

**Error Analysis: A Hierarchy of Difficulty Encountered
by Japanese Students Learning English as a Second
Language**

by

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ABSTRACT

It has been one of the main concerns of Applied Linguistics to seek for an answer to the question of why one aspect of grammar is more difficult than another for the second language learner. In an attempt to provide an answer for this, a systematic investigation of the errors made by Japanese students in learning English has been made on morpho-syntactic and semantic aspects. In the process of studying causes of errors, three sources are determined: first-language transfer, first-language interference, and second-language intralingual and developmental sources. The errors are classified into twelve types in accordance with the three sources. A hierarchy of difficulty of linguistic categories is hypothetically established based on observations of the persistence and frequency of errors.

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DEDICATION

To my parents, Kiyoshi and Fumiko Fukushima
for their loving support;

To my wife Kiyomi Fukushima
for her loving encouragement and patience;

I dedicate this work and its rewards.

Chapter I: Introduction

1. Rationale and Aim

As an individual develops, his thought patterns are formalized by his mother tongue. Therefore, other languages which he may encounter will not be more than a noise or an enumeration of strange symbols until he becomes used to the way thought which is formalized by the systems of that language.

If thought were language, in other words, if the formalizations of thought or the manner in which languages express thought were exactly the same in all languages and thus, languages were completely translatable into one another, one would expect to learn a second language as well as the first language without any unique difficulties.

In reality however, once the first language has been completely acquired, in most cases an individual will not subsequently be able to learn the second language as readily and as well as his first language no matter how much time he spends in learning, unless he is lucky enough to grow up in an environment where he is able to learn his second language simultaneously with his first language.

The grammatical features of a language may not all be learned with equal ease or difficulty. If a second language learner experiences the same difficulty in

learning the language as a child of that linguistic community does in the acquisition of that language, it may simply be ascribed to the difficulty or the complexity of the systems of that language.

But, then why will he not be able to speak that language as a native speaker? What are the factors preventing him from doing so? These questions may imply the essential difference between first language acquisition and second language learning. The difference may perhaps be attributed to the neuro-psychological differences in these two activities.

It is not my purpose here to pursue those questions at the biological level; rather it is to disclose and study the difficulties which arise in learning a second language.

In first language acquisition, if one aspect of the grammar is more difficult than others, it can simply be ascribed to the systematic or formal complexity of that element in that language, or the physical or psychological immaturity of the child, since first language acquisition occurs in accordance with the mental and physical development of a child.

In second language learning, however, it is difficult for a learner to wrestle with the second language as naively as he did in his first language

acquisition. That is, because no matter what kind of available teaching method is used, he is not free from the influence of his first language, nor from the influence of the insufficiency of the learning environment and other factors which did not exist in his first language acquisition. Even if a direct method or some approach of that kind is used in order to minimize the chance of being influenced by the learner's first language, he may be either consciously or unconsciously restricted by the systems of thought to which he was accustomed through his first language acquisition. In other words, he may handle the systems of the second language in the way he manages the systems of his first language.

Therefore, in second language learning, in order to explain why one aspect of the grammar of the target language is more difficult to learn than others, it is essential to clarify all the conceivable factors not only in the target language, but also in the learner's first language, using an effective method of analysis.

The purpose of this study is to disclose morpho-syntactic and semantic errors in speech, which Japanese students may produce in learning English as the second language and to set up a hierarchy of difficulties based on the analysis of the errors.

2. Review of the Literature

Many studies have been carried out to gain an understanding of the nature of second language learning and to establish better teaching strategies: first Linguistic Analysis, and then Contrastive Analysis, and most recently Error Analysis. During the first half of the twentieth century Linguistic Analysis was done within the Structuralist framework and, more recently, within the framework of Generative Grammar.

The principle of Contrastive Analysis is derived from Fries's concept of second language learning (Fries 1945: 9):

... the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

His concept was developed by Lado (1957: vii):

... the plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student.

Hence many studies on Contrastive Analysis were carried out in the early 1960s; e.g. Moulton (1962), Kufner (1962), Stockwell and Bowen (1965).

In 1970, R. Wardhaugh made a distinction between the strong version and the weak version of Contrastive

Analysis. The strong version implies that the difficulties may be predicted theoretically from a comparison of equivalent descriptions of the two languages, whereas the weak version of Contrastive Analysis is to explain already discovered deviations usually categorized as errors.

Wardhaugh has also pointed out that the comparison of two languages is difficult in practice, even if it is limited to such features as allophonic variants (1970: 14):

Let us suppose that a linguist contrasts the allophonic variants described in accounts he finds of the phonological system of two languages. ... Are the phonetic statements the linguist finds sufficiently detailed and of the right kind to be of use: that is, what is the adequacy of the phonetic theory and of the particular phonetic information at his disposal? Do the descriptions take into account all the phonological variables that should be taken into account, ... what is the state of the phonological theory he is using? ... what is the state of the contrastive theory he is employing?

Because Contrastive Analysis has not provided any formal way for determining which elements of one language are to be compared with those of the other, the value of the strong version of Contrastive Analysis is being questioned. Wardhaugh therefore suggests that Contrastive Analysis can only survive in its weak version.

F.A. Johansson (1973: 12) has claimed:

Contrastive analysis cannot account for everything within its domain, since, for example, it cannot formally indicate which of these differences (between the native and the target language) will lead to difficulties and which will not.

M.F. Buteau (1970:25-26) in her study of second language learners of French has indicated that the differences between two languages were not necessarily the cause of the difficulty:

... the French sentences that correspond literally to their English equivalents are not necessarily the easiest to learn,... the probability of errors could not be assessed only from the degree of divergence of the two linguistic structures, and consequently other factors of difficulty must be hypothesized.

