

University of Sarajevo  
Faculty of Philosophy  
English Department

# **The Use of Contrastive Analysis in Teaching Adult Bosnian/Serbian/Croatian EFL Learners**

Upotreba kontrastivne analize u podučavanju  
engleskog kao stranog jezika kod odraslih kojima  
je bosanski/srpski/hrvatski maternji jezik

Master's thesis

Student: Mirela Aganović, BA

Mentor: Melisa Okičić, PhD

Sarajevo, July 2019

## CONTENTS

1. Introduction .....	6
1.1 Statement of the Problem .....	7
1.2 Goal of the study.....	9
1.3 Research Questions.....	9
1.4 Hypotheses.....	9
1.5 Significance of the Study.....	10
1.6 Study Overview .....	10
1.7 Definition of Key Terms.....	10
2. Literature Review .....	11
2.1. Contrastive Linguistics .....	11
2.1.1 Key concepts .....	12
2.1.2 Contrastive Analysis .....	16
2.1.3 Error Analysis .....	26
2.1.4 Conclusion .....	49
3. Methodology .....	52
3.1 Research Design .....	52
3.2 Data collection methods .....	53
3.3 Instruments .....	53
3.3.1 Pre-test .....	54
3.3.2 Delayed post-test.....	54
3.3.3 Interview .....	54
3.4 Participants .....	55
3.5 Research Site .....	56
3.6 Data Collection Procedures .....	56
3.7 Data analysis.....	56

4. Results and discussion .....	58
4.1 An Overview of a Research Analysis: Phases and Procedure .....	58
4.2 Quantitative data results .....	60
4.2.1 Plural nouns .....	60
4.2.1.1 Pre-Test phase .....	60
4.2.1.2 Treatment phase .....	64
4.2.1.2.1 Control group during the treatment phase .....	64
4.2.1.2.2 Experimental group during the treatment phase .....	65
4.2.1.3 Post-Test Phase .....	67
4.2.1.4 Comparison between pre-test and post test results .....	72
4.2.2 Wh-questions .....	80
4.2.2.1 Pre-test phase .....	80
4.2.2.2 Treatment phase .....	89
4.2.2.2.1 Control group during the treatment phase .....	90
4.3 Qualitative data results .....	111
4.3.1. Interview and the transcript of the recorded material .....	111
5. Conclusion.....	117
REFERENCES: .....	119
Appendix A .....	124
Appendix B.....	126
Appendix C.....	128

## **Apstrakt**

Budući da se u literaturi generalno prepliću stavovi „za“ ili „protiv“ upotrebe maternjeg jezika prilikom podučavanja odraslih govornika stranom jeziku, ovaj rad će se fokusirati na propitivanje upotrebe kontrastivne analize u nastavnom procesu.

Glavni cilj ovog istraživanja odnosi se na ispitivanje uloge kontrastivne analize prilikom podučavanja odraslih govornika kojima je maternji jezik bosanski/hrvatski/srpski i koji pripadaju grupi polaznika sa elementarnim predznanjem engleskog jezika. Rad će se zasnivati na ispitivanju načina na koji odrasli polaznici usvajaju množinu imenica, te wh-pitanja koje se na relaciji engleski – B/H/S jezik prepoznaju kao riječi/konstrukcije koje pokazuju veoma značajne kontrastivne razlike. Ova studija je osmišljena kao akciono istraživanje (engl. action research) koje ima strukturu studije izučavanja slučaja (engl. case study). Za potrebe ovog istraživanja, korišteni su sljedeći instrumenti: a) Ulazni test znanja b) Odgođeni „izlazni“ test znanja, te c) intervju.

Analiza rezultata pokazala je da je, prilikom podučavanja odraslih polaznika koji imaju elementarno predznanje engleskog jezika, upotreba maternjeg jezika neophodna za potrebe podučavanja engleske gramatike, kao i to da su polaznici koji nisu bili informisani o kontrastivnim razlikama na relaciji engleski – B/H/S pravili više gramatičkih grešaka u odnosu na one polaznike koji su bili informisani.

**Ključne riječi:** kontrastivna analiza, kontrastivne razlike, negativni transfer, usvajanje engleskog jezika, odrasli govornici.

## **Abstract**

Since the stands "for" or "against" the use of the mother tongue in teaching adult EFL learners are generally intertwined in literature, the focus of this thesis is examining the use of contrastive analysis in teaching process.

The main objective of this study refers to the examination of the role of contrastive analysis in teaching adult EFL learners who are native speakers of Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian language (BCS) with elementary knowledge of English. This thesis examines how adult EFL learners acquire plural nouns and wh-question that show significant contrastive differences in relation to BCS. This study was designed as a case study action research. For the purpose of this study, the following instruments were used: a) pre-test b) delayed post-test, and c) interview.

The analysis findings suggest that, while teaching adult EFL learners with elementary knowledge of English, it is necessary to use mother tongue for the purpose of teaching English grammar, as well as that learners who were not informed about the English - BCS contrastive differences made more grammar errors and mistakes than the students who were informed about that.

**Key words:** contrastive analysis, contrastive differences, negative transfer, English language acquisition, adult speakers.

## 1. Introduction

Many studies (Lin, 2014; Atkinson, 1993) have confirmed that teaching the English grammar without explaining the contrastive differences between the source language and the target language leads to the misuse of a foreign language, which is a consequence of a negative transfer from the source language. On the other hand, teaching grammar by providing the relevant contrastive rules has proven to be an effective technique of teaching English in reducing the number of errors and improving the grammar competences as well as competences related to using a foreign language generally (Okičić and Osmankadić, 2014). However, it can be noticed that there is generally opposed attitude in the literature the use of mother tongue in the process of teaching a foreign language. In other words, some grammarians (Ur, 2016; Mitchell & Myles, 2004) argue that „the mother tongue is commendably used in teaching“, while some authors (Lin, 2014; Atkinson, 1993) consider that „the mother tongue should be used in teaching English under certain conditions and in certain situations“. For example, Ur (2016) considers it necessary „to use the mother tongue for the purpose of explaining certain grammatical structures in order to avoid the misunderstanding of certain grammatical structures from a foreign language as to achieve understanding and save time needed for explaining them, and instead use that time to provide the necessary examples“. Mitchell (2004) considers that „the existence of complex grammar rules and a more complex vocabulary is a sufficient reason for using the mother tongue while teaching English“. Also, the same author believes that „teaching foreign language grammar with the use of explanation in the mother tongue allows teachers to save time as well as mastering a number of teaching units for the time that otherwise would have been spent on explanation in English“. Atkinson (1993) considers „the use of mother tongue while teaching English as the greatest danger if the very use of mother tongue threatens the primacy of the English language“. Lin (2014) considers „the mother tongue as a kind of relief, not as an obstacle“.

Regarding foreign language teaching and adult speakers, some studies (Grasso, 2012) have shown that „the use of mother tongue in this case can be of a great importance in terms of encouraging the use of a mother tongue in order to better understand and master foreign language, since adult foreign language speakers already have a certain pre-knowledge (with

fewer, more or very few material and / or random mistakes)“, as well as „their own identity, and thus the mother tongue represents inevitable part of their identity“ (Grasso, 2012). The importance of the use of mother tongue in teaching English was also noted in the research of the Lenuas Vivas Institute (2010) which claims that „the use of the source language in classrooms where English is taught is extremely useful in teaching adults for the purpose of better understanding, provided that English is the primary language of communication“.

### 1.1 Statement of the Problem

Bearing in mind all that is stated above, this paper will focus on examining the role of contrastive analysis in teaching adult speakers who are native Bosnian / Croatian / Serbian (hereinafter: B/C/S) with elementary knowledge of the English language. The paper will be based on observing and examining the way in which adult learners (beginners) acquire certain English words / constructions which show significant contrastive differences in relation to B/C/S (negative transfer). At word level, negative transfer of the following nouns will be examined: *information, advice, women, people, news, work, food, money* and *feet*. In B/C/S, nouns such as *information, news, money, advice, people* and *work* are countable, unlike in English, where these nouns are uncountable. Nouns such as *women* and *feet* have their regular plural, whereas in the English language these nouns belong to the category of nouns that have an irregular plural, *woman* > *women* (*women, \*womans*). In the English language, the noun *food* in certain cases, that is, if it refers to a particular type of food, may be countable, for example, *green foods* (Young & Strauch, 67), while in B/C/S the noun *food* is uncountable.

At the level of the sentence, this paper will focus on the construction of wh-questions introduced by the following wh-words: *what, where, why, who, when, which, and how*. In English, in non-subject wh-questions, the inversion of the auxiliary verb and subject occurs, but in B/C/S there is no such formation rule, as can be seen from the following examples:

BOSNIAN:

(1) Gdje tvoj brat radi?

ENGLISH:

(2) Where does your brother work? \* Where your brother works?

Some of the possible errors B/C/S learners usually make are:

BOSNIAN:

(3) Šta tvoj novi momak misli o meni? > \*What your new boyfriend think(s) about me?

ENGLISH:

(4) What does your new boyfriend think about me?

BOSNIAN:

(5) Kako ti mogu pomoći prijatelji i porodica? >\*How can help you friends and family?

ENGLISH:

(6) How can friends and family help you?

In addition, subject wh – questions in English do not require inversion. In other words, if the question word or phrase itself is a subject of that sentence, then the verb remains in the affirmative form<sup>1</sup> (Riđanović, 86), as can be seen from the following examples:

BOSNIAN:

(7) Ko živi u Londonu?

ENGLISH:

(8) Who lives in London?

BOSNIAN:

(9) Šta te usređuje?

ENGLISH:

(10) What makes you happy?

Also, in English, if a preposition is placed before the question word, then it is almost always put at the end of the sentence, which is not the case in B/C/S<sup>2</sup> (Riđanovic, 86):

BOSNIAN:

(11) O čemu pričaš? > \*About what are you talking?

ENGLISH:

---

<sup>1</sup> Translation (author: M.A.)

<sup>2</sup> Translation (author: M.A.)



(12) What are you talking about?

BOSNIAN:

(13) U koju školu ideš? > \*To what school do you go?

ENGLISH:

(14) What school do you go to?

## **1.2 Goal of the study**

The aim of this paper is to determine to what extent the use of contrastive analysis in teaching adult learners with elementary background knowledge of English whose mother tongue is B/C/S contributes to the enhancement of their grammatical competence. The additional goal of this paper is the systematization of the final conclusions in the form of recommendations that could be useful to all teachers who teach adult learners.

## **1.3 Research Questions**

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1) To what extent do adult learners of the B/C/S language with the elementary knowledge of the English language make errors caused by the negative transfer from L1 during English speaking activities?

2) Can these errors be eliminated by providing additional examples/explanations in English or not?

3) Does the use of the mother tongue for the purpose of clarification of contrastive differences help the participants to correct the errors caused by the negative transfer?

## **1.4 Hypotheses**

Taking into account the above mentioned research questions, the following hypotheses have been defined:

- H1: In teaching adult EFL learners (beginners) it is necessary to use the mother tongue for the purpose of explaining grammatical constructions and certain vocabulary that show significant contrastive differences between B/C/S and English.

- H2: In teaching adults with elementary knowledge of English the use of English as the only medium of communication (instruction) is not sufficient.
- H3: Learners who are not informed about the contrastive differences between English and Bosnian in their mother tongue make more errors than learners who have been informed about contrastive differences.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The findings of the study are expected to contribute to the existing body of research in the field of contrastive analysis and the influence of negative transfer on the learning process of adult EFL learners. In addition, the study is also expected to provide sufficient data and reliable results which could be translated into the strategies for overcoming, reducing or eliminating the influence of negative transfer in adult EFL learners.

### **1.6 Study Overview**

This paper is organized as follows. After Introduction, Chapter 2 provides a brief overview of the theoretical background relevant to the subject of this study. Chapter 3 gives a detailed description of the methodological framework, research questions, hypotheses, participants and instruments of the study, after which in Chapter 4 the results of the analysis have been presented and discussed. The paper ends with the systematization of the final conclusions and recommendations for the future research studies.

### **1.7 Definition of Key Terms**

For the purpose of this study the following key terms will be used in accordance with the definitions provided:

*Contrastive analysis* is a way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second-language-learning situation (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

*Negative transfer* occurs when the grammatical rules of the mother tongue (L1) of learners are literally transmitted to the target language (Ellis, 1997). Negative transfer is

defined as the use of the first language (or other languages known) in a second language context resulting in a non-target-like second language form (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

## **2. Literature Review**

This chapter gives an overview of relevant literature and language theories dealing with Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis.

### **2.1. Contrastive Linguistics**

The largest number of SLA studies of this type conducted so far is based on Contrastive analysis. Therefore, it is highly important to mention some of the basic postures of Contrastive analysis.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is traditionally defined as a field of the contrastive linguistics which represents a linguistic procedure which identifies the differences and similarities between two or more languages by a systematic comparison of the description of those languages (Djordjevic, 1987, p. 9), that is, in which aspects the compared languages are similar or different (Filipović, 1975, p. 13). It represents the first major theory focused on exploring the relationship between the languages a learner is acquiring. Its aim is to examine and identify the differences between the two languages for the purpose of improving the process of a foreign language teaching and learning (Đorđević, 1987, p.10).

The second field of Contrastive Linguistics significant for this thesis is Error Analysis (EA). It identifies and analyses the errors that learners of FL make during the acquisition of that language, and detects the reasons because of which they occur (Đorđević, 1987, p. 3). Therefore, it is connected with the pedagogical and psycholinguistic aspects of the acquisition of FL, and, concerning the fact that results of CA have theoretical and practical implications, it is evident that these two disciplines of Contrastive Linguistics are complementary.

### **2.1.1 Key concepts**

Before we move on to the history of CA and EA, we are going to explain the difference between the key concepts for this thesis because they can often become stumbling blocks because of their proximity or similarity. In order to prevent their wrong interpretation and meaning, the definition of crucial terms such as *mother tongue*, *first language*, *second language* and *foreign language* will be provided.

#### **2.1.1.1 Mother tongue**

*Mother tongue* (MT) is a historically defined term describing the first language that a person acquires as a child in its life, and learns it from its mother (Bloomfield, 1987; Hirst, 2016). This language has its roots in a sensibly based acquisition of a language that will not resemble the process of learning of any other language because “some features of it, besides the linguistic ones, are related to the developmental properties” (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 24). It is the language to whom the child is exposed in its earliest childhood and the one it utters first. In order to avoid causing too much controversy by using the terms *mother* or *native language*, some authors (Krajinović, 2010, p. 2) preferred to use the term *primary language*, defining it as a language which is the main and easiest means of communication for an individual, which does not necessarily have to be the first acquired language.

In this thesis, since the research included adult learners only, the term *mother tongue* (MT) will be used, and its meaning will refer to the language the individual acquired first, namely BCS.

#### **2.1.1.2 First language**

The contemporary socio-cultural changes and differences in the upbringing of children no longer emphasize mother as the only responsible person in the upbringing of a child, therefore numerous linguists are trying to replace the term *mother* with a new and more suitable term - *first language* (L1). This term which is close to term *mother tongue* in its meaning refers to a child's language it acquired first. However, a child could only acquire it “in understanding, but it could only utter some other language which later replaced the first

one” (Jelaska, et al. 2005, p. 26). For example, during its first year of life, a child listened to and passively acquired English, then the family moved to Turkey where the child was raised by a person who speaks Turkish, so the first language the child uttered was Turkish. This means that the first language may be first in order, but is not absolutely necessary, rather regarding the individual level of linguistic knowledge.

### **2.1.1.3 Second language**

Jelaska (2005) defines *second language* (L2) as „any new language which a person uses in its community, from the smallest one such as family, to the widest one such as earth” (p. 27). The term refers to the language that is acquired after mother tongue in natural circumstances or the one that is acquired simultaneously with mother tongue, but only after its basics are acquired. However, one should be cautious while using the term *second language* because it can bear double meaning. The widest definition of L2 is that it is a language that is different from the language person acquired first, while the narrower meaning refers to a language that is used only in particular situations. Certain authors (Krajnović, 2010, p. 2) claim that L2 implies “a foreign language, a third language and any other language” the individual is trying to master.

### **2.1.1.4 Foreign language**

A prototype *foreign language* (FL) is a language that „is taught either in school or in special courses in a country where this language is not used in ordinary speech” (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 29). In other words, *foreign language* is taught in circumstances that are not natural, students often have no chance to use it on a daily basis, and it “can be heard only by non-native speakers in a limited number of hours daily or weekly” (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 30). The concepts of *second* and *foreign language* are the cause of disagreement among many linguists, especially those dealing with the social and political side of language acquisition. For example, if a language is used as a means of communication in the country in which it is studied, although not as a national or official language, some experts will continue to consider it as foreign because “it is not used by native speakers, while others will consider it as a second language because it is used as a language of that area” (Jelaska, et al. Ibid). The

foreign language differs from the second language by several principles, and these principles are, the environment, the way of mastering a language, the speaker's attitude towards a language and the durability of abidance. When it comes to the environment and the way of mastering a language, the prototype foreign language is a “language that is being taught, not acquired (at least not in the beginning), a language of another country that is not spoken in the country in which it is studied – not as a state, official, or educational language” (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 30). Simply put, it is learned outside the given country.

On the other hand, the prototype second language is „a language that the inhabitants of the same country they are born in are taught to and who were acquiring it as their mother language since their birth - a language different from the main language of the area, that is, a state or official language" (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 31). For example, the prototype second language would be German language of the children of a Bosnian family who moved to Germany, where the children acquired Bosnian at home and German language outside their house.

The third difference lies in the speaker's attitude towards the language, which means that second language can represent a language “which a person uses regularly”, although it may have taught it as an adult, while a foreign language is a “language that an individual uses rather occasionally” (Jelaska, et al., Ibid). According to Petrović (1997) second language is „a language the student accepts as his second language, along with the culture, customs and behavior of a linguistic group with which he lives” (p. 17).

The durability of abidance is one of the principles by which second and foreign language differ, as well. In shorter courses which are attended by the foreigners from different countries, the attendants talk to native speakers very rarely outside the classroom. When they interact with each other, they usually use the first or even a third language. If a language is taught in the country itself, second language would be the one that is acquired by people that “permanently reside in the country”, and foreign language - the one “whose acquirers will come back to their country after a certain period of time” (Jelaska, et al., 2005, p. 32).

Although a prototype foreign language is one that is studied outside the borders of the country in which it is spoken, Jelaska, et al. (2005) points out that a speaker uses a foreign language “rarely or on certain occasions”, and he can learn it in the environment where is

spoken when he resides in it only shortly (p. 33). According to the author, second language can also refer to “a language which a person uses often, every day or regularly in one of the spheres of its life.”

In this thesis, the English language will be referred to as FL.

### 2.1.2 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis involves the “description and comparison of two or more languages and is considered to be realized through four basic procedures” (Kurtesh, 2006, p. 87), namely, “data collection, defining the description, providing the necessary data, and defining the contrast” (James, 1980, p. 63). Although the term contrastive analysis is widely accepted, the problem of terminology emerged especially in relevant linguistic literature during the 20th century, therefore, this area of Contrastive Linguistics is also called a „Parallel Description" (Fries, 1945, p. 9), „Differential Studies" (Lee, 1974, p. 80), „Differential Description" (Mackey, 1965, p. 80), „Dialinguistic analysis" (Nemser, 1971, p. 15), "Analytical Confrontation" (Nemser, 1971, p. 16), „Analytical Comparison" (Mathesius, 1964, p. 60), „Interlingual Comparison "(Filipovic, 1975, p. 6), as well as „Comparative-descriptive Linguistics" (Halliday-McIntosh-Strevents, 1964, p. 112-113), and even a „Descriptive Comparison" (Catford, 1968, p. 159).

When two or more languages are being compared, it is possible to concentrate on either their differences or their similarities. When a person learns FL, it is usually focused on the differences between its mother tongue (MT) and the FL it learns, losing completely sight of the possibility of eventual similarities between these two languages. If a learner notices some similarities during the learning process, then it becomes surprised because it does not expect these similarities. However, in the earliest stages of the process of learning a foreign language, grammarians tried to discover those elements that were common for all languages, believing that in this way they would “facilitate the process of learning a foreign language for students if they explicitly point to these similarities” (Krzyszowski, 1985, p. 485). It can be said that this idea was the basic inspiration of the first contrastive studies.

Contrastive studies have a long history. As early as 1000 BC, Aelfric wrote his *Grammatica*, the grammar of Latin and English, on the basis of an indirect assumption that the knowledge of the grammar of one language can facilitate the acquisition of L2. In the 17th century, Hewes, among the first, explicitly pointed out that the knowledge of the grammar of MT can not only facilitate the learning process of FL, but cause interference between the



grammars of these two languages, as well. In a rather long introduction to his book *A Perfect Survey of the English Tongue Taken According to the Use and Analogie of the Latine*, published in 1624, Hewes provides an overview of the basic aspects of the English language in order to enable students to gain an insight into „the right knowledge of their own language in those aspects in which it differs from Latin" (Krzyszowski, 1990, p. 2). In addition to the complex contrastive analysis between English and Latin, Hewes provides a great number of translation exercises in order to allow students to overcome the possible negative transfer and he mainly focuses on those phenomena that are different in Latin and English.

Many other grammarians, such as Coles, (1675) and Lewis (1670), accepted this idea of "facilitating" (or a positive transfer in modern terminology) during the process of learning FL and they wrote their grammar in English or Latin in order to be well adapted to the needs of speakers to whom these languages were not native. It is interesting to point out that these earliest contrastive studies were motivated by almost the same ideas as the contemporary contrastive studies. Even though the word "contrasting", as a feature of various phenomena present in world languages, appeared only at the end of the 18th century in Pickbourn's work (1789) where he says „I thought it would be useful *to contrast* the English verb with the verb in other languages", it can be said that the comparison of languages for pedagogical reasons appeared together with the first forms of teaching and learning foreign languages, while the first systematically written works "that deal with this field of science can be found as early as the 15th century" (Meech, 1935, p. 56).

Therefore, the idea of contrasting the languages is not new and it can be said that it appeared in the field of linguistics as early as at the end of the 19th century, but little was said and written about it and little was done in the field of comparisons during 1940s, until "a special incentive for the comparison between the languages came by Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures*, published in 1957, just in the period when Noam Chomsky published his *Syntactic Structures* and when Structuralism started to bloom (Đorđević, 1987, p. 12). In this sense, this year can also be considered the year in the modern age when Contrastive Analysis was recognized as a significant linguistic discipline, although Contrastive Studies „existed before they were born", according to Filipović's oral presentation, and their development can be divided into three periods, traditional, classical and modern (Đorđević, 1987, p. 13).

At the end of the 19th century, several linguistic works (Passy, 1906; Chao, 1933) were written to emphasize the importance of recognizing the similarities and differences between some languages and show the results of the comparison of some aspects of certain languages in contrast. Contrastive studies in this period were enriched by Bloomfield's effort, who points out that “the task of linguistics in the future is actually the comparison of categories of different languages and the discovery of universal or very widespread categories” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 134).

Contrastive studies were mostly conducted between the most popular European languages, and later these were transmitted to the USA soil and there they embraced the Chinese language, as well. Studying Indian languages and comparing them with indo-European ones, Whorf used the term „Contrastive Linguistics“ for the first time in his article „*Languages and Logic*“, published in 1941. Namely, making the difference between the comparative and contrastive linguistics, he points out that the later one is of a great importance for the development of linguistics in future, and he defines it as follows, „contrastive linguistics ... emphasizes the most important differences between languages – in grammar, logic and general analysis of experience “( Đorđević, 1987, p. 14).

After this initial period in the development of contrastive language studies, the classical period is developing from the end of the Second World War to 1965, which characterizes the development of CA as of a scientific, pragmatic and academic discipline. This pragmatic aspect of CA is particularly significant for this thesis, because its results can be applied in foreign language teaching and translation. In 1945, in his book *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, Fries points out this applicative aspect of contrastive studies (Đorđević, 1987, p. 15), „... the most effective teaching materials are those based on the scientific description of the language to be studied, fundamentally compared to the parallel description of the students MT“( Đorđević, 1987, p. 15).

Many linguists advocate the fact that there is a strong need for a teacher of FL to “know the student's MT”, since the language cannot be delivered in an “identical way to the students who have different mother tongues” (Read, Lado & Shen, 1948, p. 78). In practice, it is the fact that every mother tongue leads to the different combinations of problems in learning and acquisition of a given language.

The book *Languages in Contact* by Weinreich is of the particular importance for this period of development of CA, since it highlights the significance of the comparison of two languages for the understanding the influence of one language on the other. It also defines the concept of interference as a deviation from the standards of one of the languages. In his article *Transfer Grammar*, published in 1954, Harris speaks of the possibility of describing the differences between the two languages. Namely, according to this author, if the grammar of one language is actually a set of instructions and rules that generate and describe the statements of one language, then the differences between the two languages can be defined as “grammatical rules necessary to generate the statements of one language from the statements of the second language”, that is, that the grammar of one of the two contrasting languages can be obtained from the grammar of the second language to which the rules on the difference between those two languages are added.

These rules on the difference between the two languages, that is, transfer rules, show that the knowledge of FL exists when the rules of the FL that do not exist in MT are added to the rules of MT. In his book *Linguistics Through Cultures*, published in 1957, Lado says, “... a student who comes in contact with FL will find out that some of its features are quite easy, while others are unusually difficult. Those elements that are similar to his own MT will be easy for him, and those elements that are different from his own MT will be difficult for him” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 17).

