literature are transfer and overgeneralization. Communication strategies, on the other hand, include avoidance, paraphrase, borrowing, and appeal for assistance.

It has been suggested that one such communication strategy is that of simplification. This view, however, brings with it terminological problems. A language learner cannot, in any psychological sense, be said to simplify what he may not even possess. The result of many communication strategies (i.e. the learners' interlanguage utterances) is, on the other hand, certainly often simpler in structure than the target language. Native speakers, however, do at times make conscious attempts to simplify their speech in order to facilitate communication. Such simplification, which may be grammatical and/or rhetorical, can be studied for example in foreigner talk and baby talk (grammatical simplification), as well as in mother talk and teacher talk (rhetorical simplification).

The characteristics of interlanguage, in other words, also depend on its function within a social setting. Three such major functions have been distinguished: communication, affirmation of social identity, and an expressive function. Therefore, when a learner's use of his inter-
language is restricted to communication, the result may be seen as a simplified version of the target language. If, on the other hand, he wants to achieve higher social status, if he for example seeks integration into the target-language community, his interlanguage will grow more complex. This phenomenon, referred to as complexification, can also be found in child mother-tongue acquisition.

The same is true of pidgins and creoles. Since the main function of pidgins is restricted to communication among people who have no common language, pidginization produces an interlanguage which is simplified in outer form and reduced in inner form. When the pidgin becomes the mother tongue of a speech community, i.e. a creole, it must serve language functions other than communication as well. Creolization, in other words, occurs with higher social and psychological needs. Since the same needs may account for the development of the mother tongue in children and the target language in learners of that language, the study of pidginization and creolization may provide useful insights into second-language acquisition.

Other factors which must be accounted for in the study of the nature of interlanguages are, finally, the learner's age, personality and attitudes towards the target language and target-language community, together with the whole spectrum of situational, interactional and cultural variables that influence the use of the learner's interlanguage.
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