As Contrastive Analysis failed to explain the difficulty of second language learning, simply from the differences between the first language of a learner and the target language, Contrastive Analysis began to lose its heretofore unchallenged position as a panacea in second language learning theory.

A new attempt at analyzing learners' errors has emerged, that is an error based analysis. The appearance of Error Analysis has brought a new view on learners' errors. S.P. Corder (1967) regards a learner's errors as evidence of the system of language that he is using at a particular point in the learning process, i.e. that they reflect his transitional competence. He has claimed three significant aspects of

a learner's errors. First, the types and number of errors are an indication of the stage at which a particular learner is functioning. Secondly, errors provide evidence of the second language learning process. And thirdly, errors are as an indispensable means for testing the learner's hypotheses regarding the structure of the target language.

L. Dušková (1969: 25) has indicated the possibility of the contribution to learners' errors of sources other than first language interference:

... while interference from the mother tongue plays a role, it is not the only interfering factor. There is also interference between the forms of the language being learnt, both in grammar and lexis.

Error Analysis and the weak version of Contrastive Analysis have a common starting point, since both Error Analysis and the weak version of Contrastive Analysis deal with learners' errors in the first place. The difference lies in the direction of analyzing errors. The weak version of Contrastive Analysis seeks to explain errors by attributing them to first language influence, whereas Error Analysis seeks for the cause of errors in the systems of the target language. Studies of sources of learners' errors became notable in the early 1970s. L. Selinker (1972) has presented five different sources of errors, referring to them as "five central processes of fossilization", which are

associated with the construction of deviant forms in the target language; "language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of second language learning, strategies of second language communication and over-generalization of TL linguistic material."

J.C. Richards (1971b) attempts to explain second language learners' errors without using the Contrastive approach. He does not deny the occurrence of errors caused by first language interference, but he puts the focus on intralingual and developmental errors which reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition. He sub-categorizes those types of error; over-generalization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concepts hypothesized.

At this stage the effectiveness of Contrastive Analysis in contributing to an understanding of second language learning seems to become dim. A criticism of Contrastive Analysis in this respect is found in F.A. Johansson (1973: 12):

Contrastive analysis is not necessary, since teachers are interested in known difficulties rather than theoretically predicted ones.

Claims of this kind, however do not disprove the value of Contrastive Analysis, because none of the attempts completely explain all of the errors. In

particular, L1 interference errors can not be explained except by the Contrastive approach. Support for Contrastive Analysis can still be found. S. Johansson (1975: 334), for example, draws attention to the importance of both Error Analysis (E.A.) and Contrastive Analysis (C.A.):

... everybody is not an experienced teacher... the knowledge of an individual teacher can neither be complete nor can it be assumed to be systematically organized. Most teachers of foreign languages probably need the information which can be revealed by E.A. and C.A.

A recent study by L.J. Loveday (1982) shows the effectiveness of C.A. in disclosing socio-cultural difficulties for Japanese speakers in learning English.

In view of the situation as outlined above, it seems that deeper insights into the structures causing difficulties for learners can be gained by using C.A. in conjunction with E.A. rather than to concentrate on superficial differences between languages, which have been shown to be irrelevant by recent studies.

Chapter II: METHODOLOGY

2.1. Perspective

Errors in colloquial usage made by monolingual Japanese students learning English as a second language are analyzed with regard to morpho-syntactic and semantic aspects in order to disclose factors that cause difficulties. Ratios of errors by source are computed and offered as empirical evidence for the degree of difficulty encountered by Japanese learners in acquiring certain L2 forms. By relating these ratios to the various levels of English proficiency amongst the subjects, a hierarchy of difficulty is hypothetically established for pedagogical purposes.

2.2 Subjects

The participants in this study were Japanese students who had completed at least twelve years of education including six years of English in Japan and were learning English as their second language in the American Language and Culture Programs of San Diego State University during the period from May 1979 to August 1979. There were approximately thirty Japanese students in the Program when the research was carried out. The students were divided into eight levels (classes) depending on the result of the placement

tests and oral interviews. The subjects ranged in age from 18 to 31.

2.3 Data

In performing an error analysis, there is a danger of reaching the wrong conclusions when using uncontrolled data; i.e. data which have not been systematically elicited. For example, it may not be possible to reconstruct a sentence from uncontrolled data without distorting the speaker's intention in an utterance such as:

"Give to the mortar, bad grandfather by makes, but scrap in place."

If, however, this sentence was uttered based on a fixed story of some kind equally familiar to both the speaker and the researcher, reconstruction is greatly facilitated and it can be done without changing the speaker's intention. This utterance may be reconstructed into more than one well-formed sentence, but if we know what the speaker intended to say, we can arrive at an accurate reconstruction of such highly garbled information:

"Borrowing the mortar, the bad grandfather tried to get some (gold coins) by making rice cakes, but he could get only scraps."

Therefore, by limiting the topic within the knowledge which the participant and the researcher

share, the researcher has a distinct advantage over cases in which the researcher has no prior knowledge of what the subject intended to say.

In normal circumstances everyone in Japan is familiar with HANASAKAJIJII(An Old Man Who Made Flowers Bloom) and MOMOTARO(Peach Boy) which are among the most popular fairy tales for children of that country. In fact all of the participants knew at least the outlines of these stories apart from some minor discrepancies of memory such as the particular animals who appeared in these two stories.