According to numerous linguists (Fries, 1945; Lado, 1957), CA in this early stage of development served as a primary pedagogical tool. They considered that by analyzing the results obtained by contrasting two languages, that is, their similarities and differences, they can predict the difficulties in acquiring a foreign language, which is relevant for choosing appropriate method of teaching a foreign language. However, such predictions in practice did not always prove to be successful or accurate enough. Contrastive studies from 1940s to 1960s were based on examining and analyzing the errors that students made during the process of learning a foreign language by comparing two languages (MT and FT) systematically. Contrastive linguists of that period considered that noticing similarities and differences between MT and FT leads to more efficient pedagogical work and better teaching methods in teaching a foreign language. However, although CA was “a very influential linguistic field in that period”, we have to notice that researchers of that period faced some crucial problems, especially with the perspective that “by contrasting two languages (MT and

FL), they can predict the errors that students will make on the basis of the differences between these two languages” and improve teaching strategies in this way (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 98).

The basic weakness of this perspective is that the advocates of this idea did not take into account the fact that the difference by itself “does not necessarily have to cause difficulties in learning a foreign language” (Brier, 1968, p. 34). It is actually common in practice while learning a foreign language that greater difficulties arise while learning and practicing structures that are similar in both languages, than learning and practicing different structures. If the errors in learning a foreign language are attributed exclusively to the interference of the MT, then great importance is attached to the influence of the environment, and, in addition, “interference and negative transfer are not the only source of errors because many of them are not tied to their MT at all” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 99). Wardhaugh (1970, p. 45) points out that the second, weaker version of CA was “much more valid”, and, above all, more realistic and more practical, and later it became known as Error Analysis (EA).

The modern period of the development of CA is characterized by the launch of a large number of contrastive projects, the application of more modern approaches to contrasting, as well as the cooperation of experts and “publishing a large number of selective bibliography in the field of contrast analysis” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 18). The year 1970 is very important for the development of CA in the area of former Yugoslavia, because it was the year in which a conference in Zagreb was held to gather European experts for CA, thus, after that, a Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian-English project was launched, well known and often quoted in the world. The papers published within this project treated theoretical problems of CA in general, as well as the categories of two languages in contrast and pedagogical aspects of the obtained results.

The latter empirical research tried to “distinguish between theoretical and practical contrastive studies” (Fisiak, 1980, p. 89). The central problem of contrastive studies and their ultimate goal is to “determine the similarities and differences between the languages being studied”, but also the criteria of comparison (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 101). Therefore, before starting with any analysis, it is necessary to determine what can be compared in two or more languages that are the subject of contrastive analysis.

### **2.1.2.1 Roles of Contrastive Analysis**

CA mainly deals with the influence of MT on learning a foreign language at all levels. If we consider the fact that language is only a set of habits, while learning is a process of creating new habits, this means that students who learn a foreign language (in this case, English) can use “their habits acquired during the process of acquisition of their MT” (in this research, BCS) while acquiring a foreign language they can use them only in cases when both MT and FL structures are compatible (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 121). In this case, we talk about positive and successful transfer of habits and knowledge acquired during the process of learning MT to the process of learning FL. However, if there are no corresponding structures for certain elements of MT in the target FL, negative transfer or interference emerges and causes errors that occur while using FL, because students “transfer the properties of their MT which do not have the corresponding elements in FL” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 168). The next chapter will provide more details on the concept of language transfer.

Nevertheless, CA of two or more language systems can significantly contribute to the identification of the internal laws of language systems that are not of particular importance to the native speaker, but they facilitate the cognitive acquisition of a particular FL to a non-native learner to a great extent. Therefore, whenever a non-native speaker “feels insecure while using a FL, he goes back to his MT”, relying on its system, which often leads to the production of structures that are unacceptable to the system of a particular language (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 132).

The goal of this research is therefore to determine the similarity and difference between the two language systems at the morphosyntactic and semantic level, which should detect and propose the best methods for the pedagogical and didactic approach to the treatment of this subject in the process of teaching English as a FL language in the BCS speaking area, and vice versa.

#### **2.1.2.1.1 The role of Language Transfer and Transferability in Contrastive Analysis**

Numerous scientific works and articles tried to define linguistic transfer, which speaks of the importance of this phenomenon. Some of the first definitions described it as the influence of first language on all the languages that were acquired after it. However, that was

not enough since they put to the foreground the influence of the first language, excluding the possibility of the opposite direction of action. Taking that into account, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008, p. 11) provided a definition according to which linguistic transfer is described as an “impact of an individual’s knowledge of one language to his use of another language”.

The main goal of foreign language researchers is to try to describe and explain all the complex processes of mastering it, “starting with the methods of its acquisition, phenomena which have an influence on that process”, as well as the characteristics of the language itself. (Jelaska, 2005, p. 94)

Language transfer was considered a negative phenomenon and was usually associated with a low moral character and limited mental ability by the 20th century when large migrations increased the fear of foreigners who could possibly harm the language. For decades, experts have been interested in the influence of the first language to the second language which was completely different from it, as well as errors that emerge during that process. Even some contemporary linguistic experts claim that language transfer is only going back to the language that an individual already knows when he lacks the knowledge of the language he is currently acquiring. This perspective was harshly criticized because it neglects the fact that “a foreign language can affect the first language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, 8), as well. For this reason, it can be concluded that language transfer represents much more than going back to a familiar language while acquiring a second language.

During the 1950s and 1960s, “the main aim of SLA studies was to examine the role of the first language and its negative impact on the languages that were acquired after it” (Jelaska et al., 2005, p. 94). The most important studies for SLA as an independent discipline were those applied linguistic studies conducted within CA and EA. Considering that the similarities of the first and second language would help in the process of SLA, while the differences would inhibit it, the mutual comparison of two languages was supposed to reveal the similarities and differences between them, when CA appeared in order to solve the practical problems of language acquisition.

The shift from the concept of transfer to the concept of transferability marked the history of the linguistic transfer research, because in addition to the interest in linguistic transfer, the interest in the linguistic elements which can be transmitted emerged as well. Kellerman mentions two limitations that influence the emergence of linguistic transfer,

namely, “psychotypology and transferability” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 174). The occurrence of linguistic transfer in a case when a FL student considers first and foreign language similar is the basic ground of the restrictions of psychotypology, whereas the limitation of transferability assumes that certain structures of the first language which a learner of a foreign language regards as characteristic for the first language will not be easy to transfer. In addition, there are some other factors that affect transfer and transferability, including, personality, age, linguistic awareness and social context (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 174).

Further, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) mention the factors affecting language acquisition and forming the utterances in a language. The linguistic and psycholinguistic factors are significant for this thesis, because they include linguistic similarity by which the level of similarity between the first and second language is defined, which is the main focus of this thesis.

Although linguistic transfer occurs between the languages that are different, “the degree of transfer is the highest in those areas of linguistic use in which the student regards the first and second language as similar” (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 176). This is evident, for example, in the case of false friends *evidence* and *evidencija* which a native speaker of English who learns BCS as a foreign language, and vice versa, regards as similar, which leads to the automatic transfer from the first language into the foreign language in the translation. However, the notion of similarity cannot be understood uniquely because “it is necessary to distinguish between objective and subjective similarity” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 176).

Although it was not easy to determine which type of similarity has more influence on the occurrence of linguistic transfer, linguists have proven that linguistic transmission occurs precisely because of subjective similarity, because in acquiring a foreign language, a learner establishes links between the elements which are already stored in the mind and the material he is currently learning. On the other hand, linguistic differences can cause the avoidance of the structures of a foreign language if students find them difficult to learn, because they are “too different from the structures of the first language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 179). Although they do not cause language transfer, objective similarities (and differences) often determine “whether a linguistic transfer which occurs is positive or negative” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 179).

There are two basic types of subjective similarity, namely perceived and assumed similarity. Perceived subjective similarity refers to a student's conscious or unconscious judgement that “the form, structure, meaning, function or pattern of a foreign language are similar to those in the first language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 179). On the other hand, assumed subjective similarity refers to a conscious or unconscious assumption that the form, structure, meaning, function, or a pattern of the first language have its equivalents in a foreign language, “regardless of whether they exist or not, and whether the student encountered them in a foreign language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 179). We have to notice that the frequent occurrence of the perceived similarities in languages can lead students to the assumption that two languages are quite similar, so they can consequently create similarities that do not exist between the two languages at all, which ultimately leads to making errors (the best example are false friends).

Beside the general division of language transfer to positive and negative, we can also talk about “phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical transfer” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 19). However, morphological transfer is of the greatest significance for this thesis. Language transfer has long been recognized in phonology and lexis, which is not the same for morphology. For a long time, morphological transfer has been approached with skepticism because of “a very narrow understanding of the ways in which the effects of transfer can be achieved” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 92). Morphological transfer includes the transfer of morphemes, prepositions as part of speech, grammatical case, and so on. The more two languages are lexically and morphologically similar, “the more frequent is morphological transfer” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 92).

Syntax, like morphology, was considered immune to the effects of transfer. However, numerous studies have proved that this is not true. Syntactic transfer often involves “the transfer of the difference between verbs and grammatical case” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 96). The English language has a strict sentence word order, while sentence word order in BCS language is much more flexible. For this reason, students of BCS language whose first language is English are difficult to learn the sentences that are grammatically correct in BCS language because of “the syntactic limitations of the first language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 96).



Since CA tried to anticipate and explain all or the most of the difficulties in acquiring a foreign language by the comparison of different elements between two languages, it had a strong influence on the methodology of teaching foreign languages. It was considered that the similarity between the elements of student's first and foreign language will lead to positive transfer, otherwise, if the elements are different, "negative transfer will emerge as a consequence", which means that mastering the foreign language will be difficult because the transfer will result in error (Jelaska, 2005, p. 63).

However, CA has proven to be unsuccessful over time. It has been established that neither the first language is acquired by the mere imitation that has developed as a concept under the influence of the behaviorist concept of learning. Speakers need to produce and understand new statements continuously, and students of foreign languages have had difficulties in those cases which CA did not predict. As a result of the discovery that "many aspects of the student's language CA cannot be explained", many linguists started to interpret students errors by using different methods. (Jelaska, 2005, p. 99)

### **2.1.3 Error Analysis**

As a result of the discovery that CA cannot explain many aspects of a language student learns, many scholars have started interpreting students' errors using different methods. When it became apparent that students' errors were not always a combination of interaction between two languages, an approach known as error analysis (EA) developed in 1970s. It included a detailed description and analysis of errors made by students. In his well-known article, Corder, the founder of EA, found that correct sentences produced by students are a mere repeating of what they have already heard. On the other hand, sentences that deviate from the target language "reflect students' current understanding of the rules of that language" (Lightbown & Spada, 2005, p. 79-80).

Unlike CA, which attempts to predict student's errors, EA tends to "discover and describe the different types of errors in order to understand how pupils process information in a foreign language" (Lightbown & Spada, 2005, p. 80). In addition, EA has developed a new attitude towards student's errors. It does not regard errors as bad habits in linguistic behavior which should be eliminated, but as "an indicator of student's effort to understand how the new linguistic system functions" (Krajnović, 2010, p. 22).

#### **2.1.3.1 The concept of error**

Concerning the fact that children do not resort to the simple imitation of the structures they hear while learning their mother tongue, it is very probable that neither the learners of a foreign language will do so. This became apparent when linguists began to observe the errors that foreign language learners make, which showed that these errors overcome those errors that arise as a consequence of the influence of mother tongue. It was noticed not only that there were "the errors that were not predicted to occur at all, but also that those errors that were predicted did not occur at all" (Đorđević, 1987, p. 137). Thus, CA theory could not accurately predict what is really happening in a foreign speech and language that is not native.

Effective learning of a foreign language should be based on learning the rules that represent the basis of the system of that language, as well as on the corresponding

generalization of these rules. Learning a foreign language should be based on noticing the differences between the mother and foreign language through the continuous comparison of both linguistic systems. Teachers have to have a constant insight into the error that students produce. They have to be aware that errors are a natural and necessary part of the process of learning a foreign language, the part that neither should be tolerate nor excessively corrected. If teachers tolerate errors to a great extent, which poses a risk of the occurrence of fossilization within interlanguage, which remains at a certain level and never reaches the level which is necessary in order to get close as much as possible to the competence of native speakers. Error analysis should help students in the process of learning a foreign language and to contribute to the improvement of learning methods to reach these levels.

Linguists who are engaged in EA while learning a foreign language, believe that precisely this phenomenon, which causes a lack of progress in learning, regardless of the fact that students are continuously exposed to the classes of foreign language and have the ability to practice that language, is a fundamental issue which SLA studies should be dedicated long-term. Namely, all parts of a foreign language system that are fossilized remain in this fossilized form in interlanguage, which come to the surface later, during a performance, and disrupt the process of learning a foreign language itself.

However, since not all errors are a true indicator of stagnation in learning, we can say that excessive, rigid and instantaneous correction of errors can seriously disrupt the already established way of acquiring the structures of a foreign language and cause serious psychological frustration among students. Thus, teachers should notice students' errors, not treating them in the moment they are made, because a little delayed correction of errors can provide them an opportunity to make effective exercises which would enable their students to practice the correct forms.

### **2.1.3.2 Linguistic error and mistake**

As already stated, CA considered errors as negative language habits. Error analysis turns to a positive understanding of errors by understanding them as the indicator of the effort the student invests in order to understand the way a foreign language functions. Errors provide very useful information about the process of language acquisition because they show that

students do not learn the rules of the target language by heart, but “construct their own rules based on the obtained information and their prior knowledge”, so these rules differ from the rules of the target, foreign language (Ellis, 1999, p. 9).

Corder (1967) influenced the opinion that students' errors should not be seen as something that should be eliminated during the acquisition of a foreign language, but that “errors are very important since they are the indicator of the stage which students achieved” during this process. Errors should not be perceived as a product of insufficient or incorrect language acquisition or as a reflection of the wrong imitation of the linguistic habits of native speakers, but rather as a reflection of the fact that students themselves try to understand how the foreign language functions and recognize the norms and the rules that language is based on. In this way, errors in learning a foreign (English) language prove that there is some kind of a system that is based on the individual rules during the whole learning process.

Corder (1957) also makes the difference between “mistakes (which usually occur once and represent the currently misapplied form of language) and errors (which students make systematically without even being aware that they are making an error)” (p. 116). Errors occur in cases when students incorporate certain incorrect linguistic form into their own system, which they created during the acquisition of a foreign language. Therefore, these are errors only from the point of view of teachers, not from students' point of view, because they create their own system, interlanguage, which means that everything that is a part of interlanguage does not represent an error. Errors relate to an external system, not on an individual interlanguage, but to a target, foreign language.

#### **2.1.3.2.1. Causes and types of errors**

According to the etiological criterion, students' errors are divided into two large groups which reflect the various linguistic processing processes. The first type of error is interlingual error which occurs under the influence of the elements of a student's first language, which reflects the disadvantages of CA. Although student's first language causes errors in the use of a foreign language, “it is not the only source of errors” (Krajnović, 2010, p. 23). Such errors are made by students consciously because they do not know how the word is spoken in a target language, and therefore they rely on their first language.

In addition to interlanguage mistakes, there are internal language errors which Krajnović (2010) defines as “the result of student’s processing at a certain level of language acquisition and strategies learner uses” (p. 24). Internal language errors include errors of generalization or simplification. The cause of both of them lies in an incomplete acquisition of certain forms of a grammatical system of a language, or the complexity of the language because of which students are acquiring particular structures in stages, step by step. A prototype example of a generalization error can be the use of certain grammatical elements in those contexts where they are not applicable.

As Gulesić-Machata & Udier (2017) claim in their article, “linguistic deviation is a feature of each student's interlanguage which accompanies the process of learning” (p. 55). According to authors, errors are linguistic deviations that arise as a consequence of “student’s ignorance of the target language rules”, and the failure connected to it reflects student’s inability to use what he knows in the target language.

In addition to the above errors, instructional errors and accidental errors or errors caused by non-linguistic factors such as fatigue, stress, speed of communication, are of a great importance. These errors can be monitored and corrected by the learner himself. Accidental errors cannot be considered as true indicators of the process of mastering a language because of a learner's ability to self-correct him, but even they can show “the level of control over a particular linguistic system” (Krajnović, 2010, p. 23).

However, some internal errors are common to all students of a particular language, regardless of the linguistic background, and some of these errors, which are often referred to as deviations from the target language, are also made by “the children who acquire the target language as their first language” (Krajnović, 2010, p. 23). The result of all these studies was a new wave of research - interlingual research, which will be explained in more details as a part of EA theory.

### **2.1.3.3 Error analysis overview**

EA has become a recognized field of applied linguistics in the 1970s. As the stronger version of CA did not showed as very useful in pedagogical terms, „the study of linguistic

ignorance, the investigation of what people do not know and how they attempt to cope with their ignorance "(James, 2013, p. 62) occupied a central position in contrastive studies. Corder (1967) pointed out that there was some kind of shift in pedagogical interest from CA to EA and thus he provided an initiative for a large number of empirical works that subsequently followed. Certain linguists dealing with EA believe that mistake and error are „technically two different concepts" (Brown, 1994, p. 205). Corder (1967) uses the difference that Chomsky makes between competence and performance, and he believes that errors are related to competence, while mistakes are produced in performance. All people make mistakes, not because of lack of competence, because they occur both at the use of mother tongue and foreign language as a result of a large number of causes, hesitation to use certain expressions or structures, random use, confusion at a certain point, the use of slang, mistakes in speech, etc. However, native speakers can correct these mistakes, they are fully aware of them and they recognize them as errors and omissions.

On the other hand, errors can be defined as “linguistic situations in which rules of the language used are violated, which represent noticeable deviations from the grammar of the target language and emerge as a consequence of insufficient knowledge of that language” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 174). Native speakers make errors, as well, but they can correct them, while those who learn a foreign language and make errors at use of that language usually can not correct them. The central point in EA is the analysis of the source of errors. Richards (1971) thinks that there are “errors resulting from the interference of mother tongue, intralingual mistakes within the foreign language as well as developmental errors” (p. 61). Those errors reflect students' effort to create their own hypotheses about some areas of a foreign language out of their (limited) knowledge of that language. Richards (1971) focuses on intralinguistic and developmental errors, namely, overgeneralization that emerges in situations where students make deviant structures in a foreign language based on already learned structures, inability to notice restrictions on certain structures in a foreign language, incomplete application of language rules, that is, “the inability to produce acceptable utterances in a foreign language; and wrong understanding of different concepts that exist in a foreign language” (p. 63).

Therefore, EA is a systematic study of errors students make in the learning of a foreign language. As learning a FL is understood as an activity in which students are actively involved, errors are seen as a natural phenomenon that must occur when learning a foreign

language, which, in fact, precedes the stage of the correct use of a foreign language. Many authors (Corder, 1967, Selinker, 1992) consider that EA is significant for the following reasons, namely, errors can tell teachers to which extent students have progressed and what else they should learn, how efficient are teaching materials teachers use, whether teaching methods that use are adequate, which material is not well-acquired, motivating them in this way to improve their way of learning, having great pedagogical significance. Errors are an indicator of how “a foreign language is learned and acquired” (Corder, 1967), that is, they show that students often use the same strategies when learning a foreign language they used to acquire the mother tongue. The ability to analyze their own errors can help students to test their own alternative hypotheses they created themselves in terms of a foreign language they learn; errors are observed as an integral part of the teaching of a foreign language and that students make them inevitably because in this way they “test their own rules they created by learning a foreign language” (Bley-Vroman, 1989).

However, EA itself has some disadvantages, of course, especially the methodological problems which were the subject of criticism during the 1970s. It is very difficult to create a larger database of all errors made by students while learning a foreign (English) language, and to create a typology that would cover almost all types of errors. EA examines the errors that students make at a particular moment, thus, it is limited in time, and therefore cannot provide enough data related to the development and improvement of knowledge of a student during a longer period of learning foreign (English) language. The value of the results of any linguistic research that is based on EA can be confirmed only by using the data obtained by the “diachronic analysis of developmental stages of students in learning the English language” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 6-7). It is true that, in every phase of learning a foreign language, a type of error and its frequency change, thus, it is very difficult to achieve some valid results by EA if longitudinal data (related to the level of knowledge of a foreign language) are not taken into account.

There is another lack of EA as a linguistic method - it gives only a partial picture of what happens when learning a foreign language. EA is only effective when analyzing the production of linguistic elements by students (in speech and writing), but not in the way they perceive the foreign language (listening and reading). EA focuses on those foreign language structures where students make errors, but we can freely say, “it neglects those foreign language structures that students use correctly” (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 91).

Finally, EA sometimes does not take into account the fact that students are very often prone to use the strategy of avoiding certain foreign language, and, according to some authors (Schachter, 1974, p. 111), this is “one of the basic EA disadvantages”. Namely, EA very often ignores the fact that in many cases students do not make expected errors precisely because they try to avoid the lexis and grammar structures in the production of foreign language which they do not know enough.

Corder (1967) thus considers that new knowledge in the field of linguistics and psychology added a new dimension to studying student errors while learning a foreign / second language - that those “errors are the result of the interference of the habits that students acquired in learning mother tongue”, and that these errors can be studied by contrasting the systems of the foreign language to be taught and the mother tongue of students (p. 82). In this way, those areas in a foreign language that pose a problem when learning that language could be clearly defined, that is, a system of expected difficulties and problems could be made.

However, it is not important only to determine where these problems are, but also how to deal with those areas in foreign (English) languages which obviously pose a problem to students because of which they make errors. Therefore, due to the errors made by students in learning a foreign language, two schools emerged, namely, according to the first one, if there was “a perfect method of learning a foreign language, then errors would not occur at all, and the existence of errors would be the evidence that the methods applied when teaching a foreign language are inadequate”. According to the second, “we live in imperfect world where errors will always occur no matter how much teachers and students try not to make them” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 156).

The application of such ideas in the teaching a foreign language is known as audio-linguistic method. According to this method (Hendrikson, 1987, p. 354), which developed during 1950's and 1960's, students had to learn random dialogues by heart, repeat certain language forms and learn grammar rules, and the goal of such foreign language teaching (which was organized according to the principle practice makes perfect) was for students to learn the correct language model in order to apply it in the future within the communication with native speakers of the language they learn.



However, it turned out that students who did not use the learned foreign language afterwards soon forgot all the language rules they had previously memorized and all the forms they knew by heart. Many advocates of this method saw the errors made by students in the production of a foreign language from a Puritan perspective. For example, Brooks in his book *Language and Language Learning* (1960) claims that the relationship between error and learning a foreign language is similar to the relationship between sin and virtue, „Like sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome, but its presence is to be expected" (p. 58). He suggests some kind of special teaching procedure, instructional procedure, that would help students of foreign language to create error-free utterances, „The principal method of avoiding error in language learning is to observe and practice the right model a sufficient number of times; the principal way of overcoming it is to shorten the time lapse between the incorrect response and the presentation once more of the correct model" (Brooks, 1960, p. 60).

A year later, in 1961, *The Teacher's Manual for German, Level One* appeared, published by the Modern Language Materials Development Center. In the manual there were the instructions for teachers how to correct students' errors. According to it, teachers have to correct students' mistakes as soon as they appear, immediately, and students should not be permitted to realize and correct their own errors. Most teachers did not question the validity of such a mechanical access to errors in learning a foreign language at all. In the opening part of the book for the beginner *English language course* in 1970 these ideas appeared, as well, „one of the teacher's aims should be to prevent mistakes from occurring. In the early stages while the pupils are wholly dependent on the teacher for what they learn, it should be possible to achieve this aim" (Lee, 1970).

Similar advice is given to a foreign language teachers in a Spanish-language textbook printed in 1974. Namely, in the work entitled *Suggestions for classroom procedures*, the authors cite the following suggestion, „Whenever a mistake is made, the teacher should correct it at once and then repeat the correct pattern or question for the benefit of the entire class" (Hansen & Wilkins, 1974, p. 27).

However, after period associated with the perception of errors, structural linguistics emerge, and the “focus shifts from teaching to learning process” (Corder, 1967, p. 167). Structuralism, as a linguistic direction, has been developing from 1916 to 1957, in four

variants. Although there are differences between these schools and linguists, it can be said that they have some common basic language settings. Namely, the basic idea of structural linguistic theory is that linguistic elements are systematic, so that one element of language depends on the other, because they are all the members of a linguistic system. The very name, structuralism, comes from this idea that language elements make up the system or structure. Therefore, the goal of linguistics is “to describe linguistic phenomena in the system or structure, without describing the individual linguistic forms” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 184).

American linguists, structuralism advocates, based on their empirical studies, came to the conclusion that every language has its own immanent structure, and that there is no synchronous universality of the language, because there are major structural differences among the languages of the world. In linguistics, there is no place to prescription or marking some forms as correct and other incorrect, thus, the goal of descriptive linguistics is to “describe all forms that appear in one language within the framework of the system of that language, so descriptivism is the basic feature of that teaching” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 24).

According to Bloomfield (1935), the basic aspect of language analysis is the notion of objectivity, studying “those linguistic phenomena that are available to our observation, namely, the form and distribution of language”, that is, sentence order (p. 3). Consequently, they do not analyze meaning, since it is a manifestation of a language that cannot be objectively observed. Structuralists recognize only the meaning that comes from the distribution of linguistic forms, structural meaning or structural signals, since only that can be objectively observed and analyzed. Their attitude towards the meaning is therefore called mechanical, as opposed to traditional Mentalism, according to which linguistic features are included in the description of the language, relying on the linguistic feeling of the one who describes the language.

However, Saussure, a founder of structuralism, speaks about meaning, and his theory of meaning is reduced to an explanation of a linguistic sign which represents a direct relationship between “*signifiant*, that is, sensory representation of sound and *signifie*, a concept that is still more abstract mental category” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 25). Saussure was also interested in the social language features, and that is how emerged his distinction between language as “an abstract system of one language community, *langue* and languages in the linguistic use of that community, *parole*” (Đorđević, 1987, p. 26).