By using such topics we can also minimize the chance of provoking the students' excessive emotional conditions such as anger, deep grief and so on, which may cause performance errors ("mistakes") as Corder (1967) claims. Thus, these two fairy tales, MOMOTARO and HANASAKAJIJII, were chosen for the collection of speech samples in order to minimize the occurrence of discrepancies between a student's intended meaning and what an analyst conjectures.

The Japanese students of each of the eight classes were divided into two to four groups depending on the number of the students in a class, so that each group consisted of two or three students. Each group was asked to tell one of the fairy tales in English without any preparation. Thus each member of a group took

charge of a half or one third of the story. While a student was telling the story, his utterances were being tape-recorded. Later the tape-recorded data were transcribed for analysis.

2.4 Definition of Errors

Before going into the analysis, it is necessary to define errors which are to be analyzed in this study. In some cases an attempt is made to draw a distinction between "errors" and "mistakes". The former are related to linguistic competence and the latter to performance. S.P. Corder (1967) pointed out that "mistakes" are adventitious artifacts of linguistic performance, which a normal adult native speaker of a language may produce in daily conversations due to memory lapses, physical conditions or psychological states and are characteristically unsystematic and of no significance in second language learning. Contrary to "mistakes", "errors" are systematic and are believed to expose the learner's state of competence (transitional competence).

Theoretically this distinction seems important for the study of error analysis. Although theoretically plausible, it cannot readily and consistently be recognized and maintained, unless the following presuppositions are met. First, a second language

learner does not exclusively produce either errors of performance or competence. Secondly, in the same psychological or physical condition a second language learner and normal adult native speaker of the language produce the same type of errors (or mistakes). Therefore, if a second language learner produces a certain error (or mistake) which a normal adult native speaker of the language may possibly produce, the error should not be ascribed to the learner's transitional competence, but to the same factor such as fatigue or anger which makes a native speaker do so.

According to the study of speech errors of native English speakers reported by V. Fromkin (1971), misderivations (attaching a wrong suffix or prefix to a word) and word substitutions (use of a word which is wrong but phonologically or semantically related to the word intended) are included in the commonest types of errors ("slips of the tongue"). Misderivations and word substitutions are among the most noticeable errors in the corpus which I collected from the second language learners for this study. Therefore, if I attempt to distinguish mistakes from errors according to Corder's classification, I will be obliged to regard them as mistakes.

There are two reasons, however, that make me reluctant to do so. For one thing it is preposterous to

assume that a normal adult native speaker of a language produces those errors as frequently as a second language learner does. And the other is the fact that those errors (or mistakes) tend to decrease in accordance with the progress of their proficiency in the target language (English). That is, those errors of second language learning which are classified as "mistakes" by Corder (1967), also expose learners' transitional competence, I assume, since they are closely associated with the degree of learners' L2 proficiency.

Because of the above considerations, I will not attempt to draw a distinction between errors and mistakes. If there are any errors which can be called pure mistakes, it will be revealed in the process of analysis. Thus, I define the second language learner's errors as: grammatically deviant forms which a second language learner may generate as by-products of his incomplete competence or the combination of his incomplete competence and his physical or psychological conditions, and are identified as errors by a normal native speaker of the language (English).

Any type of errors in incomplete sentences which were later restated either correctly or incorrectly are ignored. The term "incomplete sentence" does not necessarily refer to "minor sentences", which are

structurally characterized as incomplete sentences due to the lack of predications, since the utterances of the learners do not necessarily consist of "subject" and "predicate" superficially. By using the term "incomplete sentences" I refer to psychologically incomplete states of utterances, that is, the sentences (full sentences) or non-sentences (minor sentences) being produced in the process of reaching the final state of the verbalization of the idea in which the learner has not yet rendered the idea. Errors are extracted only from the sentences or non-sentences (minor sentences) which are considered in their completed state, where the speaker of the utterances did not show any intention of further restatement or deletion; e.g.,

Dirty grandfather was hole digging, but
waste, many waste look at, he can see waste,
many waste, only waste, only many waste.

In the above utterance, I regard the following elements as completed states:

Dirty grandfather was hole digging,
but he can see only many waste.

2.5 Measurement of Difficulty

In order to establish a difficulty hierarchy of errors, it is necessary to prove that one error is more difficult to remedy than another. In the first place,

an organization of errors is necessary. Errors are classified under the sources to which they are considered to be attributed and then they are subclassified into types according to their specific characteristics.

Difficulty, in this study, refers to the degree of difficulty in overcoming a given type of error. In a limited period of time, if one error is observed to persist longer than another, the former is considered to be more difficult.

The ideal would be to observe certain second language learners (who share the same linguistic background and have the same level of linguistic competence in regard to the target language (English)) for a certain period of time, in which the transitions of errors (how errors change in accordance with the improvement of learners' L2 proficiency) are clearly recognized. Practically, it is not only time-consuming, but it is also difficult to observe the same learners in the same condition for a protracted period of time.

However, if we look at a group of second language learners who have the same linguistic background divided by some sort of aptitude test or other effective means into certain levels of subgroups depending on the degree of their proficiency in the target language, the transitions of errors can be

traced by observing the production of errors among different levels or subgroups. By looking at each subgroup of learners as a whole, not as individuals, we can ignore minor discrepancies in linguistic proficiencies of learners at each level.

In this manner it can be assumed that the errors persevering at the higher levels with the same degree of frequency as at lower levels represent more difficult structures than those which abate as proficiency increases.

2.6 Sources of Errors

It is one of my purposes in this study to present empirical evidence of the actual ratio of first language (L1) interference errors to the target or second language (L2) intralingual errors in addition to setting up a hypothetical hierarchy of difficulty. Thus, in considering the sources of errors, the focus will be placed on clarifying the distinction between these two factors.

In contrastive analysis, the source of errors was believed to be attributable only to the difference between a learner's mother language and the target language. However, the undertaking of actual analyses of errors evoked a claim that L1 interference was not the only source of second language learners' errors

(Dušková 1967). Thereafter, the sources of errors were gradually viewed from a wider perspective; i.e., not only the interference from L1, but also other factors involved in a second language learning environment.

Larry Selinker (1969, 1972) presented five psycholinguistic processes of second language learning: (1) language transfer, (2) transfer of training, (3) strategies of second language learning, (4) strategies of second language communication, and (5) overgeneralization of TL linguistic materials. Selinker's notion was further restated even more clearly in Richards (1971a), by adding performance errors. Of Richards' six "sources of errors", the first five are roughly equivalent to Selinker's "processes" shown above: (1) interference, (2) teacher induced errors, (3) markers of transitional competence, (4) strategies of communication and assimilation, (5) overgeneralization, and (6) performance errors.

Based on his assertion that learners from different L1 backgrounds committed the same errors in learning, Richards (1971b) also attempted to ascribe the sources of errors to the systems of the target language. He excluded interference error and regarded the rest of the errors as intralingual and developmental. Intralingual errors are those which arise from difficulties within the L2 system and are not related

to L1 interference or transfer. Such errors are seen as relating to L2 development or acquisition and, therefore intralingual and developmental constitute a single term in which the former qualifies the latter. Richards subclassified intralingual and developmental sources of errors into four categories: overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concept hypothesis.

In undertaking an error analysis, identifying errors in terms of the processes and sources proposed by Selinker and Richards poses a difficult, if not an impossible challenge. Aside from L1 interference and performance errors, the remaining factors appear to be closely interdependent. Thus, it is difficult to maintain a consistent organization of errors under these categories in actual error analysis. Overgeneralization and transfer of training (teacher induced errors) seem to be included among the strategies of second language learning (markers of transitional competence). Since these two processes are inevitable in second language learning, in this sense they can be grouped together as markers of transitional competence.

If overgeneralization represents transitional competence -- and I don't think there is any question

about this -- what is the significance of attributing one error to overgeneralization and another error to markers of transitional competence. Furthermore, strategies of second language learning can be considered to imply strategies of second language communication, since strategies used in second language communication cannot be separated from the strategies of second language learning. I have the impression that the classifications given by Selinker (1969, 1972) and Richards (1971a) merely describe the different aspects of the same error from various angles.

In view of the forgoing arguments, it seems more effective to deal with errors collectively as intralingual and developmental, as Richards did in his study (1971b). His classification of four types of cause, namely, overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules and false concept hypothesis, cannot be usefully employed in error analysis as independent categories. His classification of four causes seems somewhat superficial. These four types are not so much the causes as the processes by which errors are generated. For example, in false concept hypothesis, he argued that the form was, may be interpreted as a marker of the past tense, giving "one day it was happened". This error "was happened" can also be interpreted as

transfer of a previously learned form, that is, overgeneralization of "be + Past Participle (pp)" form. If this sentence was produced by a Japanese student, (Richards collected errors from speakers of Japanese, and a number of other languages), the cause of this error may be L1 interference, which may also cause errors such as "He disgusted"; i.e. be omitted before verb + stem + ed (participle) (Richards 1971b: Appendix Table 5). In Japanese, though, there are no such syntactic variations of verbs to be expressed, either the verb itself or "be + pp" form. This point is also argued by James (James 1980: 185-186):

The fact that an error is committed by learners with many different L1s is no proof that it is a non-contrastive error: it is possible that all of the languages sampled contrast with English with respect to the particular structure involved.

In order to investigate the causes of errors, I assume that it is essential to seek the answer to why it occurs, but not how. Otherwise, the answer will lack explanatory power and thus it cannot be applied effectively to remedial purposes. Considering all the factors I have discussed so far, I will initially hypothesize two sources of error: interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual indicates the errors due to transfer or interference of the L1 (first language) linguistic systems. Intralingual refers to L2 (second

language or target language) intralingual and developmental sources. The cause of errors is regarded as a correlation between ignorance, uncertainty or misunderstanding and the systematic differences between L1 and L2. (See Figure 1.)

2.7 Interlingual Sources of Errors

When referring to interlingual sources of errors, the terms transfer and interference are sometimes used interchangeably. If we use the notion of L1 interference, as was defined in Richards (1971a:36),

i.e. the use of elements from one language while speaking another which may be found at the level of pronunciation, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, and meaning.

then interference error will be limited only to errors in which elements of L1 are observable directly in the erroneous outcome of the L2 system.

The notion of interference has been extended recently. The extreme example is found in Meriö (1978:27). Meriö defined interference:

all those errors which are not made by a monolingual, as well as the errors made by learners of the secondary language within its grammatical system attributable either to confusion within or incomplete mastery of it.

If we use her criterion in this study most of the errors can be attributed to some kind of interference. Meriö classified L1 interference into three types;

direct, indirect and distant interference. She claims (1978:31):

Lexically, distant interference occurs when the speaker cannot recall a word in the foreign language or uses the wrong word.

Then, in two unrelated languages such as Japanese and English, most of the errors in selection of words will be considered L1 interference, since there is no way of knowing whether the use of the wrong word is due to the speaker's ignorance or lapse of memory. It is possible to interpret all lexical errors as memory lapse; i.e., the speaker cannot recall the appropriate words.