The notion of objectivity that structuralists introduced into the study of language is closely related to their understanding that language can be objectively observed only in linguistic behavior of people, and linguistic behavior is the way people respond by language to specific stimuli. Describing the syntax of one language is therefore the compilation of a list of sentence forms, structures that people, the native speakers of that language, use when they receive certain stimuli. „In other words, language is a form of behavior, activity, a system of automatic responses to given stimuli" (Đorđević, 1987, p. 26). Therefore, the structures or patterns of one language are analyzed in the grammar of that language by their division into direct constituents.

CA based on the structural model of language noted the differences and similarities between the two languages on three levels, at the level of linguistic form, structural meaning and surface distribution. The first example of a structural application of contrastive model is found in the already mentioned book by Lado, *Linguistics across culture*, while the example of contrastive grammar written on the basis of a structural model we find in Agard Di Pietro's work. Of course, the development of structuralism led to the fact that the linguists considered the relationship and the existence of similarities between the two processes, the acquisition of the mother tongue and the teaching of a foreign language. Thus Lambert (Corder, 1967, p. 163) contemplates and emphasizes the differences between these two processes, namely "acquisition and learning", while Carroll (Corder, 1967, p. 163) says that learning a foreign language can be learned "quite well by studying the ways of acquiring the mother tongue". "The differences between these two processes are obvious" (Corder, 1967, p. 163), however, that does not facilitate their understanding at all.

According to Corder (1967), learning mother tongue is "something that is necessary", while, on the other hand, of course, "it is not necessary to learn a foreign (second) language" (p. 165). Acquiring a mother tongue is an integral part of the process of growing up and maturation, while learning a foreign language begins later, in most cases, after that process is finished (though it is not always the case, there are numerous situations, which are becoming more and more frequent in modern times, where learning a foreign language, English in particular, starts very early, and this process takes place almost simultaneously with the process of learning a mother tongue. This happens in situations when a child which grows up in the English speaking area, and his mother tongue is not English, when he grows up in a

family where at least one parent is an English language professor, and has been exposed to this language since childhood (although psychologists believe a child should not learn this foreign language from the mother because they already learn their mother tongue from her, thus it can lead to the confusion for a child, although experience does not prove the same), or in those cases when parents are aware of the importance of the knowledge of foreign language in the contemporary world, so their children start to learn this language quite early, even in the kindergarten.

This notion is interesting for this thesis, since, as it seems, young people, in particular, BCS speakers start to learn English earlier and earlier. However, that does not mean that they know it, that is, that they attain the competence of the native speaker of this language. It seems that “the more English is learned and children more exposed to this language, the less they acquire it” (Prčić, 2005, p. 87). A little child acquires his/her mother tongue unconsciously and spontaneously, while the foreign language is learned in a certain, organized way (by learning the mother tongue, the child does not show any overt linguistic behavior, on the other hand, students of a foreign language do show it. Further, the motivation for learning mother tongue and foreign language is completely different. According to Corder (1967), “a hypothesis that can be applied to both language learning processes (both native and foreign) is behaviorist” (p. 33). Based on this interpretation, the child is born with innate predispositions to acquire language, it has to be exposed to language in order to acquire it, and each child possesses some kind of internal mechanism that allows it to construct the grammatical rules of a particular language out of limited number of data. Applying this hypothesis to learning a foreign language is not new and it was proposed by Palmer in 1917. According to his interpretation, people have “the natural ability to acquire language and this ability is retained even later, after the acquisition of mother (or first) language”.

Lenneberg (1966) research showed that if a child fails to acquire its mother tongue before he is 12 years old, for any reason (e.g. deafness), “later it quickly loses the ability to accept any language and to develop any kind of language behavior” (p. 44). So, the procedures students apply when learning a foreign language are similar (or the same) to those applied when learning a mother (first, primary) language. Basic characteristic on the basis of which these two processes differ is the presence or absence of motivation. Therefore, it can be concluded that students “who have enough motivation to learn a foreign language, will learn that language if they are exposed to the language itself” (Corder, 1967, p. 164). Motivation

and student intelligence are the basic factors that significantly influence achieving success in learning a foreign language. When learning this language, regardless of their motivation and intelligence, students make inexplicable errors. If we consider the errors that children make when learning their mother tongue and mistakes made by students of that language which is their foreign (in this case, English) language, we can come up with some conclusions. Certain incorrect statements should not be regarded as deviant, wrong or irregular, since it is only an evidence of the stage of the linguistic development of the child.

Such mistakes indicate that a child develops linguistically and acquires his mother tongue, and they are very significant evidence, showing the degree of knowledge of the child in any period of his language development. As Brown & Fraser point out (Corder, 1967, p. 165), the emergence of systematic errors is “a true evidence that child develops the grammatical rules of his language”, because, if child speaks and uses the language properly, this usually means that it only repeats and imitates those structures that he has heard. This tendency that child develops and which shows his endeavor to apply the rules is revealed through child's effort to reduce the language to a very simple system.

On the other hand, when learning a foreign language, we know to which language material students of a foreign language are exposed, because it is a material they mostly get from their teachers. Of course, the material (input) to which students are exposed can be controlled by the curricular plan of a foreign language. Thus, students of a foreign language control the input, while the child who acquires that language as its mother tongue chooses what will be his input. Therefore, it is important to consider the needs of students of foreign language when structuring the curriculum, and Carroll (Corder, 1967, p. 165) suggests “that it would be good to create a *problem solving situation* in which a problem should be solved”, so that a student of a foreign language has to find the appropriate verbal answers necessary for solving the given problem consulting a teacher or dictionary.

According to Carroll (Corder, 1967, p. 166), creating such a situation in a classroom when learning a foreign language “is similar to what is most likely to happen when acquiring a mother tongue in childhood”. The question that arises here is which program or syllabus is more effective, the one that is *learner-generated sequence* or a *instructor-generated sequence* (Đorđević, 1987, p. 189). The problem is to determine if a *built-in syllabus* exists and to describe it. Such a research is necessary in order to examine the errors made by foreign

language students and to determine if they are similar to those errors made by children when learning their mother tongue, since the basic idea in both cases is that both a child and a student of a foreign language use a particular language system at any point in the process of learning and acquiring a language (whether it is native or foreign) – the errors they make are the evidence of the existence of this system because they themselves are systematic, as well.

Here we should emphasize the difference between systematic and random errors. During the everyday language usage, all native speakers make errors that are the mere result of the performance which do not reflect the lack of linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, there are errors that students of a foreign language constantly make, which are systematic, representing the errors in transitional competence (the knowledge of FL students have at that moment) - the difference between non-systematic, random errors of performance and systematic errors of transitional competence. Even when students of a foreign language produce the correct forms of that language, this cannot always be taken as evidence that they have learned the system on the basis of which the native speaker of that language generates the correct forms, but that they may only repeat or imitate the learned forms they have heard, thus, such behavior “cannot be characterized as linguistic, but *language-like behavior*”, according to Spolsky (Corder, 1967, p. 168).

Finally, regardless of the similarity between the process of acquiring a mother tongue and learning a foreign language, we should emphasize the differences between them, as well. Namely, although those who acquire their mother tongue in their childhood, set an unlimited number of hypotheses related to the nature of their mother tongue which they test during learning, it can be said that students of foreign language face only one and the same problem, is the system of a foreign language they learn similar or different from the system of their mother tongue, and if it is different, what are its characteristics.

Proof that this is some kind of a assumption that almost all students of a foreign language ask themselves is the fact that there are a lot of errors during the production of that foreign language which can be attributed to the difference between the two languages, that is, to the nature of mother tongue which is different from the foreign language. This interference of mother tongue into the FL acquisition is the interference of the mother tongue and linguistic habits acquired during its acquisition. However, these errors should not be understood as an inevitable and unwanted retention of old linguistic habits, but rather as an

indication that the students themselves are exploring the foreign language system they learn. The mother tongue does not have to be an inhibiting circumstance when learning a foreign language, rather it can facilitate the process of learning, as well, and errors should not be understood as a sign of ignorance and lack of knowledge but as an indicator that foreign language learners develop their own learning strategies.

Von Humboldt thinks that language cannot really be taught, but “we can only create the conditions in which this language will spontaneously develop in the mind of the student in its own way” (Corder, 1967, p. 169). We can develop and improve these conditions only if we develop our knowledge on the ways in which one learns a foreign language and what is his/her *built-in syllabus*.

CA is, therefore, a way to compare two languages in order to determine potential errors and separate what is to be learned in a foreign language from what is not. As Lado (1957) emphasizes, a student of a foreign language compares all elements of a language, “voices, morphological structures, syntax, and even the cultural system of two languages” in order to discover the similarities and differences (p. 2). The ultimate goal is to discover or predict those areas of the foreign language that will be easy or difficult to learn. According to Lado (1957), “those structures that are similar will be easy to learn, while structures that differ will have to be changed in order to be used” (p. 59). Lado claims that “since even languages as closely related as German and English differ significantly in the form, meaning, and distribution of their grammatical structures, and since the learner tends to transfer the habits of his native language structure to the foreign language, we have here the major source of difficulty or ease in learning the structure of a foreign language. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn because they will be transferred and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language. Those structures that are different will be difficult because when transferred they will not function satisfactorily in the foreign language and will therefore have to be changed”.

According to Selinker (2008), CA is based on the theory of language on the basis of which “language is a habit and learning a language is the establishment of new habits” (p. 96). He says that “the primary source of errors in the production and reception of a foreign language is mother tongue”, and that errors can be “detected by studying the differences between mother tongue and foreign language”. He adds that “the number of errors is frequent

if there the differences between the two languages are greater". When learning a foreign language, students should learn the differences between their mother tongue and foreign language. The similarities can be freely ignored because that does not influence the acquisition of new linguistic elements. In other words, one must learn those elements that are different between two languages. Selinker concluded that only the differences between the two contrasting languages determine whether some structures are learned easier or more difficult.

As already stated, two points of view have been developed in relation to CA hypotheses, which differed in definition, *a priori* opposite to *a posteriori* attitude, or a strong opposite to weak version, that is, *predictive* versus *expletive* point of view. According to the stronger version of CA students can predict his course of learning a foreign language on the basis of the comparison of two languages as well as how successfully he will master the FL material.

On the other hand, the weak version of CA focuses on those errors students of foreign (English) language constantly make, or starting from what students can achieve, and only later the possible errors are explained on the basis of the analysis of the differences between mother tongue and foreign language. This weaker version of CA has become part of EA because its immediate contribution to the EA was the fact that "focus was directed to the student of a foreign language, to those structures and forms that student produces and strategies a student applies" in order to gain the competence of a native speaker of a foreign language (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 96).

The fact is that all the inadequacies of behaviorist theory of language had a great influence on theories related to the learning of a foreign language. Namely, if children do not resort to the simple imitation of the structures they hear when learning their mother tongue, then it is probable that students of a foreign language will not do this, as well.

#### **2.1.3.4 Interlanguage**

Interlanguage, as a concept represents a very important instance of error analysis. It was first used by Selinker in his work *Interlanguage* published in 1972 in the *International*



*Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*. According to this author, students create their own unique English language variant that has “its own characteristics and rules while learning English”. This system is created at a particular stage in foreign language learning so it can be said that at any moment of the production of a foreign language a student uses a language that is neither foreign (which he is learning) nor a mother tongue, but a third language which has its own grammar, lexis, syntax, etc. It defines the language that is systematically shaped and developed as a learner progresses in mastering certain foreign language. Interlanguage is a product of a foreign language learner. Although an individual possesses the inborn or experienced linguistic knowledge of the acquisition of the first and eventually another foreign language, the complete ignorance of the target language can be considered the starting point of interlanguage, while its final point would be the knowledge of the target language either at the level of a native speaker or at the level which is sufficient for an individual to meet his communication needs. Such a decision, either conscious or unconscious, is considered as “one of the causes of the fossilization of learner’s interlanguage, or some of its parts”. Interlanguage itself has the characteristics of previously acquired languages, the characteristics a foreign language and some general characteristics that are present in (almost) all interlanguages.

The earliest indications of interlanguage were given by Corder (1967), who saw the knowledge of a foreign language of a student “as a unique whole in which new knowledge is integrated with the already existing knowledge of a mother tongue and organized in a completely new way” (p. 33). Using *trial-and-error* system or questioning their own hypothesis in a foreign language, students gradually create a language system that is the closest to a native speaker language system. The authors use different terminology while defining interlanguage, „*idiosyncratic dialect*” (Ellis, 1985, p. 118) which represents only one „*transitional competence*” and demonstrates the dynamics by which the knowledge of a foreign language develops. According to some authors it is „*approximative system*” (Nemser, 1971) because it represents one of many phases through which students have to go through while learning a foreign language, trying to get closer to the competence and performance of native speakers (p. 54). Basically, interlanguage represents a strategy of adaptation while learning a foreign language because students are prone to “simplification, reduction, generalization, transfer, avoidance, restructuring and substitution of certain parts of a foreign language” (Selinker, 1972, p. 81), on their complex and layered path to a „complete” acquisition of a foreign language and gaining the competences of native speakers (which is

often expected by students of the English language at tertiary level of learning). These interrelated phases in foreign language learning form something that Corder (1967) calls “*interlanguage continuum or built-in syllabus*”, as we have already mentioned (p. 77).

Since Selinker was the most famous author of interlanguage who coined this term, five cognitive processes which students use while learning a foreign language have to be mentioned, language transfer, learning transfer, foreign language learning strategies, foreign language communication strategies, and the generalization of foreign language linguistic material. By this process, students try to somehow acquire and internalize the foreign language system. It is thus possible to notice three characteristics of the interlanguage, namely, variability, systematicity and dynamism.

Variability, since the rules that students create when learning a foreign language at almost every stage of learning “are not fixed, but are, on the contrary, subject to change” (Ellis, 1985, 50). The sources of variability are not easily recognizable, but variability could be caused by the influence of linguistic systems which the individual possesses, some other student's characteristics or the context in which a language is being acquired.

Since the interlanguage has its own rules, the student bases his production of a foreign language on his own, already established system, almost in the same way that a native speaker bases his language production (which is his mother tongue) at an earlier acquired knowledge of that language. Systematicity means that the learner's interlanguage is an indicator of his internal grammar system. However, these systems are not stable, they almost constantly change, so we can say that interlanguage is a dynamic system. These changes are characterized by a sharp transition from one system to another. If the interlanguage system is compared with target language system, it can be noticed that “this system is reduced because simpler grammatical forms are used” (Ellis, 1985, p. 50).

Dynamism is a very important feature of interlanguage, because the student constantly monitors already acquired habits and methods of language acquisition (including mother tongue, as well) to adapt them to the new assumptions he himself creates about the language system of a foreign language he is acquiring. Additionally, interlanguage is used for less communicational needs than the first language. Interlanguage is a phenomenon that points to

linguistic progress, so that it can be seen as a linguistic potential because “interlanguage reveals a lot about the developmental phases of student's knowledge” (Ellis, 1985, p. 52).

Since the 1970s, interlanguage is seen as a kind of mental process by which foreign language learners reorganize their own language version of a foreign language system and try to understand its characteristics. According to interlanguage theory, the focus shifts from a teacher to a student, since students play an active role in the process of learning a foreign language, in the lesson itself, which means that explanations for the creation of some kind of interlanguage can be found in the mental processes through which students convert the learned elements into knowledge, and they manifest the discovered systems which they form mentally through their production and performance.

Of course, theories of interlanguage were criticized, mainly out of the following reasons. These theories “concentrate too much on morphosyntax and promote the progress in learning a foreign language at the level of semantics” (Ellis, 1982, p. 133), the awareness of the existence interlanguage are limited to morphology and syntax and rarely deal with a very important aspect - the meaning of elements transferred by the use of a foreign language. According to Spolsky (1989), this concept is not defined understandable enough in linguistic literature, and he thinks that the very idea of the existence of interlanguage is problematic because “it can lead to the assimilation of the process of learning and the model of competence” (p. 33). Furthermore, theories of interlanguage have not led to the progress in empirical research, thus, it is necessary to find new and complementary methods in the future in order to penetrate into the very nature and principles of foreign language learning.

Thus, according to CA, a large number of errors arise due to the negative interference of the mother tongue of students, that is, there is an inevitable emergence of a foreign language that differs from the foreign language being learned. In this system, which students develop themselves while learning a foreign language, they go through various stages, trying to get closer to the competence of a native speakers of the English language. These are the periods of learning or the lack of learning English in which students hold for longer or shorter period, in which they test their own hypothesis about English as a foreign language. These stages (also called *learning strategies* by Selinker) are “*fossilization, overgeneralization, avoidance, simplification*, as well as *overuse* - the excessive use of certain structures of the English language” (Selinker, 1972, p. 154).

Of the above mentioned strategies, which can be understood as stages in the process of learning a foreign language, especially at the tertiary level of learning, BCS students of the English language are most likely to employ fossilization, excessive generalization and the avoidance of certain English language structures, all arising as an interference of a mother tongue, being based on the interlanguage students create during their study of English as a foreign language.

All this indicates that the influence of a mother tongue is very significant and that it dominates the performance of students even at high level of the English language learning, especially in those situations where students can resort to the avoidance of certain structures due to their knowledge of English, because the structures they choose to use are closer to the constructions in their native language according to their form. Therefore, we will explain in more details these three most important strategies that the English language students use.

#### **2.1.3.5 Fossilization**

In 1972, Selinker emphasized the importance of transfer, overgeneralization, learning strategies, communication strategies and teaching transfer. These five processes contribute to learning, as well as to the stagnation in a foreign language. Thus, he introduced the notion of fossilization as a special stage in the learning / non-learning process that represents a permanent state of mind and behavior, “fossilable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL native language tend to keep in their IL interlanguage relative to a particular TL target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL. Fossilable structures tend to remain as potential performance, reemerging in the productive performance of an IL even when seemingly eradicated” (Selinker, 1972, p. 215).

Although Selinker's concept does not completely define the process of fossilization, (Han & Odlin, 2006, p. 3) it gives us some kind of explanation from which we can draw conclusions about the basic characteristics of this process (Selinker & Han, 2001, p. 279). Therefore, fossilization contributes to the development of those characteristics of

interlanguage that deviate from the norms of a foreign language being taught, it can occur in all areas of language (at the level of phonology, syntax, morphology, etc.), it is a long and very resistant process, it is present in the process of acquisition of foreign language in both young and adult learners, and it most often indicates the regression in the process of acquiring a foreign language.

Thus, fossilization is a process that occurs while learning a foreign language and it encompasses the incorrectly acquired foreign language forms that students use and which are not corrected, but “dominate their production” (Hyltenstam, 1988, p. 68). Selinker (1992) invented the very term in order to identify those linguistic elements, rules and subsystems which students of foreign (English) language continue to use in their interlanguage, which are different from those in the target language, so he defines fossilization as „a cessation of IL learning often far from TL norms” (p. 243). According to Nakumi (2006), fossilization represents „a long-term stagnation in the development of interlanguage” (p. 23), while Taron (1988) claims that fossilization is „stagnation of the continuous development of interlanguage that emerges over a certain period of time” (p. 157). Hyltenstem (1988) points out that fossilization is a „process that occurs while learning a foreign / second language opposite from the process of acquiring a first language/mother tongue (p. 68).

It encompasses those characteristics of interlanguage which students develop and which deviate from the norms of native speakers and cease to develop, or those incorrect linguistic habits of students which, though seemingly forgotten, still somehow emerge on the surface during the use of a foreign language in certain situations.

Therefore, fossilization indicates that students either did not continue to learn a foreign language or that their knowledge decreased to a previous level. "If these errors as a cause of fossilization are not corrected, students will continue to use these semi-incorrect forms in foreign language production, precisely because the foreign language structures (in this case English) do not match the structures of their maternal (BCS language). Interestingly, fossilization occurs even at high levels of English, even at tertiary level.

Namely, students who study English and whose knowledge of this language is at a high level, still show a tendency to stagnate in some period of their learning process in spite

of „continuous linguistic exercises and exposure to a foreign (target) language" (Smith, 1994, p. 37).

Thus, the question that arises here is why students experience fossilization in different ways, as well as why students show different results in even virtually similar conditions of foreign language acquisition. For this research, a very significant question is whether the direct instruction of certain elements of English as a foreign language can reduce the emergence of fossilization.

“If fossilization emerges due to the influence of mother tongue during a foreign language production, then a language transfer or interference occur” (Selinker, 1972, p. 101). Interference can be defined as the use of mother tongue elements while using a foreign language which may occur at the level of “phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and semantics” (Richards, 1971, p. 46). Interference errors occur precisely in those areas in which mother tongue and foreign languages differ significantly, so students try to “translate the grammatical and stylistic elements of the mother tongue” into a foreign language which is to be taught (Hayim, 2002, p. 23).

A teacher who is able to see systematic differences between mother tongue and foreign language can develop and apply such methods that will enable his students to make less errors while producing a foreign language. Students unquestionably transfer the forms and meanings from their mother tongue and culture, as well as phrases and forms of their expression to the foreign language and culture they learn, which leads to “a negative transfer or interference in those cases in which they differ” (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991, p. 89).

#### **2.1.3.6. Overgeneralization**

Overgeneralization is a strategy by which students reorganize foreign language material in certain way, that is, they “use the already known analogies and available strategies in new situations” (Selinker 1969, p. 8). Overgeneralization occurs in those cases where a student creates and uses some deviating structure on the basis of his own experience while using and learning other structures of the language he learns. Overgeneralization involves the production of one deviant form instead of two regular, correct structures. Students most often

apply this strategy in learning a foreign language in order to reduce the linguistic burden that they need to take while acquiring a foreign language.

Overgeneralization can be associated with the need of reducing everything that is seen as excess in a foreign language. It can occur, for example, while using those forms that exist in a foreign language, which in some sense do not represent any visible contrast in relation to other forms, that is, they do not consider it necessary. In this way, student frees himself of the additional effort that should be invested in the production of certain linguistic elements in FL. Ervin-Tripp says that it is possible that morphological and syntactic simplification that learners use when they learn a foreign language is “similar to some kind of simplification students use when they acquire that language as their mother tongue (that is, native speakers of that language” (Richards, 1971, p. 33). Richards also claims that overgeneralization can also occur as a consequence of certain teaching techniques. A large number of exercises and transformations contain linguistic structures that can overlap, resulting in interference and hybrid structures.

The application of rules in those contexts where they are not applicable is much related to the generalization of deviant language structures, that is, the phenomenon that a student of a foreign language cannot notice that existing structures can be used in certain contexts.

Errors arising out of the analogy can also be some kind of generalization. Sometimes the very type of exercise that is given to students can lead to confusion and incorrect use of certain grammatical elements when relying on analogy.

### **2.1.3.7 Avoidance**

Throughout history, linguists have taken a different stand on the impact of mother tongue on foreign language acquisition, that is, whether “linguistic transfer plays a crucial role in the formation of interlanguage” (Gass&Selinker, 2008, p. 136). According to some authors, it is obvious that mother tongue has some kind of artificial role only, that is, its influence cannot be considered relevant when learning a foreign language, especially when students are selecting the structures from that foreign language they will use. Some of those opinions say that “language background did not have a significant effect on the way ESL learners order

English morphemes" (Larsen-Feeman & Long, 1978, p. 372), "interference, or native to target language transfer, plays such a small role in language learning performance" (Whitman and Jackson, 1972, p. 40), "direct interference from the mother tongue is not a useful assumption" (George, 1972, p. 45).

However, recent studies on the relevance of mother tongue and the ways of acquiring a foreign language cannot fully accept these attitudes. Thus, it is more likely to assume that the English language students, especially at the tertiary level of learning, decide and select what they will transfer or accept from their mother tongue. From the 1970s, linguistic studies of transfer in the process of learning a foreign language started to change a little, so they advocated the idea that transfer does not have to belong to Behavioralism, but that it can also be understood as a creative process.

This has been proven by the research of some linguists. For example, Schachter (1974) points out that the respondents "avoided certain structures of the English language precisely because of the influence of their mother tongue" (p. 439). According to this author, a foreign language student is indeed in a constant contact with that language, he develops new hypotheses regarding the structure of the language he "learns and modifies or even rejects those assumptions he has previously learned" (Schachter, 1974, p. 442). Mother tongue can affect a lot of structures in a foreign language that a student can produce but which he does not want to use or which he would eventually avoid.

However, the source of avoidance of certain structures in a foreign language may be multiple. Obviously, it is so because there are major differences between mother tongue and foreign language that is studied, so those forms that either do not exist in mother tongue or are different from it are avoided. Sometimes, avoidance can occur if students think that some structures in a foreign language are too complex and cannot be accepted or used. Dougut and Laufer (1985) agree that the appearance of avoidance of certain forms in English (for example, the use phrasal verbs by Jewish students) was "influenced by the complexity of that part of English rather than the difference between mother tongue and foreign language" (p. 233). However, we can add that, basically, this avoidance is influenced by mother tongue (in this case, Jewish, because in this language there are no phrasal verbs).



On the other hand, another study (Hulstijn and Marchena, 1989, p. 83) studied the use of the English phrasal verbs by Dutch students of English (Dutch has phrasal verbs as well as English). The results showed that Dutch students avoided using those phrasal verbs that were very similar to Dutch, probably because they could not believe that another foreign language could have a similar structure or form as their mother tongue.

Although the great similarity of mother tongue and foreign language ( as in the case of Dutch students), as well as the great complexity of the English language structure which is used can influence the emergence of avoidance, the difference between mother tongue and foreign language is, however, of key importance.

#### **2.1.4 Conclusion**

CA and EA should be helpful in learning a foreign language and contribute to the improvement of teaching. Effective learning of a foreign language should be based both on the acquisition of the rules that are the basis of the system of that language, as well as on the appropriate generalization of these rules. Learning a foreign language should be based on identifying the differences between mother tongue and foreign language through continuous comparison of both linguistic systems. Teachers need constant insight into the errors students make. They have to be aware that errors are a natural and necessary part of the process of learning a foreign language that should neither be tolerated too much nor overly corrected. If teachers tolerate errors too much, it comes to the risk of emergence of fossilization in interlanguage, which, in that case, remains at a certain level and never reaches the level necessary to get close to the competence of a native speaker as much as possible. Linguists who deal with CA in learning a foreign language consider that this phenomenon causes stagnation in learning, despite the fact that students are constantly exposed to foreign language material and have the ability to practice that language, which seems to be a fundamental problem which should be more addressed in future CA studies.

Thus, in the last two decades, there has been some kind of shift of focus in CA, especially in EA, from the predominant study of phonology and morphology, and syntax, as well, to semantics and pragmatics. Of course, new theories that emerge in psychology have

contributed to this, in order not to study the language as a mere set of separate, particular elements in the associative series, but also the human conceptual and perceptual systems, which has led to an increased interest in language pragmatics. In addition, changes occurred in the field of studying the way in which the mother tongue is acquired. Skinner (1957, 90) and Stats (1971) consider that learning a foreign language is “equal to acquiring and forming habits” (p. 16), whereas, according to McNeill (1970), “each person has an inborn ability to learn a language” (p. 121).

Beaver (1970) discusses perceptual and semantic strategies that facilitate the learning of a foreign language, while Brown (1973) considers semantic relations as equally important as pragmatic ones. In fact, it seems to be the oldest and most controversial issue that linguists deal with for decades, whether learning a foreign language is a process similar to the process of learning a mother tongue, or even completely similar to it. A perception that people learn a language by using it rather than by studying it and learning it consciously is the simplification of this problem, because it ignores aspects such as individual linguistic abilities and experience, learning preferences, as well as the individual motives and goals of students who have the power over their decision to study a particular foreign language.

Of course, one should not lose sight of the fact that learning a foreign language takes place in a variety of conditions and circumstances. One of the contradictions linguists encounter when analyzing the errors made by students learning a foreign language is whether these errors are the consequence of a negative interference from mother tongue or instantaneous errors only that are characteristic for a certain stage of learning having a universal character, because they are similar to the errors that native speakers (of English) make themselves when learning this language as their mother tongue.

According to some authors, even those errors that are an obvious example of employing the grammar of the mother tongue in the learning of a foreign language are due to the fact that students themselves check the rules and their own hypotheses about the foreign language they learn in their own way. This completely corresponds to Chomsky’s theoretical assumptions that even when learning the mother tongue, some kind of testing the hypotheses emerges related to the nature of the language being taught. According to this, it can be said that even during the 1950s and 1960s, when there was a focus on the pedagogical implications of EA, some kind of shift of interest emerged. Corder’s work has led to the fact that students’

errors are understood and conceptualized in other way, that is, errors in the learning of a foreign language do not represent something that should be undoubtedly eliminated during the process of learning a foreign language. Rather they present an important indicator of the stage and progress which students achieve while learning a foreign language. Errors should not be understood as a product of insufficient or incorrect foreign language learning, or as a reflection of the incorrect imitation of the linguistic habits of native speakers, but as a reflection of a student's effort to understand how the foreign language functions and recognize the norms and rules on the basis of which that language is used.

This is the evidence that errors in the learning of a foreign (English) language prove that during a whole learning process there is some kind of a system based on individualized rules. Having in mind the difference between errors and mistakes, errors represent everything that relates to an external system, it means, not to an individual interlanguage, but to a targeted, foreign language.

EA is a linguistic study of errors made by students during the learning of a foreign language, that is, a comparison between the correct forms of the target language and the forms used by the students themselves in the learning of that language, whereas CA is essentially a comparison of two linguistic systems. By contrasting two languages, BCS (mother tongue) and English (foreign language), the types of errors made by students in the production of certain forms of the English language will be explored and show that the use of CA in FL setting is not sufficient because errors are generated mainly due to negative transfer, that is, interference, of a mother tongue.

The aim of this research is therefore to make a scientific contribution to the English linguistics, particularly to the areas of CA, as well as to the improvement of the English language teaching at the tertiary level of learning.

### **3. Methodology**

This section provides information as to the research design, data collection methods and the instruments used, the participants and the research site of the study as well as data collection and data analysis procedures.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

Since the author was the lecturer in the course, the research which is the subject of this thesis is conducted as action research, designed in the form of a case study. The study has the characteristics of action research since the author of this paper works as an English instructor who initiated a research process. In addition, the paper also has the characteristics of the case study, since the research has been conducted with a small number of participants (20) within a two-month period, which is in line with standard methodological framework (Mackey, 2009). Although case study is often referred to by some authors as a method (Green, 2011; Gagnon, 2010), here it will be referred to rather as an approach because of its overarching research framework and methodological purpose which determine methods used in gathering data (Simons, 2009). This approach is selected since it “investigates the actual phenomenon in depth, within its real-life contexts, relying on multiple sources of evidence, thus applying triangulation for the purpose of determining the degree of agreement between different sources” (as cited in Green, 2011). As Given (2008) states, “the case study serves as the major source of the theoretical innovation since it deals with identifying specific mechanisms between causes and effects rather than dealing with casual questions”. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), “case studies are descriptive and heuristic in nature, focus on examination of a particular phenomenon and support the work with a smaller number of participants”. This fully corresponds to the subject of the research which focuses on describing errors caused by negative transfer. The paper has features of quantitative research since some of the statistical data will be obtained through the tests (pre-test; delayed post-test) and transcript of the recorded material presented during a class.

### **3.2 Data collection methods**

The author used the following instruments to collect data: *pre-test* and *delayed post-test* and interview transcript. The pre-test/delayed post-test control group design was selected in order to „measure the same group of individuals before and after instructions and provide a clearer picture of the teacher's instructional impact on individuals mastery levels than do post-test data alone“ (as cited in Popham, 2003, p. 151). Many authors hold the stand that the greatest advantage of pretest/posttest design is that “the scores gained through this design can be compared and analyzed between two groups” (Tuckman & Harper, 2012; Warner, 2012). Although some authors claim that „traditional pre-test/post-test design is unable to supply credible evidence regarding a teacher's instructional effectiveness“ (as cited in Popham, 2001, p. 130) and some doubt whether the pretest is “comparable in difficulty to the pretest” (Ellis, 2000) because of “the inability to make equidifficult test forms before and after instructions”, the author of this paper strongly believes that it is possible to make two tests of similar weight (by ensuring that no test items are more difficult than others and making necessary corrections) that would be relevant indicators of the effect of the treatment. It is necessary to “carry out pretreatment testing in order to ensure comparability of groups and establish their initial level of knowledge”, while “posttreatment testing is used to measure learning after the given instructions” (as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 158). The author used interviews to provide access to things that could not be directly observed, such as feelings, thoughts, intentions and beliefs (Linh, 2011), in order to provide participants with the opportunity to select, reconstruct, and reflect upon their experience (Ohata, 2005 as cited in Thuy Linh, 2011).

### **3.3 Instruments**

The instruments used for the purpose of measuring the amount of knowledge before and after the instructional phase were pre-test and post-test, while the instrument used for the purpose of analysis of the participants' perception of the concept of contrastive differences between B/C/S and English was a semi-structured interview.

### **3.3.1 Pre-test**

The instrument used for the purpose of measuring the amount of input knowledge on the research topic was pre-test. The examples for the pre-test used in this study were taken from Riđanović's book *Praktična engleska gramatika* (2007). The examples are taken from this textbook since the author of this thesis was unable to reach a reference or attested questionnaire which treats this subject and BCS in particular. Examples taken from this textbook are modified for the purpose of testing. The pre-test consists of two sections. The first section contains ten sentences containing the plural nouns which are the subject of this research. The instructions and the words in brackets have been translated from English into B/C/S by the author because the author of this thesis tried to avoid potential ambiguity and misunderstanding of the instructions in English by the respondents, since they are beginners. Participants of the study were provided with both correct and incorrect responses and were able to select the most appropriate answer (see Appendix A). The second part consists of ten declarative sentences. Certain parts of each sentence were underlined so the participants were supposed to make questions, thus beginning each question with the -wh word given.

### **3.3.2 Delayed post-test**

The instrument used for the purpose of measuring the amount of knowledge on the research topic after the conducted pre-test was a delayed post-test. The delayed post-test was conducted one month after the completion of the instructional phase. The design and examples for the delayed post-test used in this study were merely a modified version of a pre-test in order to assure the examples in both pre-test and delayed post-test to be of a similar weight. The examples were taken from Riđanović (2007) and modified to suit the needs of this research (see Appendix B).

### **3.3.3 Interview**

A semi-structured interview was used for the purpose of analysis of the participants' perception of the concept of contrastive differences between B/C/S and English. The semi-structured interview was selected following Patton's suggestion (1990) that participant's

response format should be open-ended, and therefore the researcher did not supply and predetermine the phrases or categories that must be used by respondents to express themselves. The strategy of open-ended response helped capture the complexities of the respondents' individual perceptions and experiences. The focus was on the participants' beliefs, feelings and experiences. The exact title of this research study was not revealed to the participants since the researcher thought that such situation might be an inhibiting factor.

### **3.4 Participants**

A total of 20 B/C/S adult EFL learners participated in this study. At the moment of this research, all the participants attended Business English Course organized by the Raiffeisen Bank Department of Education in Sarajevo. This course was organized for the purpose of cutting translation costs and improving business communication competence. The age of the participants ranged from 30 to 56. There were 14 males and 6 females enrolled in the Elementary level, all mixed and arranged in two groups: Elementary level 1 and Elementary level 2. The level of English was determined by the English language instructor who previously worked there on the basis of the test taken from the book *English Grammar: Test Yourself* (Bender, 1996) and adapted to the knowledge of the participants. All the employees took a placement test before they enrolled the course after which the previous instructor selected those who passed the test and placed them in two elementary level groups. For the purpose of the research, the author divided participants into two groups according to their initial Elementary level groups. Elementary level 1 represented control group, while Elementary level 2 was considered experimental group (each group 10 participants). The participants were informed that the research is in progress, but without revealing the exact title of research, with the purpose of not affecting participant's relaxation and the credibility of data (Hendricks, 2006). The control group processed the material in English only. The experimental group dealt with the same material but with oral explanations in their mother tongue (contrastive differences). Since the Elementary group 1 had their classes in the bank business centre A on Monday and Wednesday, and the Elementary group 2 in the bank business centre B on Tuesday and Thursday, the immediate communication between the groups regarding the research during the course was eventually significantly reduced. However, the author cannot claim that participants of the two groups have or have not been

discussing about the themes and the methods of the research. Nonetheless, formally, the communication between the participants was at least partially reduced.

### **3.5 Research Site**

Since the author of this study is an English lecturer in the Raiffeisen Bank in Sarajevo, the author contacted the Department of Education in order to get a permission to conduct a research (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 30) After the bank's approval was granted, the author agreed to conduct the research in accordance with the approved research protocol of the bank. In order not to endanger the credibility of the data of this research, the participants were not informed about the exact title of the ongoing research. Learners attended Business English classes twice a week. Elementary level 1 attended classes on Monday and Wednesday, and Elementary level 2 on Tuesday and Thursday. One lesson lasted for 60 minutes without a break. Learners took a placement test at the beginning of the course. The research was carried out during a two month period.

### **3.6 Data Collection Procedures**

After the permission from the Department of Education was granted, the previously mentioned instruments (pre-test and delayed post-test) were used in order to obtain the research data. The author received the consent to give the pre-test and delayed post-test from all the learners (20) who attended the course. Out of 20 learners who filled in the pre-test, each of them decided to take the delayed post-test in order to test their knowledge. After the author distributed the pre-test and delayed post-test, the instructions were given in B/C/S to assure valid comprehension of the exercises. Tests lasted for one hour each to enable participants to answer as authentic as possible. The participants were number coded to ensure confidentiality. The participants took the delayed post-test one month after the instructional phase was completed.

### **3.7 Data analysis**

For the purpose of quantitative data analysis, table form is used to display the quantitative research spelling results. Frequencies and percentages were used as descriptive



statistics. Frequencies were used in order to count the number of times a particular score/word is found in the data set, while percentages were used to express scores/words as a percentage of the whole.

On the other hand, the interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and analyzed according to each research question. Interviews were analyzed to reveal common threads and patterns emerging from the interview questions.

## 4. Results and discussion

This section will focus on the analysis of the results of the conducted research, as well as the discussion of the most significant findings.

### 4.1 An Overview of a Research Analysis: Phases and Procedure

The experimental and control group were formed<sup>3</sup> during the initial phase of the study. The difference between the experimental and the control group was that the control group did not receive treatment on the relevant topics in grammar and vocabulary and was not provided with the feedback from the teacher about the errors they made.

During the second phase, the learners took a pre-test. The pre-test was designed for the purpose of assessing the actual level of English focusing on the identification of potential similarities and/or differences among adult EFL learners in both groups. The learners were grouped by the Raiffeisen bank staff according to their criteria (the learners were divided according to the location of their offices - A or B Building. During the third phase, i.e. the treatment phase (a two-month period) the experimental group learners received intensive instructions in the contrastive differences between BCS and English. On the other hand, the control group did not receive explicit instructions about contrastive differences between BCS and English.

During two months, teacher focused on the acquisition of English *noun phrase* and *wh*-questions. The tendency was to include more explicit instructions in the experimental group because learners were more exposed to the target form than those in the group where implicit instructions were implemented. The assumption was that the results from the experimental group would testify to the good management over the language matter and the correct forms of certain words that are the goal of this research. It was expected that the

---

<sup>3</sup> The experimental and control group were formed based on the placement test results performed by the Raiffeisen Bank's staff, not by the author of this paper.

experimental group would show progress in the acquisition of the correct forms and making fewer errors in relation to the control group. Due to the fact that the learners of the experimental group were provided with additional explanations and input from the subject teacher, it was considered that it would achieve better results at the end of the test compared to the control group.

The fourth phase included testing experimental and control group through the delayed post-test, in order to determine possible progress in acquiring knowledge after a two-month intensive work on identifying and acquisition the differences between the languages, that is, BCS and English. The teacher opted for the delayed post-test in order to get more relevant and measure longer-term results.

The fifth phase involved interviewing learners in order to determine the reasons causing their errors.

In the first part of the research, both in the pre-test and post-test, the same set of English nouns were analyzed in terms of their correct or incorrect use: *advice* vs. *\*advices*, *children* vs. *\*childrens*, *food* vs. *\*foods*, *feet* vs. *\*feets*, *information* vs. *\*informations*, *money* vs. *\*moneys*, *new* vs. *\*news*, *people* vs. *\*peoples*, *women* vs. *\*womens*, and *work* vs. *\*works* (for more information see Chapter 4.1.1).

As already stated, second part of the research is devoted to the analysis of wh-words and wh-questions. At the level of sentence, this paper aims at focusing on the formation of wh-questions introduced by wh-words. Tests (pre-test and post-test) included the use of the following wh-words in wh-questions, namely *what*, *where*, *why*, *who*, *when*, *what*, and *how*. This will be discussed in more details in Chapter 4.1.2 of this thesis.

## 4.2 Quantitative data results

This section will focus on the elaboration of the results of the initial phase of the research.

### 4.2.1 Plural nouns

This chapter deals with the analysis of the first part of the pre-test that includes the plural of nouns.

#### 4.2.1.1 Pre-Test phase

The first task of the pre-test is contained of 10 sentences. For the purpose of this study, the instructions and the words in the brackets have been translated from English into BCS by the author, because the author believes that the participants would thus give more valid results if the message is given in mother tongue in order to avoid various doubts which would eventually occur as a result of weak or wrong understanding of instructions in the English language. The participants were provided with both correct and incorrect responses and were able to select the most appropriate response. The sentences are presented in the following list.

1. He collects \_\_\_\_\_ (informacije) on new products.
2. Sally does not have enough \_\_\_\_\_ (novaca) to buy that dress.
3. Her \_\_\_\_\_ (djeca) are too hyperactive.
4. There are some \_\_\_\_\_ (žene) who love to act bossy.
- 5 There are many \_\_\_\_\_ (ljudi) in the shop across the street.
6. There are two types of \_\_\_\_\_ (hrane) I find disgusting: coconut and liver. I really hate them.
7. I got the \_\_\_\_\_ (vijesti) from a reliable source.

8. My \_\_\_\_\_ (savjeti) do not help him a lot.

9. Her bare \_\_\_\_\_ (stopala) do not make much noise as she moves across the room.

10. They enjoy eating apples at their \_\_\_\_\_ (poslu).

The following table shows the number of correct and incorrect responses for the control and experimental group.

### Pre-test per item results

*Table 1. Pre-test results*

Comparison items	Experimental Group (10)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (10)	Control group (%)	Total	Total %
advice	2	20%	4	40%	6	30%
advices*	8	80%	6	60%	14	70%
children	4	40%	6	60%	10	50%
childrens*	6	60%	4	40%	10	50%
food	5	50%	8	80%	13	65%
foods*	5	50%	2	20%	7	35%
feet	2	20%	2	20%	4	20%
feets*	8	80%	8	80%	16	80%
information	3	30%	1	10%	4	20%
informations*	7	70%	9	90%	16	80%

money	5	50%	10	100%	15	75%
moneys*	5	50%	0	0%	5	25%
new*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
news	10	100%	10	100%	20	100%
people	4	40%	8	80%	12	60%
peoples*	6	60%	2	20%	8	40%
women	7	70%	9	90%	16	80%
womens*	3	30%	1	10%	4	20%
work	8	80%	10	100%	18	90%
works*	2	20%	0	0%	2	10%

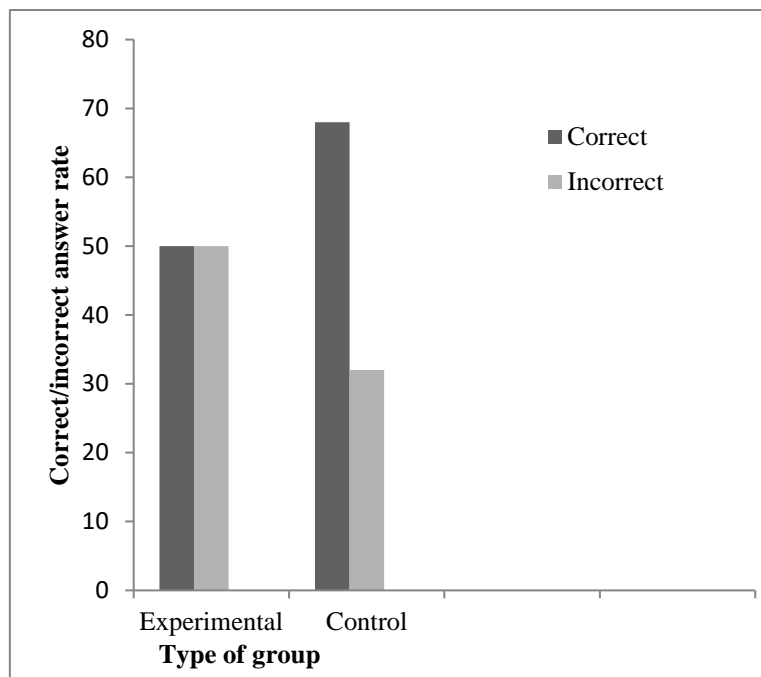
---

As can be seen from Table 4, the ratio of correct and incorrect responses significantly varies. Nouns *\*advices*, *\*feets* and *\*informations* were the most commonly used incorrect grammatical forms.. It was expected from learners to have difficulties with these nouns since their use in BCS differs from and does not correspond to their use in the English language. In BCS, nouns *advice*, *foot* and *information* have their regular plural (BCS: savjet - savjeti; stopalo - stopala, informacija - informacije). On the other hand, in English, nouns *advice* and *information* do not have the plural form, while noun *foot* has irregular plural form feet. The potential and, perhaps, the most obvious reason behind these errors is the negative transfer from BCS to English while translating these plural nouns from BCS into English. It is an expected phenomenon considering the fact that, after learning and generalizing the grammatical system of the mother tongue, learners will acquire the second language through

the prism of the knowledge of his or her mother tongue. The process of acquiring the mother tongue flows unconsciously, while the process of learning a foreign language takes place consciously and with a specific goal. On this basis, it can be said that the development of the mother tongue is moving from below upwards, while the foreign language is developing from top to bottom. When learning a foreign language, at the very beginning, a learner is becoming aware of the complex features of certain language systems, and only afterwards the ability to spontaneously and freely use a foreign language develops. In the case of nouns *advice*, *foot* and *information*, the participants in this research showed that they eventually acquired some of the features of the English grammar system, such as adding the suffix –s or –es while making the plural of nouns. However, on the other hand, a negative influence from BCS (which in this case implies that these nouns have regular plural) caused the inadequate application of this rule. Thus, the direct translation of nouns from BCS to English and the generalization of the rule of the formation of the plural of nouns caused learners to make grammatical errors.

In the control group, out of a total of 100 responses, 68% were correct, while 32% were incorrect. The ratio between the experimental and control group indicates that the control group had 18% correct responses more than the experimental group, while in the experimental group there were 18% incorrect responses more than in the control group..

While analyzing the responses, the focus was on the choice of correct and incorrect responses. At the outset of this research, both groups successfully answered the task, since the percentage of incorrect responses was not higher than 50% in any group, while in the total number of responses, taking into account both groups, the percentage of inaccurate responses was even smaller, that is, 41%. The difference is that learners in the experimental group less successfully responded to the given sentences, giving an equal number of correct and incorrect sentences, that is, 50-50%, while the learners in the control group responded to the required nouns to a large extent, which is 68% correct versus 32% incorrect responses. We can see this in the following graph.



*Figure 1.* The percentage of correct and incorrect responses for the control and experimental group in pre-test

As we have already pointed out, we can conclude from the table that the total number of incorrect responses in the experimental group was 50% as many as correct responses, so the ratio of correct and incorrect responses was 50%-50%. In contrast, the control group recorded a greater number of correct responses, i.e. 68%, while 32% responses were incorrect. In the overall ratio of both groups, 59% responses were correct, while 41% of them were incorrect.

#### **4.2.1.2 Treatment phase**

This section provides the information on the methods of teaching (either direct or indirect method) used in control and experimental group during the treatment phase.

##### **4.2.1.2.1 Control group during the treatment phase**

During this research, the control group did not receive explicit instructions unlike the experimental group. The control group practiced the English language items through speaking activities.



The aim of the research in the control group was to shift the attention from the grammar, to meaning and enable communication. The focus was on the use of language, on fluency and the integration of language skills. In control group, classes were held in the English language only, without grammatical interventions in mother tongue.

For this reason, classes usually started with dialogue, the material was presented orally with the help of an action or image. The mother tongue was not used in any situation, and there was no translation. Prevalent exercises were those that mostly included dialogue, debate, or comment. The grammar was taught indirectly and the rules were generalized from practice or experience. Also, the emphasis was on learning about the culture of the country whose language was being taught because it is considered an important aspect of learning a foreign language. The material used in control group consisted of a large number of grammatical structures that are the focus of this research. The discussion on this theme was intentionally initiated by the teacher in the form of questions.

During the second month of the research, the Wh-questions unit was discussed implicitly within the control group. It will be discussed in more detail in subsection 4.1.2.2.1 of this thesis.

#### **4.2.1.2.2 Experimental group during the treatment phase**

The experimental group received the explanation of the form and use including examples in English as well as in BCS.

During the first month, 9 hrs total, the experimental group dealt with the *plural nouns*. The first 15 minutes of each class was devoted to the explicit interpretation of the term nouns and plural nouns. Each noun was studied during one class. Nouns were arranged in without reference to the contextual use. In the control group, as previously mentioned, the plural form of the target nouns were taught in accordance with the topic given in the textbook. On the other hand, in the experimental group, the focus was on the grammatical form of the noun.

In the treatment phase, teacher would present one plural noun per each class, such as with the noun *advice*. Teacher would provide its definition both in English and BCS via PPP and emphasized whether it has a plural form or it is mass noun. In this case, noun *advice* is a

mass noun in English, while in BCS it is a noun with a regular plural. The noun was then translated into BCS. Teacher would then explain the rules of the use of that noun in BCS by writing ten sentences in BCS (one per each learner) containing the plural form of noun *advice* which were supposed to be translated into English appropriately. Teacher used SVO type of sentences in order to present this theme in the most effective manner, focusing on target nouns. Each learner would write one simple sentence composed of maximum five words in Present Simple given by teacher and try to translate it on the board with the help of a teacher. Most translations were negatively influenced by relying on the rules of their mother tongue, as expected. This was especially significant for this research since negative transfer influenced most of the errors in pre-test. In this respect, to prevent this phenomenon in post-test results, teacher pointed out the differences between BCS and the English grammar rules focused on the plural of nouns by comparing and contrasting the sentences given in BCS and English. Contrastive analysis was used in order to provide the explanation of similarities and differences between mother tongue and foreign language. In the example of the noun *advice* - *She gives excellent \*advices* (original in BCS: *Ona daje odlične savjete*), teacher explained learners that noun *advice* in English is a mass noun and that it does not have its plural form *\*advices*, unlike in BCS. Teacher would further write the noun *advice* on the auxiliary board in order for learners to be exposed to the word for the next two months. Learners would additionally pronounce each sentence aloud in order to memorize the target noun forms easier and recall easier whether the target plural of noun eventually has the suffix *-s* or *-es* or phonological change when compared to its singular form. At the end of the lesson, teacher would organize a short written quiz composed of three simple sentences with target plural of nouns in BCS in order for teacher to check the acquisition of the target noun in general. All the suggestions of translations by learners would be then written on the board. Teacher would correct the eventual errors on the basis of learners' argument, that is, teacher did not correct errors herself, but induced learners to a correct response and merely followed their instructions during the correction process.

The structures were thus studied gradually, one by one through the repetition of the drills.

During the second month, in an experimental group, Wh-questions and Wh words were presented by providing instructions in mother tongue in order to make its meaning and use in English more understandable. This topic be discussed in more details in subsection 4.1.2.2.2 of this thesis.