In order to specify the limitation of L1 interference, I will use the terms interference and transfer separately. L1 transfer error is represented as Class 1 Error in Figure 1. That is, the learner directly uses elements of the L1 system consciously or unconsciously in producing the L2 system when he is ignorant or uncertain of certain elements of the L2 system. As a result, L1 transfer errors are directly traceable to the L1 system. In the following example the omission of the subject (he) and wrong word order (the position of the object) are directly traceable to the L1 system: "The ash threw over the dead trees." -- (He threw the ash over the dead trees.)

Interference error is expressed as Class 2 Error in Figure 1. Ignorance or uncertainty on the part of a

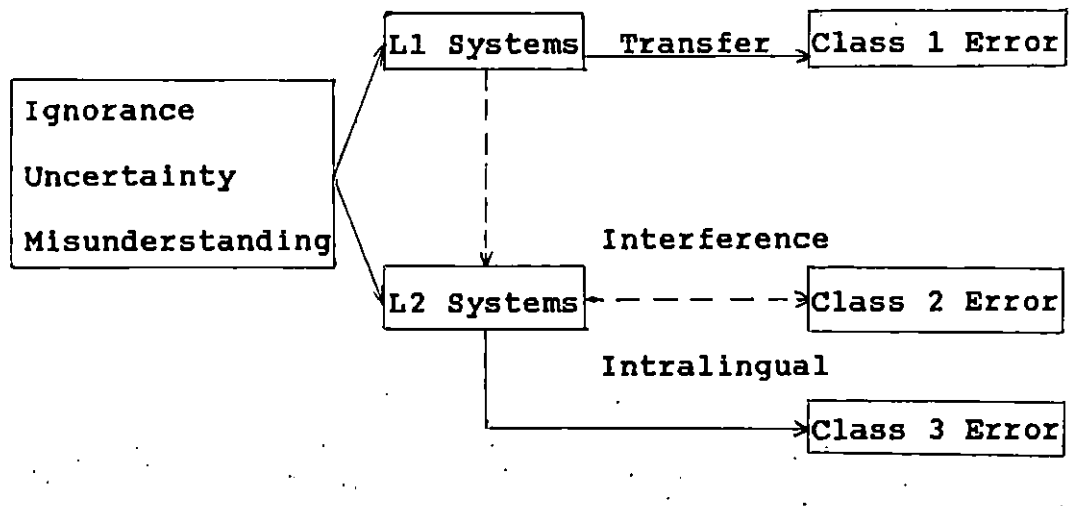
learner first provokes assistance from the L1 system and then the information obtained from the L1 system is incorporated in his already acquired L2 system. Interference errors are not directly traceable to L1 systems. However, appropriate contrastive analysis will reveal the connection between the error produced in L2 and a related structure in L1. For example, in the following sentence the speaker inappropriately used the verb "rent" for "borrow": "The next-door neighbour wanted to rent the mortar." -- (The next-door neighbour wanted to borrow the mortar.) The comparison of "rent" and "borrow" to the Japanese equivalent "KARIRU" reveals the fact; i.e., a many to one relation, which can be assumed to cause confusion to the speaker in the selection of the proper verb. Henceforth errors influenced by L1 are classified under two sources either L1 Transfer (Class 1 Error) or L1 Interference (Class 2 Error).

2.8 Intralingual and Developmental Errors

Intralingual and developmental error is represented by Class 3 Error in Figure 1. Ignorance or uncertainty of the learner remains in his already learned L2 systems and the erroneous construction of speech has taken place only within the system of L2. Thus, no

linkage to the L1 system is observable in this type of error.

Figure 1 Sources of Error



2.9 Identification of Error

Errors do not necessarily arise from a single cause and in most instances they probably violate more than one grammatical rule of the target language. Thus, in analyzing errors, it is important to establish consistent procedures for dealing with errors in their decomposition and reconstruction. The following steps are the procedures used in analyzing errors.

Step 1. A sentence is transcribed from tape-recorded data yielding the raw data;

e.g., Once upon a time once upon a time
somewhere grandmother and grandfather lived
in the near the river.

Step 2. Repetition and paraphrased elements are eliminated to extract the essential component.

e.g. Once upon a time 0 somewhere grandmother and grandfather lived 0 near the river.

Step 3. Errors are identified, classified and their quantity is recorded.

e.g. Once upon a time (0 → a) grandmother and (0 → a) grandfather lived somewhere near (the → a) river.

Step 4. The original component is reconstructed into a well-formed sentence.

e.g. Once upon a time a grandmother and a grandfather lived somewhere near a river.

0 → a, omission of indefinite article, Type-10a,(2),
the → a, refers to inappropriate selection of the article, Type-10b,(1), somewhere word order, Type-6b,(1). The number in the parenthesis indicates the frequency of error to be recorded. The specific types referred to here are explained in Chapter III and summarized in Table 1.

Chapter III: Analysis

The amount of oral data I have obtained varies among eight levels of classes. This was governed by the number of Japanese students in each class and the degree of cooperation of the teachers in charge of the classes; that is, the time I was permitted to use for tape-recording oral samples during the class-hour was not equal in all cases. Thus, in order to balance the data among the classes, I randomly extracted 100 sentences from each two levels and reorganized eight levels into four levels, which were respectively represented by the speech samples consisting of 100 sentences.

All the errors obtained from 400 sentences are classified under the following eleven types, which are the surface representations of the symbolic three classes of errors indicated in Figure 1. There may be infinite possibilities for the selection of the types of errors at the surface level. However, my main concern in classifying the following types lies in disclosing linguistically relevant units.

In order to avoid confusion, errors in the sentences used in each type have already been corrected except the error at issue.

Table 1. Descriptions and Sources of Types

Type	Description	Class	Source
1	Lexical Selection	3	L2(D)
2	Lexical Selection	1	L1(T)
3-a	Lexical Selection/ L1(A)(B)(C) = L2(A')	2	L1(I)
3-b	L1(A) = L2(A')(B')(C')	2	L1(I)
3-c	L1(A,B) = L2(A',C')	2	L1(I)
4-a	Unnecessary Insertion	1	L1(T)
4-b	Unnecessary Insertion	3	L2(D)
5-a	Erroneous Omission	1	L1(T)
5-b	Erroneous Omission	3	L2(D)
6-a	Word Order	1	L1(T)
6-b	Word Order	2	L1(I)
6-c	Word Order	3	L2(D)
7	Sentence Structure	3	L2(D)
8-a	Aspect	2	L1(I)
8-b	Aspect	3	L2(D)
9-a	Grammatical Morphemes	1	L1(T)
9-b	Grammatical Morphemes	2	L1(I)
9-c	Grammatical Morphemes	3	L2(D)
10-a	Articles(Omission of Articles)	1	L1(T)
10-b	Articles(Needless Insertion and Inappropriate Selection)	2	L1(I)
10-c	Articles(Improper Selection of "a" and "an")	3	L2(D)
11-a	Tense	1	L1(T)
11-b	Tense	3	L2(D)

Note. L1(T), L1(I) and L2(D) refer to L1 Transfer, L1 Interference and L2 Intralingual and Developmental sources.

3.1. Lexical Selection (Class 3 Error): Erroneous use of a semantically-related word (within L2) to replace an unknown word, or use of a phonetically similar word (within L2), due to uncertainty of the memory. (Numbers appearing at the end of the examples correspond to the numbers as listed in the Appendix.)

- (1) He fired the mortar. (48)
He burnt the mortar.

- (2) The devil excused to them. (240)
The devil apoloqized to them.
- (3) That was watched by the president. (89)
That was watched by the feudal lord.
- (4) Then the famous said. (12)
Then the pheasant said.
- (5) One day the dog was breaking. (139)
One day the dog was barking.

In (1) inappropriate selection of the word "fired" occurred due to the speaker's ignorance of the appropriate word "burn". This error is L2 Intralingual Developmental (Class 3 Error), since no possibility of L1 interference at the semantic level is observable.

Likewise, "excused" in (2), "president" in (3), will be replaced by "apologized" and "feudal lord" respectively. (4) and (5) are the examples of the speaker's uncertainty which calls for phonetically similar words: "famous" in (4) and "breaking" in (5) will be replaced by "pheasant" and "barking" respectively.

3.2. Lexical Selection (Class 1 Error): unconscious use of a semantically related L1 word.

- (6) The bad old man was HAPPUND. (47)
The bad old man was angry.
- (7) HORU a dig here. (248)
Dig a hole here.
- (8) So they HORU a dig. (249)

So they dug a hole.

This type of error is very rare. Since Japanese and English are so different, it is not difficult for learners to distinguish English words from Japanese words. However, these are the rare examples. In (6) the speaker used the semantically related Japanese word "HAPPUN" (resentment). Uncertainty causes the confusion between Japanese "HAPPUN" and the phonetically similar English word "happen."

In (7), it is possible to assume that this is a performance error. It is, however, the systematic use of "HORU" in the position of the verb by the same speaker (8) which indicates that he confused "hole" with the Japanese word, "HORU" (to dig).

3.3. Lexical Selection (Class 2 Error): Erroneous use of a word due to L1 interference. The application of the Japanese semantic boundary to the English equivalent is not acceptable in English, or the semantic difference between a Japanese word and the English equivalent cause hindrance to the speaker in the selection of the proper word in L2.

There may be various ways of distinguishing the differences in semantic fields of English and Japanese. But from my own recognition, I attempt to set up three

criteria in order to divide errors of this kind into three sub-types, (3-(a),3-(b),3-(c)). First, one element of L2 corresponds to more than one element in L1, in other words, the element of L2 has a wider semantic field (3-(a)). Secondly, the reverse is the case; that is, an element of L1 has a wider semantic field and corresponds to more than one element of L2 (3-(b)). Thirdly, part of an L1 element corresponds to part of an L2 element (3-(c)). These three classifications are represented as follows;

3-(a)/L1(A)(B)(C) = L2(A'), 3-(b)/L1(A) =
L2(A')(B)'(C'), 3-(c)/L1(A,B) = L2 (A',C').

3a. L1(A)(B)(C) = L2(A')

An element of L2,(A'), corresponds to more than one element of L1. (many-to-one relation)

(9) They thought that the boy was ours. (265)
They thought that the boy was theirs.

L1: KARERA WA SONO OTOKO NO KO GA
They the boy

JIBUNTACHI NO MONO / KARERA NO MONO
themselves theirs

DA TO OMOTTA
is that thought.

Errors of this kind are extremely rare. The above example is not clear, since two interpretations of sources, Class 3 Error and Class 2 Error, for the use

of "ours" instead of "theirs" are possible, but this is the only sentence in the corpus which can be assigned to this type.

First, if we translate "ours" as "WATASHITACHI-NO-MONO," in Japanese, then this error can not be attributed to interference since the unintended meaning would then be the same for both languages, indicating that the boy belongs to the narrator. In this sense this error can be classified as Class 3 Error, because of the lack of an interfering element from L1.

Secondly, if the speaker used "ours" in the sense of "JIBUNTACHI-NO-MONO," then it can be considered an error of the Class 2 subtype. Use of the word, "JIBUNTACHI-NO-MONO," which is the equivalent of "selves," in the Japanese version is grammatical as well as "KARERA-NO-MONO" (theirs). Thus, a "many-to-one" relation: L1 (KARERA NO MONO), (JIBUNTACHI NO MONO) = L2 (theirs), is realized.