### 4.1.2.3 Post-Test Phase

After the phase of instructions on contrastive differences between BCS and English, the testing phase of the experimental and control group experiments with delayed post-test followed in order to determine possible progress in acquiring target words and structures.

The delayed post-test was conducted one month after the completion of the treatment phase. Teacher was limited by the engagement period, otherwise the delayed post-test would be conducted three months after the treatment phase. The design and examples of delayed post-test used in this study were taken from Riđanović (2007) since it represents the most suitable existing written research material on this topic.

It is ensured that post-test items are not difficult than pre-test items, since teacher made only few necessary corrections in post-test, or eventually provided a different sentence parallel to the one in a pre-test, but of a similar weight. Teacher used simple sentence structures consisting of Present Simple only. In that way, the author would get relevant indicators of the effect of the treatment. The post-treatment testing is therefore used to measure learning level after given instructions. Table 8 illustrates the similarity of the sentences used in pre-test and post-test.

*Table 2. An Overview of Pre-test & Post-test Sentences*

PRE-TEST	POST-TEST
He collects _____ (informacije) on new products.	Tom has _____ (informacije) that Mary needs.
Sally does not have enough _____ (novaca) to buy that dress.	The problem is that the poor don't have enough _____ (novaca) to buy the food.
Her _____ (djeca) are too hyperactive.	His _____ (djeca) are very intelligent.

There are some \_\_\_\_\_ (žene) \_\_\_\_\_ (žene) usually live  
who love to act bossy. longer than men.

There are many \_\_\_\_\_ (ljudi) Creative \_\_\_\_\_ (ljudi) have  
in the shop across the street. more energy in the morning.

There are two types of \_\_\_\_\_ I know a lot about industrial  
(hrana) I find disgusting: coconut and liver. I \_\_\_\_\_ (hranama).  
really hate them.

I get the \_\_\_\_\_ (vijesti) from a It is hard to avoid fake \_\_\_\_\_  
reliable source. (novosti) today.

My \_\_\_\_\_ (savjeti) do not help I don't need your \_\_\_\_\_  
him a lot. (savjete).

Her bare \_\_\_\_\_ (stopala) do She loves her flat \_\_\_\_\_  
not make much noise as she moves across (stopala).  
the room.

They enjoy eating apples at their My mother does a lot of domestic  
\_\_\_\_\_ (poslu). \_\_\_\_\_ (poslova) and she  
enjoys it.

---

For the purpose of this research, learners were divided into two groups. The first, experimental group spent 15 minutes of class each time during the first month on grammar forms in their mother tongue, i.e. BCS, learning about contrastive differences between BCS and English, before being subjected to post-test. Teacher participants pointed out that one form of the nouns in the post-test was correct and the other incorrect, and to choose the one that was correct and fill the gaps in the first post-test task with those words.

In the control group, the post-test was divided without any previous instructions and lectures, except that they should fill the gaps in the first post-test task with the correct given words from the box. As well as the experimental group, they have been told that one form of the noun is correct and the other is incorrect.

Learners were expected largely to respond successfully to the task because the results of the pre-test had already shown success in the acquisition of this grammatical rule for both groups. This was expected in particular with the experimental group, given that the ¼ of time in the classes was devoted to the explanation of the grammatical rules that are the subject of this research.

Post-test responses were analyzed according to the criterion of whether the respondents selected the correct or incorrect form of the plural form of nouns the offered responses in the word box.

*Table 3. Post-test per noun results*

Comparison items	Experimental Group (10)	Experimental group (%)	Control group (10)	Control group (%)	Total	Total %
advice	7	70%	5	50%	12	60%
advices*	3	30%	5	50%	8	40%
children	8	80%	9	90%	17	85%
childrens*	2	20%	1	10%	3	15%
food	10	100%	9	90%	20	100%
foods*	0	0%	1	10%	0	0%
feet	9	90%	8	80%	17	85%
feets*	1	10%	2	20%	3	15%
information	9	90%	8	80%	17	85%
informations*	1	10%	2	20%	3	15%

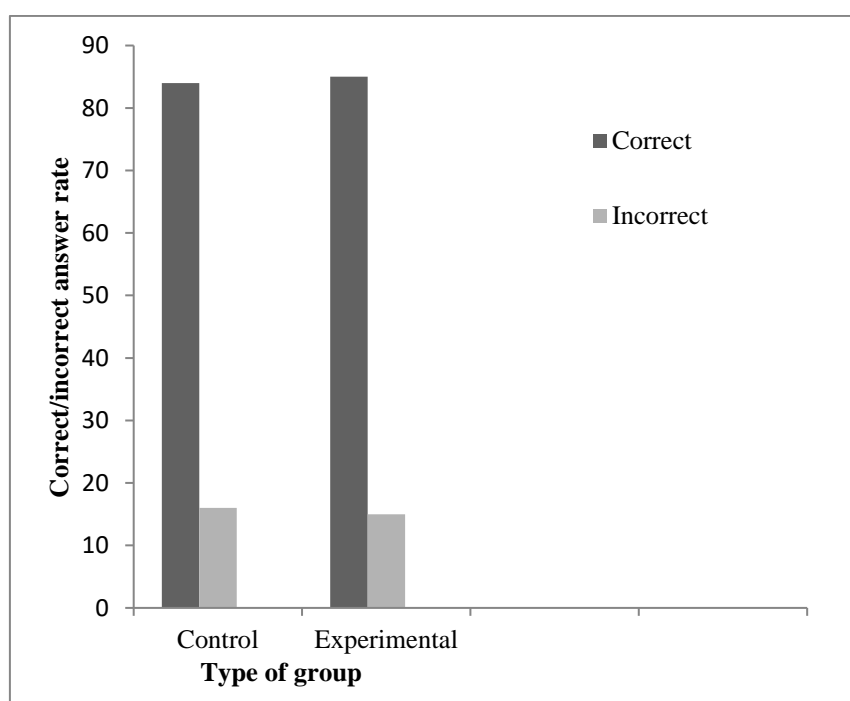
money	8	80%	10	100%	18	90%
moneys*	2	20%	0	0%	2	10%
new*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
news	10	100%	10	100%	20	100%
people	5	50%	8	80%	13	65%
peoples*	5	50%	2	20%	7	35%
women	9	90%	8	80%	17	85%
womens*	1	10%	2	20%	3	15%
work	10	100%	9	90%	19	95%
works*	0	0%	1	10%	1	5%

Table 3 presents post-test results for both groups and total number of correct and incorrect responses in both groups for each response individually.

While analyzing these responses, the focus was on the choice of correct and incorrect responses. The most problematic nouns in post-test in were *advice* and *people*. This can be due to the fact that learners transferred their form and meaning from BCS to English, and translated them literally into English. By relying on their L1 knowledge, learners assumed that concepts that they acquired in their mother tongue have to correspond those in a foreign language they learn. However, negative transfer or the interference of their mother tongue caused the linguistic errors in the post-test. On the other hand, a positive transfer was noticed, as well, such as in the case of nouns *money* and *food*, which are used as mass nouns in BCS, as well. While learning FL, learners experienced an irregularity in the use of FL they were

learning since the languages they already acquired (BCS) and the one they are acquiring (English) are in contact and BCS causes an interference to English as foreign language being learned. Adult learners are not satisfied merely with the learned linguistic patterns, but want their thoughts and ideas that overwhelm them in their mother tongue to express in foreign language, which leads to making errors. Although those categories of English that do not exist in BCS are the most difficult to master, frequent literary translations from the mother tongue and generalization of the English grammar rules proved to be equally responsible for making language transfer errors.

It can be said that both groups successfully completed this task, given that the percentage of incorrect responses was less than 16% in both groups, while the percentage of incorrect responses was even lower, that is, 15.5% (both groups). The difference is that in the post-test, both the control group and the experimental group, unlike in the pre-test, successfully completed this fill-in-the-gap exercise with more correct than incorrect responses. In other words, the control group had 84% correct responses, and 16% incorrect responses. The experimental group provided 85, i.e. 85% of the incorrect responses, and 15, i.e. 15% of the incorrect responses. We can see this in the following graph.



*Figure 2.* The percentage of correct and incorrect responses in both groups in the post-test for each response individually

The total response in the post-test was 169, i.e. 84.5%, while the total number of incorrect responses in the post-test was 31 and 15.5% respectively.

As we have already pointed out, we can conclude from the table that the total number of incorrect responses in the post-test in the experimental group was 15%, while the number of correct responses was 85%. In contrast, the control group recorded a lower number of correct responses, i.e. 84%, while 16% responses were incorrect. In the total ratio of both groups, 84.5% responses were correct, while 15.5% of them were incorrect.

#### 4.1.2.4 Comparison between pre-test and post test results

Table 4 illustrates the comparison of pre-test and post-test results in the control group for each response individually.

*Table 4. Control group: pre-test vs post-test per item results*

Comparison items	Pre-test	Pre-test (%)	Post-test	Post-test (%)	Total	Total (%)
advice	4	40%	5	50%	+1	+10%
advices*	6	60%	5	50%	-1	-10%
children	6	60%	9	90%	+3	+30%
childrens*	4	40%	1	10%	-3	-30%
food	8	80%	9	90%	+1	10%
foods*	2	20%	1	10%	-1	-10%
feet	2	20%	8	80%	+6	+60%
feets*	8	80%	2	20%	-6	-60%



information	1	10%	8	80%	+7	+70%
informations*	9	90%	2	20%	-7	-70%
money	10	100%	10	100%	0	0%
moneys*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
new*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
news	10	100%	10	100%	0	0%
people	8	80%	8	80%	0	0%
peoples*	2	20%	2	20%	0	0%
women	9	90%	8	80%	-1	-10%
womens*	1	10%	2	20%	+1	+10%
work	10	100%	9	90%	-1	-10%
works*	0	0%	1	10%	+1	+10%

---

After the post-test, the use of the noun *women* was the most problematic in control group, while the use of the nouns *feet* and *information* improved after the period of instructions.

The following graph provides the compared results of the control group between pre-test and post-test.

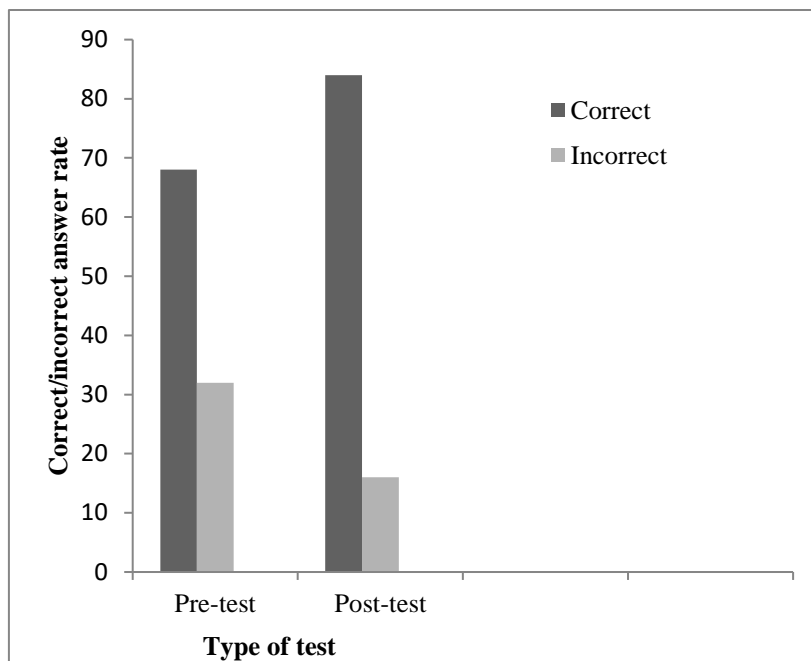


Figure 3. The compared results of the control group between pre-test and post-test

After a two-month period of study, in the control group, the total number of correct responses in the post-test increased from 68 in pre-test to 84 in the post-test, which is 16 responses more and 16% respectively.

The following table illustrates the compared results of the pre-test and post-test in the experimental group per item.

Table 5. Experimental group: pre-test vs. post-test per noun results

Comparison items	Pre-test	Pre-test (%)	Post-test	Post-test (%)	Total	Total%
advice	2	20%	7	70%	+5	+50%
advices*	8	80%	3	30%	-5	-50%
children	4	40%	8	80%	+4	+40%
childrens*	6	60%	2	20%	-4	-40%
food	5	50%	10	100%	+5	+50%

foods*	5	50%	0	0%	-5	-50%
feet	2	20%	9	90%	+7	+70%
feets*	8	80%	1	10%	-7	-70%
information	3	30%	9	90%	+6	+60%
informations*	7	70%	1	10%	-6	-60%
money	5	50%	8	80%	+3	+30%
moneys*	5	50%	2	20%	-3	-30%
new*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
news	10	100%	10	100%	0	0%
people	4	40%	5	50%	+1	+10%
peoples*	6	60%	5	50%	-1	-10%
women	7	70%	9	90%	+2	+20%
womens*	3	30%	1	10%	-2	-20%
work	8	80%	10	100%	+2	+20%
works*	2	20%	0	0%	-2	-20%

---

After the post-test, the use of all nouns in the experimental group after the post-test improved significantly. The greatest improvement was recorded in nouns *advice, food, feet* and *information*.

In the experimental group, it was interesting to observe an improvement in the acquisition of the correct grammatical form after the treatment phase. These results are presented in Table 5. The graph below gives an overview of the compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test.

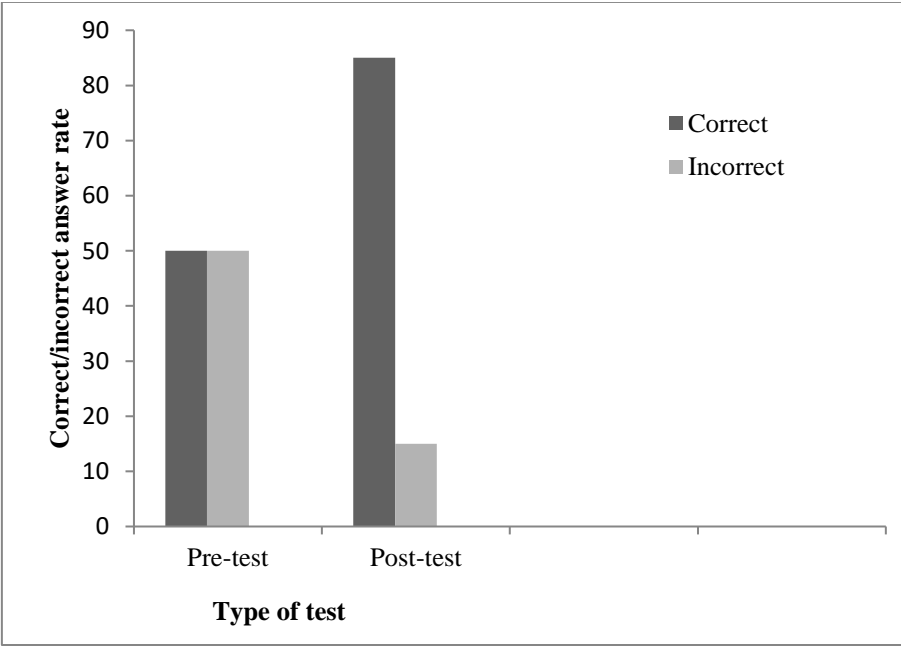


Figure 4. The compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test

After a two-month treatment period, in the experimental group, the total number of correct responses in the post-test increased from 50 in the pre-test to a high 85 correct responses in the post-test, which is 35 responses more and 35% respectively.

The following table gives an overview of pre-test and post-test results for each noun individually.

Comparison	Pre-test	Pre-test	Post-test	Post-test	End	End Total

items	Total	Total %	Total	Total %	Total	%
advice	6	30%	12	60%	+6	+30%
advices*	14	70%	8	40%	-6	-30%
children	10	50%	17	85%	+7	+35%
childrens*	10	50%	3	15%	-7	-35%
food	13	65%	20	100%	+7	+35%
foods*	7	35%	0	0%	-7	-35%
feet	4	20%	17	85%	+13	+65%
feets*	16	80%	3	15%	-13	-65%
information	4	20%	17	85%	+13	+65%
informations*	16	80%	3	15%	-13	-65%
money	15	75%	18	90%	+3	+15%
moneys*	5	25%	2	10%	-3	-15%
new*	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%
news	20	100%	20	100%	0	0%
people	12	60%	13	65%	+1	+5%
peoples*	8	40%	7	35%	-1	-5%

women	16	80%	17	85%	+1	+5%
womens*	4	20%	3	15%	-1	-5%
work	18	90%	19	95%	+1	+5
works*	2	10%	1	5%	-1	-5%

After the treatment phase, in both observed groups, there has been marked a significant improvement in the acquisition of the nouns that are the subject of this research. After the post-test, the use of the nouns *feet* and *information* improved significantly after the period of instructions in both groups.

The following graph illustrates the compared results of the pre-test and post-test in both groups in total.

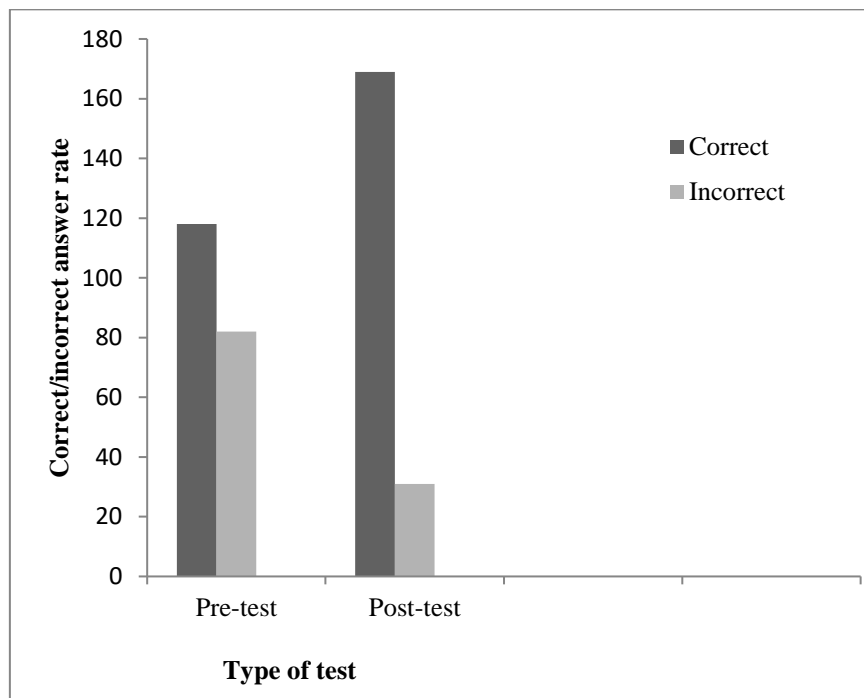


Figure 5. The compared results of the pre-test and post-test in both groups in total

After the treatment phase, it was determined that the number of correct responses in both groups increased by 25.5%.

The following graph illustrates the progress of the control and experimental group after the instruction phase.

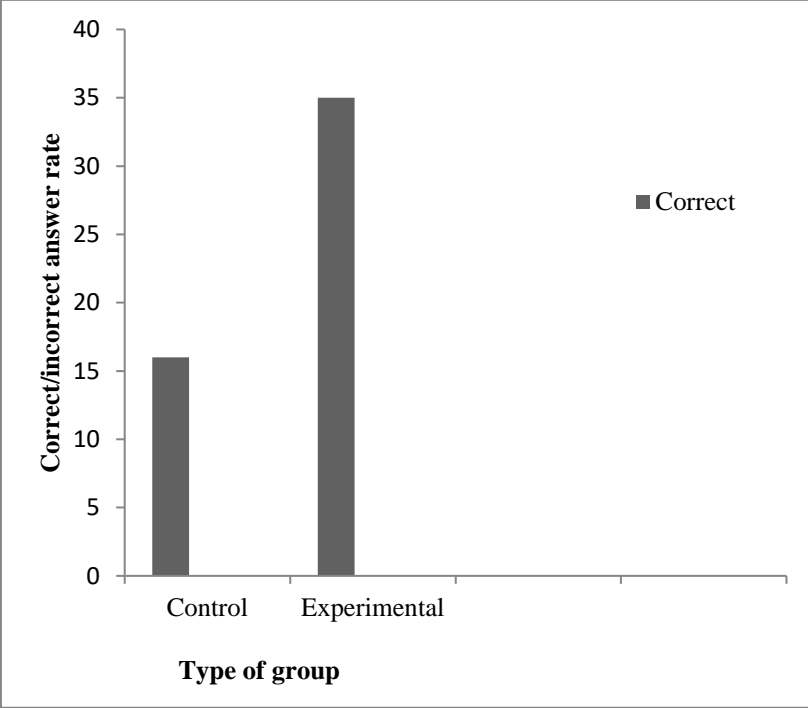


Figure 6. The percentage of the progress of the control and experimental group after the post-test

The graph shows that the number of correct responses in the post-test in the control group increased by 16%, while the experimental group advanced by as much as 35%. Thus, the number of correct responses in both groups increased by 25.5%.

## 4.2.2 Wh-questions

As already stated, the part of the research devoted to the analysis of wh-words and wh-questions will focus on the construction of wh-questions introduced by wh-words. Tests (pre-test and post-test) included the use of the following wh-words in wh-questions, namely *what*, *where*, *why*, *who*, *when*, *what*, and *how*.

### 4.2.2.1 Pre-test phase

The pre-test was composed of 10 declarative sentences. Certain parts of each sentence were underlined so that the participants were supposed to make questions, thus beginning each question with the wh- word given.

Table 7 gives an overview of 10 declarative sentences given in the pre-test, together with the wh-words that are the subject of this research. Those parts of the sentence for which the respondents were supposed to make questions are bolded in the table, thus starting each question with the wh- word given.

*Table 7. An Overview of pretest sentences and wh-words (questions)*

PRETEST SENTENCES	WH-WORD
She always says <u>that</u> .	What
Tourists usually come here <u>because they love our country</u> .	Why
My brother works in <u>a car wash</u> .	Where
<u>He</u> lives in London.	Who
You put the key into the <u>red</u> drawer.	Which
My colleague comes from <u>Italy</u> .	Where
She visits <u>Mediterranean</u> cities twice a year.	Which
She travels to work <u>on foot</u> .	How
I come here <u>to relax</u> every day.	Why
<u>My friends</u> have a great respect for nature. They are ecologically aware.	Who



On the basis of the above examples, without any previous teaching, the respondents were not expected to make all ten questions. No particular instructions regarding the formation of the wh-questions were given. However, before the beginning of the test, the instructor checked with respondents whether everything was clear and whether the test could be accessed.

The teacher facilitated the formation of questions in a way that the words that were making up the question were arranged in an irregular order. Teacher provided this information to the respondents, as well.

### PRE-TEST

**Example sentence:** Her boss loves chocolate. **What/ her/does/boss/love/do** ⇨ **What does her boss love?**

1. She always says that.

What/ she/ say/ does/ always/ do

---

2. Tourists usually come here because they love our country.

Why/ tourists/ does/ do/ usually/ come/ here/

---

3. My brother works in a car wash.

Where/ your brother/ work/ does /do

---

4. He lives in London.

Who/ in/ does/ London/ lives/ do

---

5. You put the key into the red drawer.

Which/ do/ you/ drawer/ the key/ put/ in/ does

---

6. My colleague comes from Italy.

Where/ your/ does/ come from/ do/ colleague

---

7. She visits Mediterranean cities twice a year.

Which/ does/ she/ cities/ twice a year/ do/ visit

---

8. She travels to work on foot.

How/ to work/ she/ does/ travel/ do

---

9. I come here to relax every day.

Why/ here/ come/ do/ every day/ does/ you

---

10. My friends have a great respect for nature. They are ecologically aware.

Who/ a great respect/ for nature/ has

---

Pre-test tested 10 learners of the control group as well as 10 learners of the experimental group. Respondents gave responses to 10 sentences, and a total of 196 responses were received, since 4 respondents from control group did not respond in 4 cases in the second task of the pre-test.

Table 8 shows the 3 types of sentence mentioned above, determined on the basis of the wh-word function in them, and the exact form for each pre-test declarative sentence.

*Table 8. Defining the type of the sentences in the pre-test*

<b>TYPE OF WH-QUESTION</b>	<b>SENTENCE IN THE PRE-TEST</b>	<b>CORRECT WH-QUESTION</b>
<b>TYPE 1</b>	She always says <u>that</u> .	What does she always say?
	Tourists usually come here <u>because they love our country</u> .	Why do tourists usually come here?
	My brother works in <u>a car wash</u> .	Where does your brother work?

She visits <u>Mediterranean</u> cities twice a year.	Which cities does she visit twice a year?
She travels to work <u>on foot</u> .	How does she travel to work?
I come here <u>to relax</u> every day.	Why do you come here every day?

**TYPE 2 - WH-SUBJECT QUESTIONS**

<u>He</u> lives in London.	Who lives in London?
<u>My friends</u> have a great respect for nature. They are ecologically aware.	Who has a great respect for nature?

**TYPE 3 - PREPOSITIONAL VERBS**

You put the key into the <u>red</u> drawer.	Which drawer do you put the key into?
My colleague comes from <u>Italy</u> .	Where does your colleague come from?

The following table illustrates the results of the pre-test responses in the experimental group.