3b. $L1(A) = L2(A')(B')(C')$

An element of L1, (A), corresponds to more than one element of L2. (one-to-many relation)

- (10) The bad old woman was looking that. (53)
The bad old woman was watching that.
- (11) Next he saw a pheasant. (119)
Next he met a pheasant.
- (12) The next-door neighbour saw that and

wanted to rent the mortar. (356)
 The next-door neighbour saw that and
 wanted to borrow the mortar.

In (10) the use of "looking" for "watching" can be ascribed to the fact that there is only one verb "MIRU" in Japanese in order to express the action which is described as "look," "see," and "watch" in English. Similarly a Japanese verb "AU" corresponds to "meet" and part of the meaning of "see". A Japanese verb "KARIRU" also covers the whole meaning of "rent" and "borrow".

3c. $L1(A,B) = L2(A',C')$
 A certain phase of an element of L1,
 represented by (A), corresponds to that of
 L2 (A'). (one of many-to one of many relation)

- (13) If you will go with us, I will give you one. (13)
 If you will come with us, I will give you one.
- (14) He brought those millet dumplings. (187)
 He took those millet dumplings.
- (15) But the wolf was found by the old woman. (323)
 But the wolf was discovered by the old woman.

In (13), Japanese has corresponding words, "IKU" and "KURU" for English, "go" and "come" respectively. But in some cases, "IKU" can be used in which "come" is more likely used in English. Confusion of "bring," "MOTTE-KURU" and "take," "MOTTE-IKU" may occur due to

the same cause as well. In (15), "MITSUKERU" (find) can be used in this sense, whereas a use of HAKKEN-SURU (discover) will sound a little exaggerated in Japanese.

3.4. Unnecessary Insertion (Class 1,3 Error): Two types of unnecessary insertion are considered: L1 Transfer (Class 1 Error) and L2 Intralingual and Developmental (Class 3 Error).

4a. Unnecesssary insertion occurs due to the transfer of the different concept of redundancy of L1 to L2; that is, where an element, which is redundant in L2, is not redundant in L1.

(16) He grew up to big soon. (176)
He grew up soon.

(17) He tried to steal their money from the old woman's house. (322)
He tried to steal money from the old woman's house

In (16), English "to grow up" contains the sense to become big; whereas, Japanese "SEICHO-SURU" (to grow up) and "OKIKU-NARU" (to become big) can be combined without redundancy as "SEICHO SHITE OKIKU NARU."

In (17), "their" (the possessive of old woman and the personified rabbit) for money may be redundant. Meanwhile, it is optional in Japanese.

4b. Unnecessary Insertion due to overgeneralization of L2 system (class 3 error).

- (18) The grandfather found out many gold coins.
The grandfather found many gold coins. (141)
- (19) Next day he decided to go to the island where the devil lived in. (220)
Next day he decided to go to the island where the devil lived.

In both examples (18) and (19), "out" and "in" are superfluous and no cause is traceable to L1.

3.5 Erroneous Omission: Errors of omission can be divided into two types as well as Unnecessary Insertion: L1 Transfer (Class 1 Error) and L2 Intralingual and Developmental (Class 3 Error).

5a. Erroneous omission (Class 1 Error) due to the application of L1 concept of redundancy to the L2 system, where the omission of a specific element may not be acceptable.

- (20) If you go to Monster Island with me, then 0 give you one. (13)
If you go to Monster Island with me, (then) I will give you one.
- (21) The grandmother took 0 home. (94)
The grandmother took it home.

In Japanese subject and object can be omitted as long as the omission does not cause ambiguity. In (20), insertion of "WATASHI-WA" (I) in the translation

sounds unnatural. In (21), insertion of "SORE-O" (it) is optional.

5b. Erroneous Omission (Class 3 Error) due to lack of knowledge or understanding, or memory lapse.

- (22) The old man and the old woman wanted o have a child (98)
The old man and the old woman wanted to have a child.
- (23) o The way to the island first he met a dog.
On the way to the island first he met a dog. (114)

The omission of "to-inf" in (22) has no relation to L1, but the speaker may use "wanted" as auxiliary. In (23), the omission of "On" can be attributed to the learner's misunderstanding or incomplete memory of the idiomatic expression.

3.6 Word Order: Errors in word order are classified into three types: Class 1, 2 and 3 Error.

6a. Word Order (Class 1 Error): The transfer of L1 word order turns out to be erroneous in L2

- (24) Once upon a time in a certain place a grandfather and a grandmother lived. (134)

L1: MUKASHI MUKASHI ARU TOKORO NI OJIISAN
TO
Once upon a time certain place in grandfather and

OBAASAN GA SUNDE IMASHITA
grandmother (subject) live ing was

Once upon a time a grandfather and a grandmother lived in a certain place.

(25) The ash threw over the dead trees. (85)

L1: O/(KARE WA) HAI O KAREKI NI
 (He subj.) ash obj. dead trees to

MAITA
 throw/scatter past

He threw the ash over the dead trees.

In (24), the word order of the whole sentence is directly paraphrased from Japanese. In (25), the speaker placed the object "ash" before the verb "threw" as is seen in the Japanese translation. Omission of the subject is also a transfer error (Type-5a).

6b. Word Order (Class 2 Error): The difference between L1 and L2 word order causes confusion to a speaker in producing L2. As a result, the speaker produces a sentence whose word order does not belong to either L1 or L2.