*Table 9. Experimental group: Pre-test findings*

Declarative sentence	Response	Experimental group	Experimental group (%)	Type of wh - question
She always says <u>that</u> .	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
Tourists usually come here	Correct	1	10%	TYPE 1

<u>because they love our country.</u>	Incorrect	9	90%	
My brother works in <u>a car wash.</u>	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
She visits <u>Mediterranean</u> cities	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
twice a year.	Incorrect	8	80%	
She travels to work <u>on foot.</u>	Correct	1	10%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	9	90%	
I come here <u>to relax</u> every day.	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
<u>He</u> lives in London.	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	6	60%	
<u>My friends</u> have a great respect	Correct	5	50%	TYPE 2
for nature. They are ecologically	Incorrect	5	50%	
aware.				
You put the key into the <u>red</u>	Correct	0	0%	TYPE 3
drawer.	Incorrect	10	100%	
My colleague comes from <u>Italy.</u>	Correct	1	10%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	9	90%	

Table 9 shows that the percentage of incorrect responses varies between 50% and 100%. The greatest percentage of incorrect responses was noticed in the sentence *You put the key into the red drawer*, which belongs to the Type 3 sentences. It was expected for learners to have difficulties in the formation of this type of question since the word order differs from the word order in BCS. In BSC, while making a question of this type, preposition is placed at the beginning of a sentence. However, in English, this type of question ends with a preposition. This consequently led to the emergence of errors in the formation of question in English because of the influence of a negative transfer from L1 into FL. Therefore, the correct question word order is *Which drawer do you put the key into?* instead of direct translation

from BCS into English \*Into which drawer do you put the key? Negative transfer caused the adaptation of question from BCS into English based on the BCS instead of the English grammar rules. Learners applied and relied on the rules of their own mother tongue and activated the experience of previously acquired language while producing foreign language structures.

Table 10 shows the results of the response from the pre-test for the control group.

*Table 10. Control group: Pre-test findings*

Declarative sentence	Response	Control group	Control group (%)	Type of wh - question
She always says <u>that</u> .	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
Tourists usually come here <u>because they love our country</u> .	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
My brother works in <u>a car wash</u> .	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	6	60%	
She visits <u>Mediterranean</u> cities twice a year.	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
She travels to work <u>on foot</u> .	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
I come here <u>to relax</u> every day.	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
<u>He</u> lives in London.	Correct	6	60%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	4	40%	
<u>My friends</u> have a great respect for nature. They are ecologically aware.	Correct	7	70%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	3	30%	
You put the key into the <u>red</u>	Correct	0	0%	TYPE 3

drawer.	Incorrect	9	90%	
	No response	1	10%	
My colleague comes from <u>Italy</u> .	Correct	0	0%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	7	70%	
	No response	3	30%	

---

As well as in experimental group, the biggest challenge for learners in control group was the sentence *You put the key into the red drawer*. The learners of the control group responded to this task with 90% incorrect responses.

The overall percentage of the choice of correct and incorrect response for each type of wh-questions in both groups is presented in the following graph.

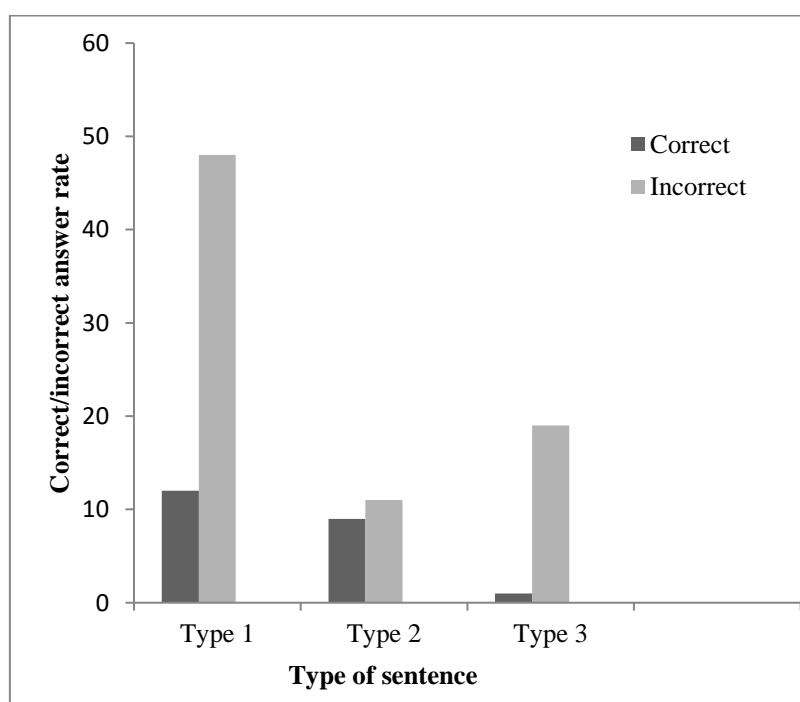
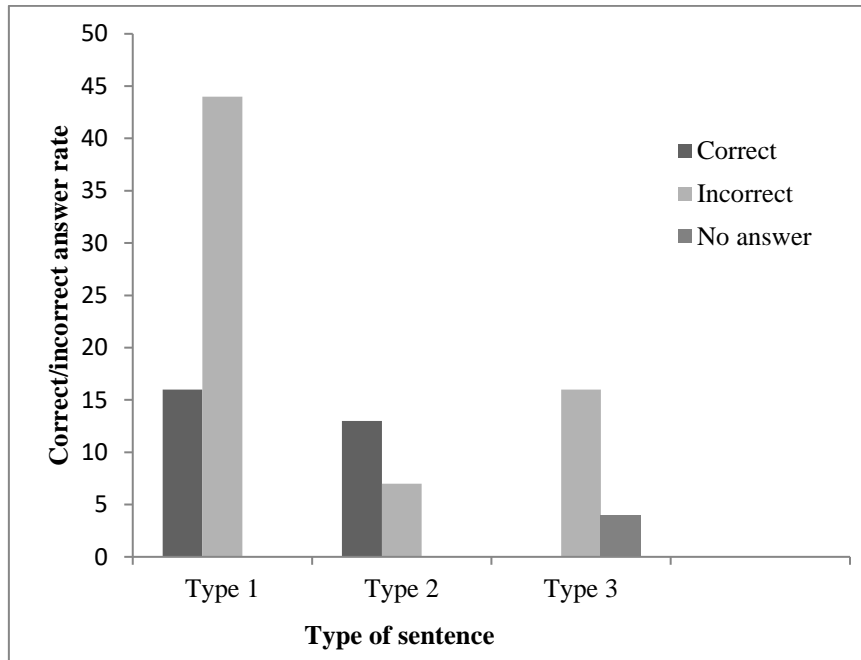


Figure 7. The overall percentage of correct and incorrect responses for each type of wh-questions in both groups

In the experimental group after the pre-test, the highest number of correct responses was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 45%, followed by Type 1, i.e. 20%, while Type 3 had only, i.e. 5% of correct responses.

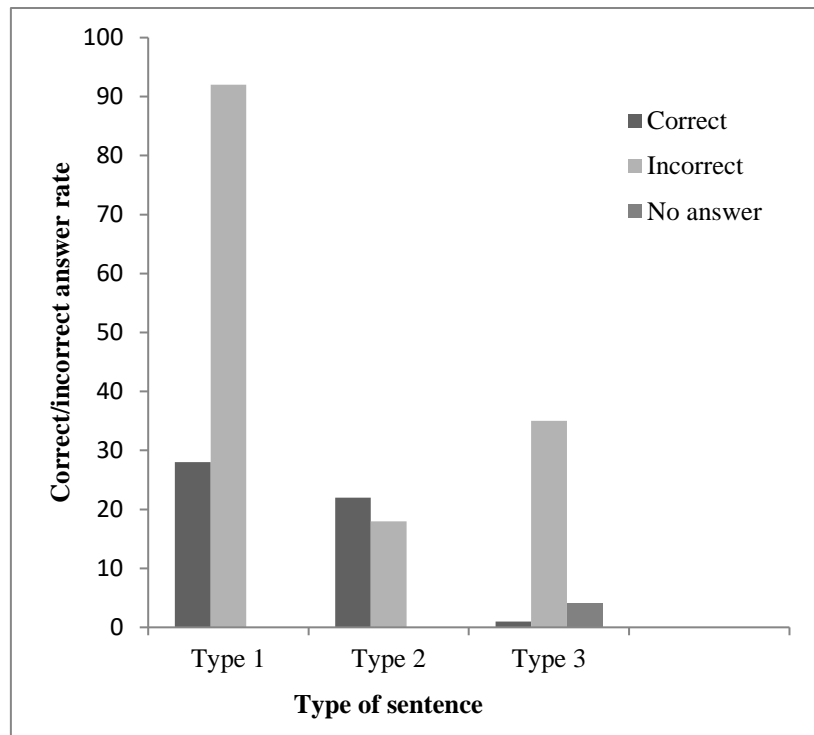


*Figure 8.* The percentage of correct and incorrect response for each type of wh-questions in experimental group after the pre-test

On the other hand, same as in the experimental group, , the highest number of accurate responses in the control group after the pre-test was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 65%, followed by Type 1, i.e. 26.7%, while Type 3 recorded 0% of correct responses.

It is also important to mention that the control group was slightly more successful in giving correct responses to Type 1 and Type 2 wh-questions than the experimental group, while in the case of Type 3 wh-questions, almost 100% of the incorrect responses were recorded in both groups.

Also, for the relevance of this study, the results of the pre-test in terms of the choice of correct and incorrect response for each type of wh-questions in both groups are summarized. This is presented in the following graph.



*Figure 9.* The percentage of correct, incorrect, and no answer for each type of wh-questions in both groups after the pre-test

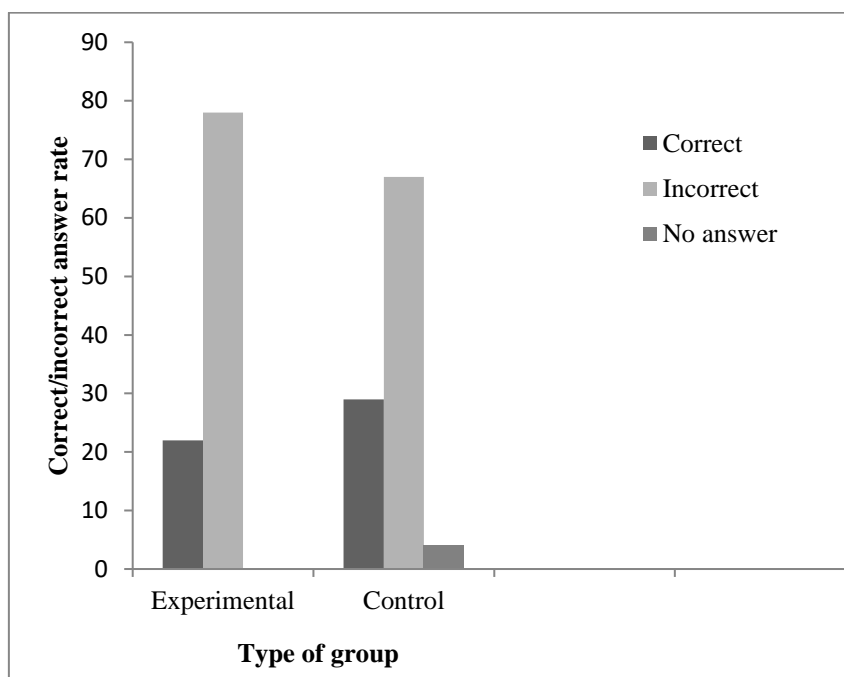
For Type 1, the correct response was given in 23.3% of all sentences, while incorrect response was recorded in 76.7%. For Type 2, 55% of all sentences were correct, and 45% of them incorrect. For Type 3, 2.5% of all sentences were correct, and even 72.5% of them incorrect, while the percent of unanswered questions was 2%.

In the overall ratio of both groups after the pre-test, the highest number of accurate responses was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 55%, followed by Type 1, i.e. 23.3%, and at least Type 3, i.e. 2.5%.

The percentage of inaccurate responses was expected to be higher than the results in analyzing the plural of nouns. It amounted to 78% in the experimental group and 67% in the control group. In the total number of responses, taking both groups into account, the percentage of incorrect responses was 72.5%. Therefore, we can conclude that the learners of the experimental group have less successfully answered the given sentences. It is also important to note that the learners of the experimental group answered 100% of all questions, with 22% correct and 78% incorrect responses, while the control group learners had even



unanswered questions, and the results were 29% correct, 67% incorrect, and 4% of unanswered questions. We can see this in the following graph.



*Figure 10.* The percentage of correct, incorrect, and no answer for each type of wh-questions for both groups in total after the pre-test

As the graph shows, the total number of correct responses in the experimental group was 22%, while the control group recorded a larger number of correct responses, i.e. 29%. In the total ratio of both groups, only 25.5 % responses were correct, there were 72.5% of incorrect responses, and 2% of sentences without an answer.

#### **4.2.2.2 Treatment phase**

The treatment phase in the second month of research included the explicit teaching of the wh-questions in experimental group. Learners of experimental group received additional explanations and input from the teacher in terms of the grammatical forms that were the subject of a two-month research. On the other hand, the control group was subjected to implicit strategies of unconscious language learning of the wh-questions during the second month. Learners did not receive instructions on target wh-questions unlike experimental group. Implicit teaching strategies should enable learners a fluent production of linguistic

material, focusing on the message, not on the understanding of the processes and rules of the language being learned.

#### **4.2.2.2.1 Control group during the treatment phase**

During the second month of the survey, (8 classes), the theme of wh-questions was implicitly taught in class. The classes covered the practical and unconscious use of wh-words *what, where, why, who, when, what, and how*. The analysis of these nouns was conducted implicitly, that is without instructions, in order for learners not to focus on the form, but to the unconscious acquisition of the English language. The focus was on speaking activities, as well as on listening and interactive activities. Each class, teacher would first provide learners a simple short video clip, audio record or dialogue consisting of Wh-questions. Learners would listen to those excerpts carefully. Then, teacher would ask learners the questions using Wh-question structure in order for them to memorize these structures subconsciously. In first class, teacher focused on introducing Wh-word *where* by using audio and video material. Some of the questions in the first class were, as follows:

- (1) *Where do the famous people eat?*
- (2) *Where does Mr. Bean live?*
- (3) *Where do celebrities invest their money?*

Learners would respond to teacher's questions with short, simple responses. For example, the answer to the first question was *In expensive restaurants*. Teacher would then expand the answer by providing the full sentence, which was repeated by the learners.

Additionally, teacher would initiate the interaction between learners by a warm-up game on learner's personality and habits. Each learner would ask his/her pair one Wh-question. Some of the questions in the first class were, as follows:

- (4) *Where do you buy your clothes?*
- (5) *Where do you go out?*
- (6) *Where do you go to gym with your friends?*

The other learner would respond to the question briefly with the help and correction of teacher, if necessary. Then, the other learner would ask one Wh-question his/her pair. Teacher would additionally check whether learners understand the meaning of certain question and explain it in English if necessary. Although learners had great difficulties with these structures, listening and repetition influenced their memorization and relative acquisition of Wh-question structure.

The aim of the research in the control group was to shift the attention from grammar, that is, language forms in general, to meaning, and enable communication. The focus was on the active use of language instead of the accumulation of the knowledge of grammar without the practical application of it.

#### **4.2.2.2.2 Experimental group during the treatment phase**

The experimental group received explanation of grammatical, more precisely, morphosyntactic rules and the way in which they function.

During the second month, the experimental group learned about thematic unit wh-questions with special attention to wh-words. The first 30 minutes of the first 8 classes was devoted to the explicit interpretation of wh-questions, wh-words, and word order in the English language.

Teacher introduced and presented one Wh-word per class by PPP or whiteboard. Each Wh-word would be defined, explained and translated into BCS. In order to explain the difference between BCS and English questions rules, teacher would provide five examples of declarative sentences in BCS for each Wh-word, followed by their interrogative form. Teacher would translate the sentence from BCS into English and explained how word order in BCS and English differ by the parallel comparison of the provided sentences. Teacher would provide the explanation of the difference between three types of Wh-questions by emphasizing the similarities and differences between BCS and English. Teacher's intention was to build the knowledge on Wh-questions in English based on positive transfer from BCS. Those structures that were different from BCS and slightly more difficult, such as Wh-prepositional verb questions, were supposed to be learned by heart. Teacher provided three

examples in BCS for each sentence using various Wh-words and translated them into English literally. Teacher explained the difference between them by comparing the word order of the original sentence in BCS and the translation in English, using removable paper sticks on the whiteboard. Since teacher translated them literally first, paper sticks were moved in accordance with the correct word order in English afterwards. Then, teacher would translate three Wh-questions from English to BCS per each class. Lastly, two learners would translate one question from BCS into English, and one Wh-question from English into BCS per class with the help of teacher, if necessary. For example, teacher started this research by introducing the Wh-word *where* by PPP. Teacher gave the definition, as well as its meaning in English, followed by its translation in BCS. Then, three sentences followed by their interrogative form were provided on white board based on which teacher explained the difference between BCS and English questions rules. These were: I am here. (BCS: *Ja sam ovdje.*) Where are you? (BCS: *Gdje si ti?*), My cousins make cakes in the house. (BCS: *Moji rođaci prave kolače kod kuće.*) Where do my cousins make cakes? (BCS: *Gdje moji rođaci prave kolače?*), and He goes to school every morning. (BCS: *On ide u školu svako jutro.*) Where does he go every morning? (BCS: *Gdje on ide svako jutro?*) Teacher used stick papers onto which each word of the sentence was written separately. By using stick papers, teacher explained that, for example, in the third sentence in BCS, when translated into English (*He goes to school every morning*), the word order remained exactly the same.

*On ide u školu svako jutro.*  
*He goes to school every morning.*

Thus, positive transfer in word order emerged and influenced the easier acquisition of English translation of this declarative sentence.

However, its interrogative form was slightly different in word order. The original sentence *Gdje on ide svako jutro?* was intentionally literally translated first as *\*Where he goes every morning?* in order for teacher to visually present the difference in word order of BCS original sentence and its English translation.

*Gdje on ide svako jutro?*  
*\*Where he goes every morning?*

Then, teacher would put additional stick papers in eye-catching pink color on the board to introduce *do* and *does* in order to make the interrogative form of the sentence. These parts of speech were written in capital letters in order for learners to memorize these grammar rules easier.

*Gdje*      *X*      *on*      *ide*      *svako*      *jutro?*  
*Where*      *DOES*      *he*      *go*      *every*      *morning?*

Teacher explained how original BCS interrogative sentence and its translation into English do have a different word order, which assumes negative transfer from mother tongue. Teacher tried to visually emphasize the difference between BCS and English word order of these sentences by emphasizing the parts of speech by color and capital letters. Then, teacher would translate three Wh-questions from English to BCS per each class. Lastly, two learners would translate one question from BCS into English, and one Wh-question from English into BCS per class with the help of teacher, if necessary.

Even though control and experimental group were separated by having classes in building A for experimental group on Monday and Wednesday, and building B for control group on Tuesday and Thursday, in order for teacher to prevent the discussion on the subject of the research, teacher decided for learners to leave their books and materials on Wh-questions in class.

Therefore, in the next chapter, we present the post-test results.

#### **4.2.2.3 Post-test phase**

After the treatment phase on contrastive differences between BCS and English, the fourth phase - the testing phase of the experimental and control group by a delayed post-test followed to determine the possible progress in acquiring knowledge after two-month intensive work on identifying and acquisition the differences between given languages.

As already said, experimental group had 30 minutes of lectures each class during the first month on grammar forms in BCS,, more precisely on contrastive differences between BCS and English, before taking post-test. The respondents of this group were instructed to

pay attention to the type of wh-questions, and to recall the word order when forming wh-questions in English.

In control group, the post-test was distributed without any prior instructions and lectures. They were instructed only to fill the blank space with given words below the sentence in the second task of the post-test. The list of sentences in the post-test was given without an example sentence above the exercise, while the suggestions for making the wh-questions are represented below.

### POST-TEST

1. He usually goes there. Where/ he/ goes/ does/ usually/  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Our friends visit Bosnia because it has a lot of nature. Why/ do/Bosnia/ visit/ our friends/  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Her father swims in an Olympic pool. Where/ her father/ swim/ does /  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. She goes to gym on foot. How/ to gym/ she/ does/ go/  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. We travel to Turkey to experience something new every year. Why/ to Turkey/ travel/ do/ every year/ we/  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. /I visit Italian restaurants twice a year. Which/ do/ I/ restaurants/ twice a year/ visit/  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. They believe everything. Who/ believes/ everything/  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. My family has three mansions. Who/ three mansions/ has/  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. You usually put your clothes onto the white sofa. Which/ do/ you/ sofa/ your clothes/ put/ onto/  
\_\_\_\_\_
10. My wife comes from Bulgaria. Where/ your/ does/ come from/ wife/  
\_\_\_\_\_

In Table 11, the sentences are arranged according to the type for easier overview and analysis. The table also shows the correct form of the wh-question for each statement, in order to refer to all other incorrect responses.

*Table 11. Defining the type of wh-question in the post-test*

TYPE OF WH-QUESTION	SENTENCE IN THE POST-TEST	CORRECT WH-QUESTION
<b>TYPE 1</b>	He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Where does he usually go?
	Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because it has a lot of nature</u> .	Why do our friends visit Bosnia?
	Her father swims in <u>an Olympic pool</u> .	Where does her father swim?
	I visit <u>Italian</u> restaurants twice a year.	Which restaurants do I visit twice a year?
	She goes to gym <u>on foot</u> .	How does she go to gym?
	We travel to Turkey <u>to experience something new</u> every year.	Why do you travel to Turkey every year?
<b>TYPE 2 - WH-SUBJECT QUESTION</b>	<u>They</u> believe everything.	Who believes everything?
	<u>My family</u> has three mansions.	Who has three mansions?
<b>TYPE 3</b>	- You usually put your clothes	Which sofa do you usually put

**PREPOSITIONAL  
VERB**

onto the white sofa.

your clothes onto?

My wife comes from Bulgaria.

Where does your wife come  
from?

The following Table 12 illustrates the results of the response from the post-test for the experimental group.

*Table 12. Experimental group: Post-test results per each sentence*

Declarative sentence	Response	Experimental group	Experimental group (%)	Type of wh - question
He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because</u> <u>it has a lot of nature</u> .	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	6	60%	
Her father swims in <u>an Olympic</u> <u>pool</u> .	Correct	6	60%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	4	40%	
I visit <u>Italian</u> restaurants twice a year.	Correct	5	50%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	5	50%	
She goes to gym <u>on foot</u> .	Correct	6	60%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	4	40%	
We travel to Turkey <u>to</u> <u>experience something new</u> every year.	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	6	60%	
<u>They</u> believe everything.	Correct	7	70%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	3	30%	
<u>My family</u> has three mansions.	Correct	8	80%	TYPE 2



	Incorrect	2	20%	
You usually put your clothes onto the <u>white</u> sofa.	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	6	60%	
My wife comes from <u>Bulgaria</u> .	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	6	60%	

After receiving instructions, the experimental group improved to a great extent in the acquisition of wh-words. However, the sentence *He usually goes there* had the greatest percentage of incorrect responses, 70% of them, which belongs to the Type 1.

Table 13 shows the results of the response from the pre-test for the control group.

*Table 13. Control group: Post-test results per each sentence*

Declarative sentence	Response	Control group	Control group %	Type of wh - question
He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because</u> <u>it has a lot of nature</u> .	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
Her father swims in <u>an Olympic</u> <u>pool</u> .	Correct	4	40%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	6	60%	
I visit <u>Italian</u> restaurants twice a year.	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	8	80%	
She goes to gym <u>on foot</u> .	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	7	70%	
We travel to Turkey <u>to</u> <u>experience something new</u> every year.	Correct	1	10%	TYPE 1
	Incorrect	9	90%	

<u>They</u> believe everything.	Correct	6	60%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	4	40%	
<u>My family</u> has three mansions.	Correct	7	70%	TYPE 2
	Incorrect	3	30%	
You usually put your clothes onto the <u>white</u> sofa.	Correct	2	20%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	8	80%	
My wife comes from <u>Bulgaria</u> .	Correct	3	30%	TYPE 3
	Incorrect	7	70%	

---

After the treatment phase, the control group improved to a great extent in the acquisition of wh-words. However, the Type 1 sentence *We travel to Turkey to experience something new every year* had the greatest percentage of incorrect responses.

The overall percentage of the choice of the correct and incorrect response for each type of wh-questions in both groups individually is shown in the following graph.

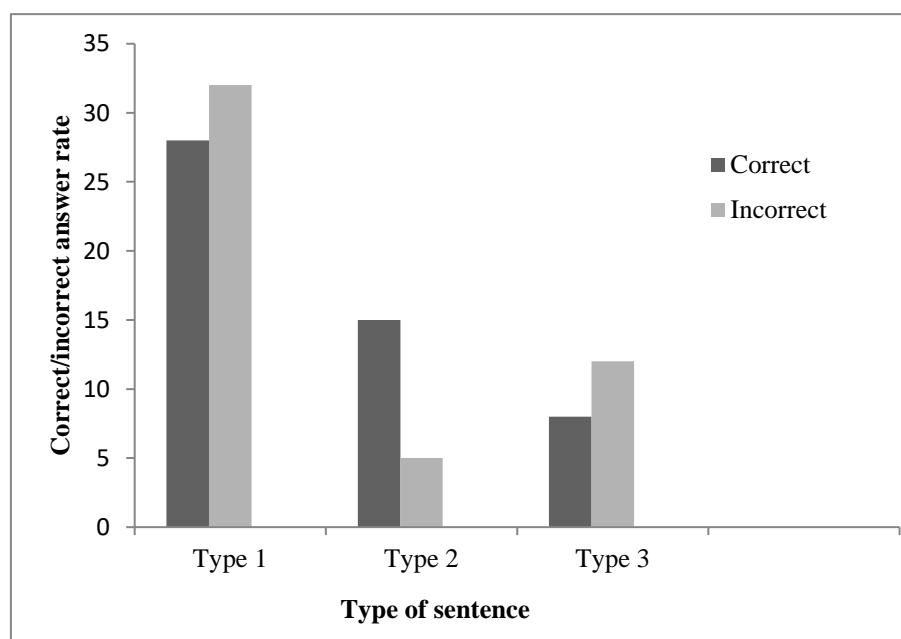


Figure 11. The overall percentage of correct and incorrect responses for each type of wh-questions in both groups individually

In the post-test in the experimental group, the highest number of correct responses was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 75%, followed by Type 1, i.e. 46.7%, and least in Type 3, i.e. 40%.

As in the experimental group, the highest number of correct responses in the control group after the post-test was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 65%. The percentage of correct responses for Type 1 and Type 3 was the same, i.e. 25%. The experimental group with 51% correct responses was much more successful in giving correct responses in the post-test than the control group which had 33% of correct responses.

The results of the pre-test in terms of the choice of the correct and incorrect response for each type of wh-questions in both groups are illustrated in the following graph.

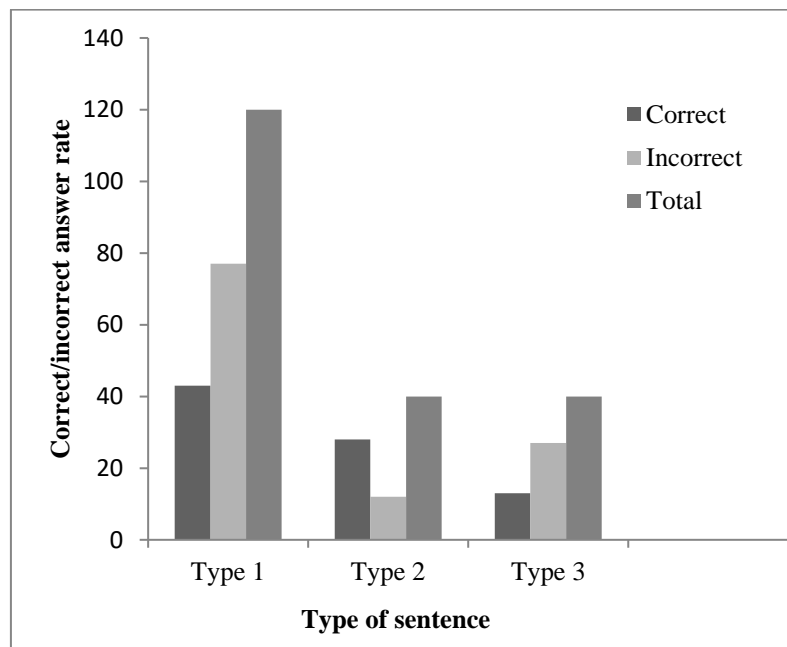


Figure 12. The percentage of the choice of the correct, incorrect and total response for each type of wh-questions in both groups after the pre-test

The significance of this data is reflected through the negative transfer influence in the acquisition of the three types of Wh-question. Namely, while answering to Type 1 Wh-questions, according to the results, learners had difficulties in the formation of questions in English since they relied on the knowledge of their mother tongue. While making the question for the sentence *He usually goes there*, whose correct interrogative form is *Where does he usually go?*, learners were mostly making errors in omitting an auxiliary verb *do*, which is caused by the lack of that grammatical element in BCS. The word order of the sentence in

English was also transferred from BCS, which contributed to the easier acquisition of this structure. However, in Type 2 Wh-subject questions, as a result of the positive transfer from BCS, learners mostly answered to this task successfully. While making the question for the sentence *My family has three mansions*, learners mostly answered correct. Positive transfer of word order from BCS into English is evident in Type 2 W-subject questions, since learners' most common answer was *Who has three mansions?* In Type 3 Wh-questions with prepositional verb, most answers were incorrect, which is the consequence of literal translation of the word order from BCS into English, as well as because of the lack of prepositional verbs in BCS. The correct interrogative form of the sentence *My wife comes from Bulgaria* was *Where does your wife come from?*. However, learners had great difficulty while making this question because of the direct translation, that is, negative transfer from BCS into English.

For Type 1, 35.8% of sentences were correct, while 64.2% of them were incorrect. For Type 2, 70% of sentences were correct, while 30% of them were incorrect. For Type 3, 32.5% responses were correct, and 67.5% of them were incorrect.

In the overall ratio of both groups after the post-test, the highest number of correct responses was recorded in Type 2, i.e. 70%, Type 1 followed by 35.8%, while Type 3 has only 32.5% of correct responses.

The percentage of correct responses in the experimental group was 51%, and in the control group it was 33%. In the total number of responses, the percentage of correct responses was 42% (both groups). The learners of the experimental group successfully answered the given sentences, having more than 50% correct responses, which is 9% more correct responses than the control group. We can see this in the following graph.

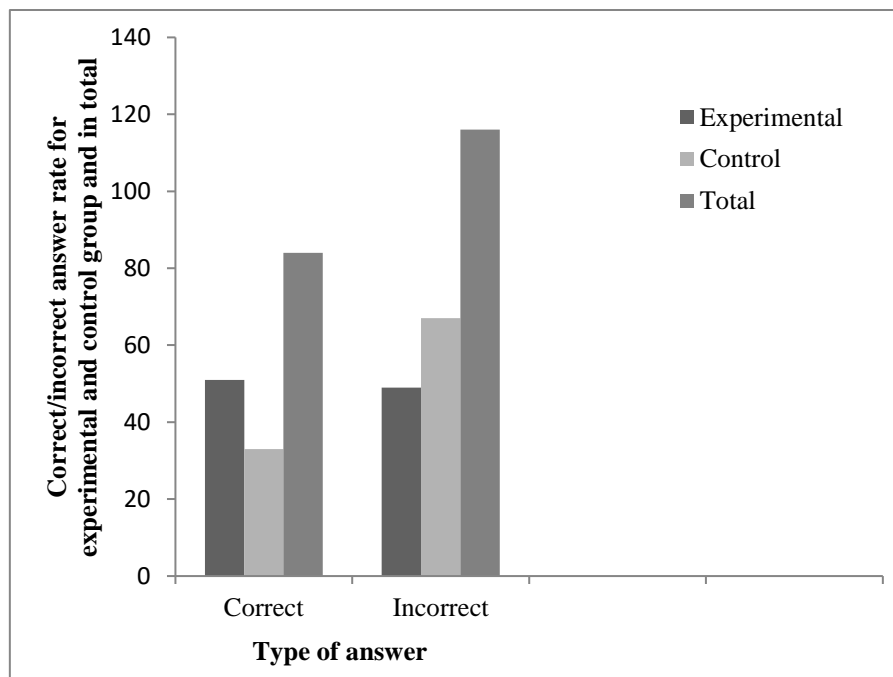


Figure 13. The percentage of correct, incorrect and total responses for each type of wh-questions for both groups after the pre-test

Thus, we can conclude from the graph that in the overall ratio of both groups, 42% of responses were correct, while 58% of them were incorrect.

In the following Table 14, these results are shown in more details.

Table 14. Post-test experimental vs control group

Declarative sentence	Response	Experimental Group (10)	Experimental group (%)	Control Group (10)	Control group (%)	Total	Total (%)
He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Correct	3	30%	2	20%	5	25%
	Incorrect	7	70%	8	80%	15	75%
Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because it has a lot of nature</u> .	Correct	4	40%	3	30%	7	35%
	Incorrect	6	60%	7	70%	13	65%
Her father swims in	Correct	6	60%	4	40%	10	50%

<u>an Olympic pool.</u>	Incorrect	4	40%	6	60%	10	50%
I visit <u>Italian</u>	Correct	5	50%	2	20%	7	35%
restaurants twice a year.	Incorrect	5	50%	8	80%	13	65%
She goes to gym <u>on</u>	Correct	6	60%	3	30%	9	45%
<u>foot.</u>	Incorrect	4	40%	7	70%	11	55%
We travel to Turkey	Correct	4	40%	1	10%	5	25%
<u>to experience</u>	Incorrect	6	60%	9	90%	15	75%
<u>something new</u> every year.							
<u>They</u> believe	Correct	7	70%	6	60%	13	65%
everything.	Incorrect	3	30%	4	40%	7	35%
<u>My family</u> has three	Correct	8	80%	7	70%	15	75%
mansions.	Incorrect	2	20%	3	30%	5	25%
You usually put your	Correct	4	40%	2	20%	6	30%
clothes onto the <u>white</u>	Incorrect	6	60%	8	80%	14	70%
sofa.							
My wife comes from	Correct	4	40%	3	30%	7	35%
<u>Bulgaria.</u>	Incorrect	6	60%	7	70%	13	65%

After the treatment phase, the sentences *He usually goes there*, *We travel to Turkey to experience something new every year* and *You usually put your clothes onto the white sofa* had the highest percentage of incorrect responses in both groups.

The following section shows the comparison between pre-test and post test results.

#### 4.2.2.4 Comparison between pre-test and post test results

On the basis of conducted analysis, by the comparison of pre-test and post-test, the systematization of the data is presented in the following table.

Table 15. Experimental group: Pre-test vs Post-test results

Declarative sentence	Response	Pre-test	Pre-test (%)	Post-test	Post-test (%)	Total	Total (%)
He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Correct	2	20%	3	30%	+1	10%
	Incorrect	8	80%	7	70%		
Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because it has a lot of nature</u> .	Correct	1	10%	4	40%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	9	90%	6	60%		
Her father swims in <u>an Olympic pool</u> .	Correct	3	30%	6	60%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	7	70%	4	40%		
I visit <u>Italian</u> restaurants twice a year.	Correct	2	20%	5	50%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	8	80%	5	50%		
She goes to gym <u>on foot</u> .	Correct	1	10%	6	60%	+5	50%
	Incorrect	9	90%	4	40%		
We travel to Turkey <u>to experience something new</u> every year.	Correct	3	30%	4	40%	+1	10%
	Incorrect	7	70%	6	60%		
They believe everything.	Correct	4	40%	7	70%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	6	60%	3	30%		
<u>My family</u> has three mansions.	Correct	5	50%	8	80%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	5	50%	2	20%		
You usually put your clothes onto the <u>white</u> sofa.	Correct	0	0%	4	40%	+4	40%
	Incorrect	10	100%	6	60%		
My wife comes from <u>Bulgaria</u> .	Correct	1	10%	4	40%	+3	30%
	Incorrect	9	90%	6	60%		

After the treatment phase, when compared to the results of the pre-test, the greatest improvement was recorded in sentences *She goes to gym on foot* with 50% correct responses and *You usually put your clothes onto the white sofa* with 40% correct responses more than in pre-test.

In the experimental group the delayed post-test showed a significant improvement in the acquisition of the structure of wh-questions after a two-month period of teaching, as the number of correct responses from the pre-test increased significantly in the post-test after the instruction phase.

The following graph provides an overview of the summarized and compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test.

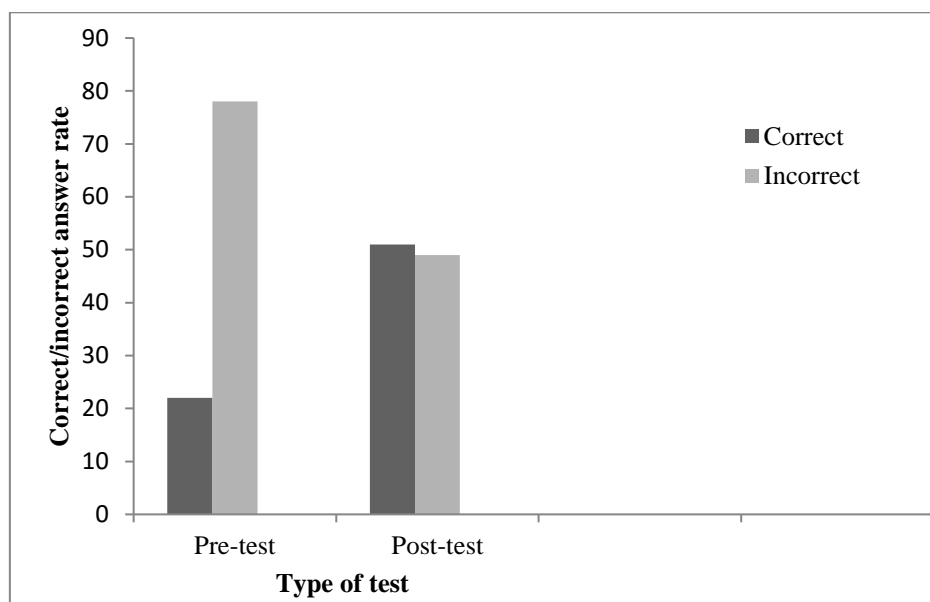


Figure 14. An overview of the summarized and compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test

After a two-month period of research, in the experimental group, the total number of correct responses in the post-test increased from 22 in the pre-test to 51 in the post-test, that is, for 29 responses and 29% respectively.

The following table illustrates the compared detailed pre-test and post-test results for the control group per wh-question.



Table 16. Control group: Pre-test vs Post-test results

Declarative sentence	Response	Pre-test	Pre-test (%)	Post-test	Post-test (%)	Total	Total (%)
He usually goes <u>there</u> .	Correct	2	20%	2	20%	0	0%
	Incorrect	8	80%	8	80%		
Our friends visit Bosnia <u>because it has a lot of nature</u> .	Correct	3	30%	3	30%	0	0%
	Incorrect	7	70%	7	70%		
Her father swims in <u>an Olympic pool</u> .	Correct	4	40%	4	40%	0	0%
	Incorrect	6	60%	6	60%		
I visit <u>Italian</u> restaurants twice a year.	Correct	2	20%	2	20%	0	0%
	Incorrect	8	80%	8	80%		
She goes to gym <u>on foot</u> .	Correct	2	20%	3	30%	+1	10%
	Incorrect	8	80%	7	70%		
We travel to Turkey <u>to experience something new</u> every year.	Correct	3	30%	1	10%	-2	-20%
	Incorrect	7	70%	9	90%		
<u>They</u> believe everything.	Correct	6	60%	6	60%	0	0%
	Incorrect	4	40%	4	40%		
<u>My family</u> has three mansions.	Correct	7	70%	7	70%	0	0%
	Incorrect	3	30%	3	30%		
You usually put your clothes onto the <u>white</u> sofa.	Correct	0	0%	2	20%	+2	20%
	Incorrect	9	90%	8	80%		
My wife comes from <u>Bulgaria</u> .	Correct	1	10%	3	30%	+2	20%
	Incorrect	0	0%	7	70%		

In control group, the results of the post-test showed that the greatest improvement was recorded in sentences *You usually put your clothes onto the white sofa* and *My wife comes from Bulgaria*, while the sentence *We travel to Turkey to experience something new every year* recorded regression of 20%.

In the control group, as it was expected, slow progress was made in the acquisition of correct grammatical structure in the formation of wh-questions after the instruction phase. However, this progress is significant because it points to the fact that apart from the direct method of teaching the contrastive differences between BCS and English, the acquisition of languages is also influenced by a communicative approach in teaching, which was the case with the control group whose classes included a range of interactive exercises.

The graph below provides an illustration of the summarized and compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test.

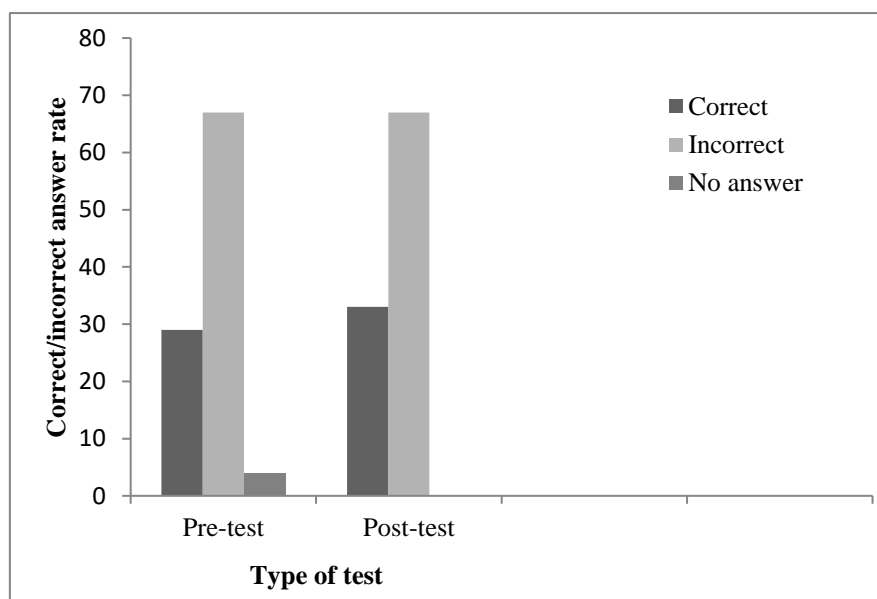


Figure 15. The summarized and compared results of the experimental group between pre-test and post-test

After a two-month treatment period, in the control group, the total number of correct responses increased from 29 in the pre-test to 33 in the post-test, which is 4 responses more and 4% respectively.

The following graph illustrates the compared results of the pre-test and post-test in both groups in total.

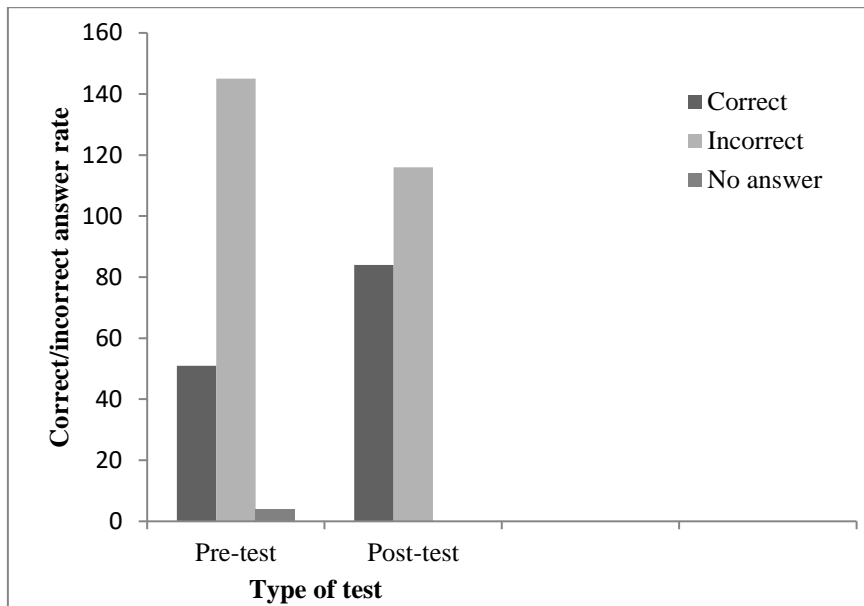


Figure 16. The compared results of the pre-test and post-test in both groups in total

After the treatment phase, that is, after comparing the results of the pre-test and post-test results, it was established that the percentage of correct responses in both groups increased from 25,5% in the pre-test to 42% in the post-test, i.e., 16.5% responses more.

The following graph summarizes the progress of the control and experimental group after the instruction phase.

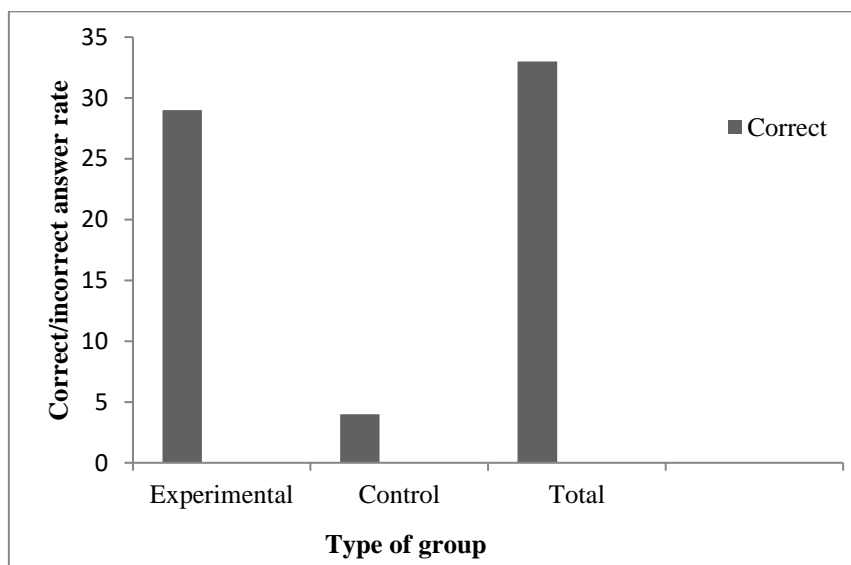
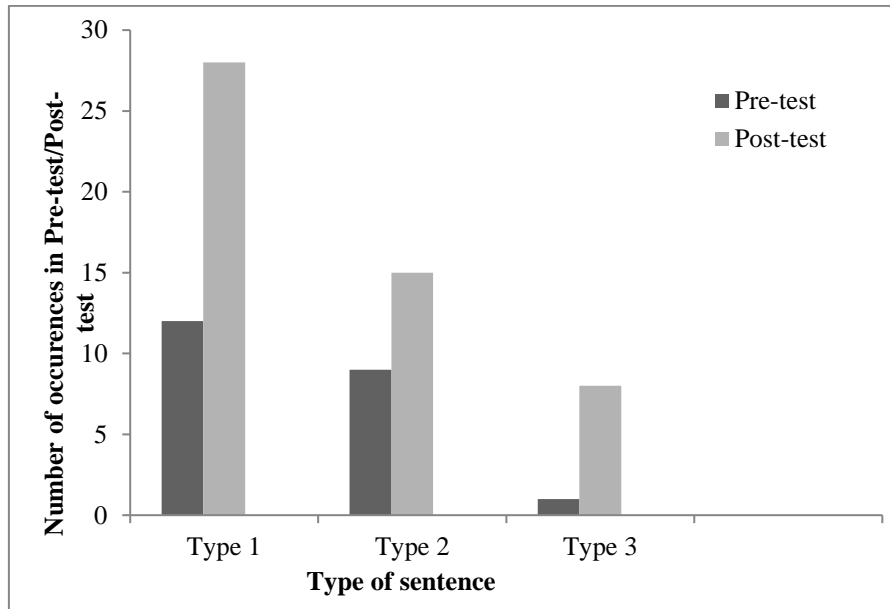


Figure 17. The percentage of the progress for both groups after the post-test

It is evident from the graph above that the progress recorded in the post-test in the experimental group was 29%, while the control group progressed by 4%. Thus, the progress of both groups in total reached 16.5%.



*Figure 18.* The percentage of the progress for the experimental group for each type of wh-questions after the post-test

The graph above shows that in the experimental group, in Type 1 wh-questions, progress has been made in acquiring this structure because in the post-test there were 26.7% of correct responses more than in the pre-test. For Type 2, the percentage of correct responses grew by 30%, and Type 3 by 35%. From this, we can conclude that in the experimental group, the highest increase in correct responses in post-test in relation to the pre-test was recorded in Type 3, following Type 2, and finally Type 1.

The graph below illustrates the results of the control group.

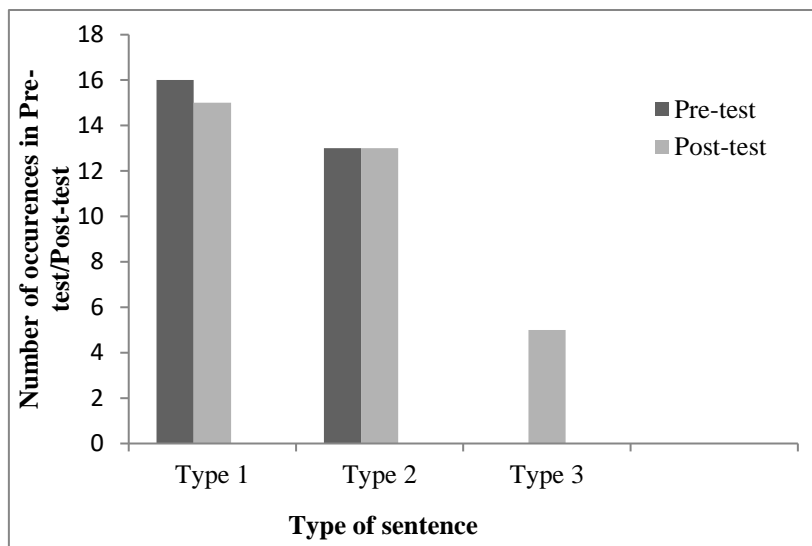


Figure 19. The percentage of the progress for the control group for each type of wh-questions after the post-test

In the control group, in Type 1 wh-questions, a slight regression was recorded in the acquisition of this structure because in post-test there was 1.7% of incorrect responses more than in the pre-test, i.e. For Type 2, the percentage of correct responses remained the same after the post-test. For Type 3, the percentage of correct responses increased by 25%. From this we conclude that in the control group the increase in correct post-test responses compared to the pre-test was recorded only in Type 3.

The following graph shows the percentage of progress in the acquisition of the structure of Wh-questions in both groups after the post-test.

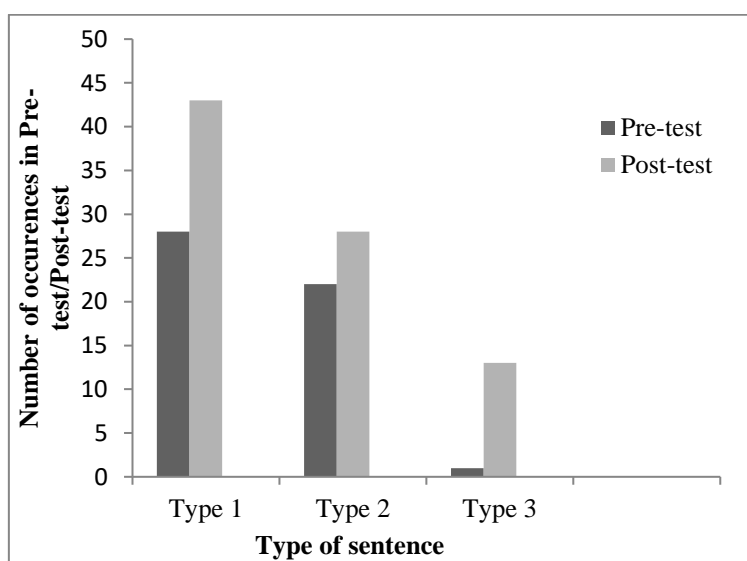


Figure 20. The percentage of the progress in the acquisition of the structure of Wh-questions in both groups after the post-test

The graph above shows that in Type 1, in the post-test there was 12.5% of correct responses more than in the pre-test. For Type 2, the percentage of correct responses increased by 15% after the post-test. For Type 3, the percentage of correct responses increased by 30%. In both groups, the percentage of correct responses in the post-test compared to the pre-test was highest in Type 3, i.e. 30%, followed by Type 2, i.e. 15%, while Type 1 recorded the least percentage, i.e. 12.5 %.

### **4.3 Qualitative data results**

In this chapter, we consider the possible reasons for making errors by the respondents, and, in their opinion, whether they have made progress after a two-month period of research in the acquisition of grammar with the use of contrastive differences in the teaching process. Qualitative data were obtained on the basis of the conducted interview.

#### **4.3.1. Interview and the transcript of the recorded material**

As we have already stated, out of 20 learners who filled in tests (pre-test and post-test) only 6 of them decided to participate in the face-to-face semi-structured interview in order to give their opinion and share their stories. The interview questions were created by the author. The interview was composed of 12 questions related to the sources of making mistakes, especially referring to MT as a source of error and the use of CA in adult ESL classroom. Interview was conducted in B/C/S to assure a relaxed atmosphere and to enable the participants to clearly and fully express their opinion. The interviews lasted for approximately 15 minutes per each respondent and were recorded with the permission of the participants. They were conducted in the conference room of the Raiffeisen bank. The interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and those transcriptions provided the source for qualitative analysis. The participants were number coded to ensure confidentiality. 4 respondents were from the control group, and only 2 from the experimental group.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and analyzed by each question from the interview. Interviews were analyzed to reveal common threads and patterns emerging from the interview questions, with the opportunity to select, reconstruct, and reflect upon their experience.

The interview starts with a basic warm-up question to get to know the participants, and the actual interview (translated into English) is presented below:

## INTERVIEW FORM

Hello. As you know, we are currently in a research phase. I'm conducting this interview as a part of my master's thesis analysis of the use of CA in foreign language classroom with adult learners. Thank you for your participation. All information and responses will be kept anonymous, so no one will be able to detect your identity.

1. What is your birthplace (country)?
2. What is your mother tongue?
3. How old were you when you started to learn English?
4. What other language(s) do you speak?
5. Do you like English?
6. Do you use English only at work?
7. In your opinion, what is the hardest thing about learning English? Is it grammar, reading, speaking, writing, or listening?
8. How is grammar practiced in the classroom?
9. Do you think your mother tongue is an important factor when your teacher is giving a lesson in grammar? How and why?
10. Did you notice any advancement after the two-month research phase? Describe briefly.
11. Are you worried about making errors? In your opinion, what is the main reason you are making errors?
12. In your opinion, how can learners' errors be reduced?

Thank you very much for your participation.

The interview presented above provided the information about the birthplace of the respondents. The birthplace of 6 of the interviewees were Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Serbia and Germany. Three of them were born in Bosnia and Herzegovina, one in Croatia, one in Serbia and one in Germany. The aim of this question was to examine learner's environment and possible facilitating or inhibiting factors which could influence language acquisition.



Accordingly, their MTs were Bosnian, Serbian, Croatian. Thus, MT of 4 respondents was Bosnian, MT of 1 respondent was Serbian, and MT of 1 respondent was Croatian. This question tried to examine learner's L1 in order to detect similarities and differences between L1 and FL more easily.

2 respondents started studying English at the age of 8 in elementary school, 1 respondent at the age of 15 in secondary school, 2 at the age of 19 at college, and 1 respondent never learned English before. The age in which learner started learning English was crucial, since it can influence the process of acquisition of FL to a great extent.

When the respondents were asked which other languages they know or speak, 2 respondents said they use German, 2 are Russian, 1 speak French and Turkish, and 1 uses Arabic. Since the knowledge of other foreign language can influence the acquisition of the English language positively or negatively, author had to examine which other languages learners know or speak.

When asked if they like English, 5 respondents answered that they are very fond of English. On the other hand, 1 respondent said that he does not like English and learns it only for business purposes. By this question, the author had an insight into some other factors than negative transfer from L1 which can inhibit the process of the acquisition of FL.

When asked if they use English only at work, 3 respondents said they use it while traveling, for getting to know people and talking to their relatives from abroad, and for helping the tourists who come to our country. 3 respondents said they use English at work only,, mostly due to the lack of confidence and, in their opinion, insufficient vocabulary and insufficient language skills. By this question, author wanted to examine the purpose of learning English.

To the question of what is the hardest thing about learning English, 3 respondents agreed that it is grammar, 2 respondents said that speaking is the greatest difficulty in learning English for them while only 1 respondent said that writing is the biggest problem in learning English. Author had an insight into those elements of the language which cause the biggest challenge for learners.

When asked how grammar is practiced in the classroom during the last two months of the research, respondents from the control and experimental group had different responses. The control group with 4 respondents generally had responses that included "not so much", "almost never, „except for group discussions on different words and structures", "in discussions about the movie, if someone gets stuck, teacher or colleagues will get help by explaining it in English", and "by using dictionaries when the grammatical form of some word is unknown". The author wanted to examine whether learners were aware of how was grammar practiced in the classroom during the treatment phase.

2 experimental group participants confirmed that grammar in the past two months of the research had been studied 15 minutes each class during the first month, more specifically, 10 plural nouns were considered in more detail, using the mother tongue to explain grammar rules and contrasting differences between the mother tongue and the English language, while pointing and correcting errors, the form emphasized more than the meaning and use in the context, without much communication and interaction, with many exercises of mimicking and memorizing, and 30 minute of each class in the second month of research for studying wh-question. The respondents of both groups, after being given an insight into the responses of the other respondents, who were of course anonymous, were surprised by the responses of their colleagues, given the different methods of teaching of the same material during that month, indicating that the respondents of the control group did not have much contact with respondents of the experimental group, which additionally influences the obtaining of relevant research results.

To the question if they think their mother tongue is an important factor when teacher gives a lesson in grammar, how and why, the responses of the respondents of the experimental group were "it is more clear than when explained in English only", "I make less errors when I get explanation in Bosnian language", "it is useful because some concepts do not exist in both languages, so Bosnian helps us to better understand grammar rules in English". Control group respondents said that their explanation in English was enough to understand the point because their ambitions were more focused on communicative skills, but that the use of mother tongue would further improve the course of teaching. One respondent pointed out that too much focus on the grammar inhibits the production of oral constructions in English, and that she is therefore more satisfied if the explanations are given in English only.

The next question in the interview was if they noticed any advancement after the two-month research phase and in which sense, so the control group respondents said they felt progress in acquiring a new vocabulary through the shown films, video clips, and various creative activities over the past 16 classes. They also said that their level of motivation had increased, as well as their interest in English, and that many aspects of the English language had been learned unconsciously, which they could see by themselves after the results of the post-test. On the other hand, the respondents of the experimental group also showed relative progress, with the fact that their classes were uninteresting or even boring, and that there were too many focus on grammar, without so much communication. Nevertheless, after the post-test results, they concluded that the treatment phase helped them to master grammatical forms and achieve enormous progress in the acquisition of the English language. In addition to the results of the post-test of these two groups, it was concluded that both principles were successful because they made progress in both groups, but the explicit explanation of the rules using CA between BCS and English proved to be more successful in this case study, which might have had different results in terms of some other respondents of a different language background and experience. This question should provide author some kind of feedback from learners whether they noticed improvement in the acquisition of target FL structures themselves.

To the question *Are you worried about making errors? In your opinion, why are you making errors in English mostly?*, most of the responses were focused on the fact that learners are concerned about what their classroom colleagues and their teacher think of your language skills. They also pointed out that their errors are made due to low self-esteem, limited exposure to target language, incomprehensible fear of making mistakes, feeling of social pressure and unrealistic expectations or perfectionism, insufficient instruction of a teacher, unsuitable classroom environment, and especially because of their mother tongue. Author's aim by this question was to examine whether learners are focused on making errors which can inhibit the acquisition of language to a great extent.

The last question was how learners' errors could be reduced in their opinion. Respondents said they needed more explanation in BCS language, and that they should stop thinking in their mother tongue about constructions in English, i.e., to translate less literally from BCS into English and vice versa, talk more with native speakers of the English language and to expose themselves more to communication, even though they would make more errors

in that way, because one of the respondents claims that "it is not terrible to make an error; we are all human beings and we make mistakes - it is terrible to know the rules of a language, yet not know how to use them in communication when we need it." Author wanted to examine whether learners have some strategies for overcoming errors they make.

Also, the respondents of the experimental group claimed that it was evident in classes that imitation and repetition were the biggest obstacles in the improvement of speaking skills. Little was demanded from the learners, they were bored, passive, non-motivated, not enthusiastic about the exercises, or they were expected to discuss some topics that require them to express themselves more than they can. However, despite all this, the results showed the acquisition of the language forms of the target language that is being taught.

In the interview with the respondents, many causes of errors were identified, in addition to the negative transfer from their mother tongue. Some of them pointed out that their errors were the result of absence in the class, some that they did not understand the text of the sentence in English, therefore, the structure of the sentence was too complex for their level of knowledge, some of them attributed it to the fact that they have never formally learned English so far. On the other hand, it was established that some correct post-test responses were not a product of knowledge, but there were also responses that were chosen "by luck" out of uncertainty, and because they were translated directly from BCS into English without the knowledge of contrastive differences. There were also those respondents who said that they remembered words only by copying them 100 times in the notebook.

## 5. Conclusion

On the basis of the analysis findings, we can conclude the following:

1. The results of the post-test showed that there is a progress in the experimental group and a decrease in the number of errors in relation to the control group from the initial to the final stage. It has been proven that the students of both groups, and especially students of the experimental group, acquired certain grammatical units and these mistakes were no longer repeated in tests. This confirms that explicit grammar instructions, teacher interaction with students, and feedback about their mistakes have more effect on the accuracy of the use of grammatical structures. In the experimental group there was an improvement in grammatical knowledge and accuracy in use, fluency in writing and translation, because their errors were immediately corrected by cognitive comparisons based on the form.

The final tests of both groups show that the experimental group progressed more than control group because it had a different approach to grammatical instructions and feedback from the teacher. In the experimental group, students learned about grammatical errors, corrected, described and explained them with the help of teacher. The task of correcting, explaining, and describing tested the students' ability to use their available grammar knowledge, since every instance of the error could be explained and corrected. In the experimental group, explicit grammar teaching was conducted with a clear emphasis on grammatical rules and insisting on the importance of teaching those rules and grammatical structures. Explicit teaching of grammar led to the improvement of language skills.

2. The results of the post-test showed that the participants of the control group also improved their grammatical knowledge, even though they did not receive grammatical instructions in their mother tongue. The number of errors in the final phase was lower compared to the initial phase. When comparing the results of the experimental and control group, the number of errors is still higher than those of the experimental group.

On the basis of the theory of contrastive analysis and error analysis, as well as on grammatical and syntactic literature of English and BCS language, hypotheses on the acquisition of the English language by means of experimental research conducted with adults were either partially or completely confirmed.

HYPOTHESES 1: The findings obtained by the analysis have partially confirmed the first hypothesis (*In teaching adult EFL learners (beginners) it is necessary to use the mother tongue for the purpose of explaining grammatical constructions and certain vocabulary that show significant contrastive differences between B/C/S and English*) set at the beginning of this thesis.

HYPOTHESES 2: The second hypothesis (*While teaching adults with elementary knowledge of English, the use of English as the only medium of communication (instruction) is not sufficient*) is partly confirmed, as well, since the respondents of the control group also achieved success in acquiring grammatical structures without explicit instructions on contrastive differences in their mother tongue.

HYPOTHESES 3: The third hypothesis (*Learners who are not informed about the contrastive differences between English and Bosnian in their mother tongue make more errors than learners who have been informed about contrastive differences*) has been completely confirmed, since respondents of the control group compared to the experimental group made more errors when using plural of nouns and wh-questions in English as a result of the interference of their mother tongue (BCS language).

The analysis findings suggest that it is necessary to use mother tongue in the process of teaching English to adult EFL learners with the elementary knowledge of English. Even though the process of acquiring Business English vocabulary and structures seemed highly unnatural and complex for EFL beginners, the findings have also confirmed that it is possible to make progress in learning simple Business English structures despite beginners' elementary knowledge of English.

## REFERENCES:

1. Atkinson, D. (1993). Teaching in the target language: A problem in the current orthodoxy. *Language Learning Journal*, 8 (1).
2. Atkinson, D. (1993). Teaching monolingual classes: Using L1 in the classroom. Harlow. Longman. Attrition: Easy Questions, Difficult Answers". In *Studies of Fossilization in Second Language Acquisition*. Han, Z., Odlin, T. (eds.). Toronto, Multilingual Matters LTD.
3. Beaver, J. C. (1970). *A Grammar of Prosody*, in: D. C. Freeman (ed.): *Linguistics and Literary Style*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
4. Bender, E. (1996). *English Grammar: Test Yourself*. NTC Learning Works, Chicago.
5. Bley-Vroman, R. (1989). *What is the logical problem of foreign language learning?* In Susan M. Gass and Jacquelyn Schachter (eds.). *Linguistic Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
6. Brooks, N. (1960). *Language and Language Learning*. New York, Harcourt, Brace & World.
7. Brown, D. B. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
8. Catford, J. C. (1968). *Contrastive analysis and language teaching*. In J. E. Alatis (ed.).
9. Chao, Y.R. (1933). *Tone and intonation in Chinese*. Bull Inst History Philol 4.
10. Chomsky, N. (1957). *Syntactic Structures*. The Hague, Mouton.
11. Chomsky, N. (2006). *Language and Mind*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
12. Corder, S.P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics* 5.
13. Đorđević, R. (1987). *Uvod u kontrastiranje jezika*. Beograd, Zavod za udžbenike i nastavna sredstva.
14. Dougut, M., and Laufer, B. (1985). Avoidance of phrasal verbs – a case for contrastive analysis. In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*.
15. Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1973). *Should we teach children syntax?* Language Learning.
16. Ellis R. (1992). *Second Language Acquisition and Language Pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

17. Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
18. Filipović, R. (ed.) (1975). *Contrastive Analysis of English and Serbo-Croatian, Vol. I*. Zagreb, Institute of Linguistics, Faculty of Philosophy, University of Zagreb.
19. Fisiak, J., ed. (1981). *Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher*. Oxford, Pergamon Press.
20. Fries, C. (1945). *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. Michigan, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press.
21. George, H.V. (1972). *Common Errors in Language Learning: Insights from English*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
22. Greenbaum, S. (1996). *The Oxford English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
23. Halliday, M. A. K., A. McIntosh & P. Strevens. (1964). *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. London: Longmans.
24. Han, Z., Odlin, T. (2006). *Studies of Fossilization in Second Language Acquisition: Practice and Programs*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
25. Hansen, T. L. And Ernest J. Wilkins. (1974). *Espanol a lo vivo*. Level 1, 3rd Edition. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
26. Harris, Z. S. (1954). Transfer Grammar. *International Journal of American Linguistics*, 20.4.
27. Hulstijn, J., and Marchene, E. (1989). Avoidance: grammatical or semantic causes. In *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11.
28. Hulstijn, J.H. (2005). Theoretical and empirical issues in the study of implicit and explicit second-language learning: Introduction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(2).
29. Hyltenstam, K. (1988). Lexical characteristics of near-native second-language learners of Swedish. In *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, Vol. 9, Issue 1-2.
30. James, C. (1980). *Contrastive Analysis*. London: Longman.
31. James, C. (2013). *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis*. London and New York: Routledge.
32. Jarvis, S., Pavlenko, A. (2008). *Crosslinguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*. New York i London: Routledge.



33. Jelaska, Z. et al. (2005). *Hrvatski kao drugi i strani jezik*. Zagreb: Hrvatska sveučilišna naklada.
34. Krajnović, M. M. (2010). *Od jednojezičnosti do višejezičnosti*. Zagreb: Leykam international.
35. Krashen, Stephen D. and Tracy D. Terrell. (1983). *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. New Jersey: Alemany Press/Regents/ Prentice Hall.
36. Krzeszowski, T. P. (1985). *The so-called 'sign theory' as the first method in contrastive linguistics*. Amsterdam: Mouton de Gruyter.
37. Kurtesh, S. (2005). Contrastive linguistics: a 21st century perspective. In S. Marmaridou et al. (eds.). *Reviewing linguistic thought: converging trends for the 21st century*. (Trends in Linguistics: Studies and Monographs). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
38. Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across Cultures*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press Language-Teaching Materials”.
39. Lee, R. W. (1970). *The Dolphin English Course, Teacher's Companion*. London, Oxford University Press.
40. Lenneberg, E. H. (1966). *The Natural History of Language*. In Smith and Miller (eds.). *The Genesis of Language*, M. I. T. Press.
41. Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1990). *Instruction and the Development of Questions in L2 Classroom*. SSLA, Vol. 15.
42. Mackey, A. and Gass, S.M. (2005). *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design (Second Language Acquisition Research)*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
43. Mackey, W. F. (1965). *Language Teaching Analysis*. London: Longman.
44. Mathesius, V. (1964). On linguistic characterology with illustrations from Modern English. In J. Vachek (ed.). *A Prague School Reader in Linguistics*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
45. Nakuma, Constancio K. (2006). *Researching Fossilization and Second Language (L2)*.
46. Nemser, W. (1971). Recent Center activities in contrastive linguistics. In R. Filipović (ed.). *B. Studies, 4, Zagreb Conference on English Contrastive Projects, 7–9 December 1970. Papers and Discussions*. Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.
47. Petrović, E. (1997) *Teorija nastave stranih jezika*. Osijek: Sveučilište Josipa Jurja Strossmayera; Osijek: Pedagoški fakultet Osijek.
48. Pilipović, V. (2008). *Kognitivna zrelost kao faktor usvajanja gramatičke strukture stranog jezika*. Pedagoška zrelost.

49. Prčić, T. (2005). *Engleski u srpskom*. Novi Sad: Zmaj.
50. Quirk, R. et al. (1985). *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London,
51. Rhine J.B. & Brier, R. (1968). *Parapsychology Today*. New York: Citadel Press.
52. Richards, J. (1971). *Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies*. The text of an invited lecture given at Indiana University, Bloomington
53. Riđanović, M. (2007). *Prakticna engleska gramatika*. Sarajevo: Sahinpasic.
54. Rutherford, W.E. (1987). *Second Language Grammar: Learning and Teaching*. London: Longman.
55. Schachter, J. (1974). *An Error in Error Analysis*. In *Language Learning*, Vol. 24, Issue 2. Amherst: Mass.
56. Schmidt, R.W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied linguistics* 11 (2).
57. Selinker, L. (1992). *Rediscovering Interlanguage (Applied Linguistics and Language Study)*. London, Longman Group UK Limited.
58. Selinker, L., Han, Z. (2001). Fossilisation: Moving the concept into empirical longitudinal study. In *Experimenting with Uncertainty: Essays in Honour of Alan Davies*. Elder, C. et al. (eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
59. Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal Behaviour*. Acton, Massachusetts, Copley Publishing Group.
60. Spolsky, B. (1989). Communicative Competence, Language Proficiency, and Beyond. In *Applied Linguistics*, 10 (2).
61. Tarone, E. (1988). *Variation in Interlanguage*. London, Edward Arnold.
62. Terrell, T. (1986). Acquisition in the Natural Approach: The Binding/Access Framework. *Modern Language Journal* 70.
63. Whorf, B. L. (1941 – 1967). Language and Logic. In J. B. Carroll (ed.), *Language, Thought and Reality, Selected Writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf*. Cambridge (Mass.), M. I. T. Press.
64. Young, Robert & Strauch, Ann. (2007). *Nitty Gritty Grammar Teacher's Manual: Sentence Essentials for Writers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
65. Zhang, X. (2007). *The organizational strategies of collaborative learning in English Classroom*. Foreign Language and Their Teaching.

#### INTERNET SOURCES:

1. Gulesić, M., M., Udier S.L. (2018). *Izvorna odstupanja u hrvatskome kao inojezičnome*. <http://hrcak.srce.hr/31986> accessed on: July 24th, 2018.
2. Okičić, M., Osmankadić, M. (2014). The Use of Contrastive Analysis in Teaching English as a Foreign Language at Tertiary Level. In: *Foreign Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, May, Sarajevo.
3. Wardhaugh, R. (1970). *The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*. TESOL Quarterly 4.

## Appendix A

### Pre-test

#### TEST

##### 1. Dopuni crtice odgovarajućim riječima iz tabele.

works advice peoples information moneys work advices food womens  
childrens money feets women new children feet foods news people  
informations

1. He collects \_\_\_\_\_ (informacije) on new products.
2. Sally does not have enough \_\_\_\_\_ (novaca) to buy that dress.
3. Her \_\_\_\_\_ (djeca) are too hyperactive.
4. There are some \_\_\_\_\_ (žene) who love to act bossy.
- 5 There is a great crowd of \_\_\_\_\_ (ljudi) in the shop across the street.
6. There are two types of \_\_\_\_\_ (hrane) I find disgusting: coconut and liver. I really hate them.
7. I got the \_\_\_\_\_ (vijesti) from a reliable source.
8. My \_\_\_\_\_ (savjeti) do not help him a lot.
9. Her bare \_\_\_\_\_ (stopala) do not make much noise as she moves across the room.
10. They enjoy eating apples at their \_\_\_\_\_ (poslu).

##### 2. Napravi pitanja za podvučene dijelove rečenice.

**Primjer: The office closes in three days. When/the/does/close/office/do ⇒ When does the office close?**

1. She always says that.

What/ she/ say/ does/ always/ do

\_\_\_\_\_

2. Tourists usually come here because they love our country.

Why/ tourists/ does/ do/ usually/ come/ here/

---

3. My brother works in a car wash.

Where/ your brother/ work/ does /do

---

4. He lives in London.

Who/ in/ London/ lives

---

5. You put the key into the red drawer.

Which/ do/ you/ drawer/ the key/ put/ in/ does

---

6. My colleague comes from Italy.

Where/ your/ does/ come from/ do/ colleague

---

7. She visits Mediterranean cities twice a year.

Which/ does/ she/ cities/ twice a year/ do/ visit

---

8. She travels to work on foot.

How/ to work/ she/ does/ travel/ do

---

9. I come here to relax every day.

Why/ here/ come/ do/ every day/ does/ you

---

10. My friends have a great respect for nature. They are ecologically aware.

Who/ a great respect/ for nature/ has

---

## Appendix B

### Post-test

#### TEST

#### 1. Dopuni crtice odgovarajućim riječima iz tabele.

works advice peoples information moneys work advices food womens  
childrens money feets women new children feet foods news people  
informations

1. Tom has \_\_\_\_\_ (informacije) that Mary needs.
2. The problem is that the poor don't have enough \_\_\_\_\_ (novaca) to buy the food.
3. His \_\_\_\_\_ (djeca) are very intelligent.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ (žene) usually live longer than men.
5. Creative \_\_\_\_\_ (ljudi) have more energy in the morning.
6. I know a lot about industrial \_\_\_\_\_ (hranama).
7. It is hard to avoid fake \_\_\_\_\_ (novosti) today.
8. I don't need your \_\_\_\_\_ (savjete).
9. She loves her flat \_\_\_\_\_ (stopala).
10. My mother does a lot of domestic \_\_\_\_\_ (poslova) and she enjoys it.

#### 2. Napravi pitanja za podvučene dijelove rečenice.

##### POST-TEST

1. He usually goes there. Where/ he/ goes/ does/ usually/  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Our friends visit Bosnia because it has a lot of nature. Why/ do/Bosnia/ visit/ our friends/

- 
3. Her father swims in an Olympic pool. Where/ her father/ swim/ does /
- 
4. She goes to gym on foot. How/ to gym/ she/ does/ go/
- 
5. We travel to Turkey to experience something new every year. Why/ to Turkey/ travel/ do/ every year/ we/
- 
6. /I visit Italian restaurants twice a year. Which/ do/ I/ restaurants/ twice a year/ visit/
- 
7. They believe everything. Who/ believes/ everything/
- 
8. My family has three mansions. Who/ three mansions/ has/
- 
9. You usually put your clothes onto the white sofa. Which/ do/ you/ sofa/ your clothes/ put/ onto/
- 
10. My wife comes from Bulgaria. Where/ your/ does/ come from/ wife/
-

## **Appendix C**

### **Interview form**

Hello. As you know, we are currently in a research phase. I'm conducting this interview as a part of my master's thesis analysis of the use of CA in foreign language classroom with adult learners. Thank you for your participation. All information and responses will be kept anonymous, so no one will be able to detect your identity.

1. What is your birthplace (country)?
2. What is your Mother tongue?
3. At what age did you start to learn English?
4. What other language(s) do you speak?
5. Do you like English?
6. Do you use English outside your job?
7. In your opinion, what is the hardest thing about learning English? Is it grammar, reading, speaking, writing, or listening?
8. How is grammar practiced in the classroom?
9. Do you think your mother tongue is an important factor when your teacher is giving a lesson in grammar? How and why?
10. Did you notice any advancement after the two-month research phase? In which sense?
11. Are you worried about making errors? In your opinion, why are you making errors in English mostly?
12. In your opinion, in which way can students' errors be reduced?

Thank you very much for your participation.