(26) And then down the river drifted a big peach. (103)
 And then a big peach drifted down the river.

(27) When to going to king, just good making flower. (52)
 When he made the trees bloom, the feudal lord was parading by.

(26) is an acceptable sentence, but stylistically marked, form in English. In this context, however, it might be out of place. The word order in (26) does not fit Japanese either.

Thus it is assumed that the notion that Japanese word order and English word order are different can cause the speaker to produce a sentence whose word order is different from either English or Japanese.

(27) is an intact original sentence from the data. Disregarding the other errors, the word order governing this sentence is not that of L1 nor L2.

6c. Word Order (Class 3 Error): Inappropriate use of previously learned L2 word order.

(28) The grandfather asked the man next-door
where was his Pochi. (148)
The grandfather asked the man next-door
where his Pochi was.

(29) A long time ago somewhere an old man and an
old woman who were very honest lived there.
A long time ago somewhere there lived an
old man and an old woman who were very
honest. (57)

The error in (28) is the case when the speaker fails to invert verb and subject in a dependent wh-interrogative clause.

In (29), if the speaker intended to use "there" as a locational adverb, it is repetitious because of

"somewhere." If he intended to use "there" as existential, then it should be placed as is reconstructed above.

3.7 Sentence Structure: Errors in the selection of an appropriate clause, or the necessary change in the construction of a L2 sentence, except inversion: I have classified inversion in word order Type-6c.

Theoretically, it seems possible to consider three types (Class 1,2,3 Error) in this type, but there is no clear evidence of the occurrence of errors from L1 influence in my data. Thus, I will discuss this type of error only as intralingual and developmental (Class 3 Error).

- (30) The dog asked Momotaro to give me one of the millet dumplings. (115)
The dog asked Momotaro to give him one of the millet dumplings.
- (31) Momotaro told his grandmother that he will go to the island tomorrow. (221)
Momotaro told his grandmother that he would go to the island the next day.
- (32) The peach was too big so that it surprised them. (261)
The peach was so big that it surprised them.
- (33) She found peach drift down the river. (170)
She found a peach drifting down the river.

(30) and (31) are examples of failure of the necessary changes in indirect speech. The change of

"me"→"him" and "tomorrow"→"the next day" are seen in Japanese equivalents. The element corresponding to "will" in Japanese is null, but the effectiveness of interpreting the cause as L1 interference is questionable, since the change of "ASHITA"→"TSUGINO HI" ("tomorrow"→"the next day") implies that the change of "will"→"would" is logically (at the deeper level) understandable.

For post-modification in (33), "-ing participle" form should be used.

3.8. Aspect: Errors in aspect of verbs are classified into two types: Class 2 and 3 Error.

8a. Aspect (Class 2 Error): The notion of aspect of verb may be common to English and Japanese, but the way of expressing the notion is not the same. For example, an English sentence, "I know him" will be expressed in Japanese as "WATASHI-WA KARE O SHITTE IRU," "I am knowing him." Besides this, in some cases, Japanese verbs are expressed in English as "be + adj" or "be + -ed" form. These differences sometimes cause interference errors when Japanese speakers produce English sentences.

(34) They had been living happily. (25)
They lived happily.

(35) They angry very much. (70)

They were very angry.

(36) They pleased. (210)
They were pleased.

(37) He was feel very sad. (360)
He felt very sad.

There are two errors with regard to aspect in (34): that is, the use of perfective and progressive. The former is considered intralingual and developmental (Class 3 Error) (Type-8b), since no connection to L1 is obvious in this respect nor is any contextual clue to elicit the use of the perfective aspect observable. Thus, the use of the perfective is assumed to be simply the speaker's whim.

As for the inappropriate use of the progressive, it can be attributed to L1 interference (Class 2 Error). In Japanese, "to live" corresponds to two words "SUMU" (to reside) and "KURASU (to make a living). Both "SUMU" and "KURASU" in past tense are expressed as "SUNDE ITA" (was living) and "KURASHITE ITA" (was living). The simple past form "SUNDA" is only used in perfective and "KURASHITA" is used only in the concluding clauses of the sentence, sometimes followed by an adverb such as "IGO" (ever since).

Examples (35) and (36) are the cases when L1 verbs are expressed "be + adj." or "be + -ed." The English expression corresponding to the Japanese verb "OKORU"

is "be angry" or "get angry." The Japanese verb "YOROKOBU" is expressed as "be pleased" in English.

In (37), the error occurred conversely. The English verb "to feel" corresponds to the Japanese verb "KANJIRU," but the speaker, due to uncertainty of memory, recalled above cases and ended up with an erroneous use of "feel" as an adjective.

8b. Use of inappropriate aspect (Class 3 Error).

- (38) The good grandfather was going toward the dead trees. (50)
The good grandfather went toward the dead trees.

Most errors of this type are the inappropriate use of the progressive aspect. The cause of the erroneous use of progressive in (38) is not attributed to L1.

3.9. Grammatical Morphemes: 3rd person singular /S/ and plural morpheme /S/. /S/ for plural includes the change of the verb "to be" accompanied by the change of number of person.

As far as the difference is concerned, these two /S/s signify the same linguistic difference between English and Japanese; that is, Japanese has no corresponding element to English in either of these two morphemes.

L1 0 = L2 /S/

(L1 has no equivalent element to L2 /S/)

- (39) The grandfather find_ many gold coin_.
(141)
The grandfather finds many gold coins.
- (40) The good old man and woman feels_ sorry.
(74)
The good old man and woman feel sorry.
- (41) They could not get any gold coins or
jewelries. (357)
They could not get any gold coins or
jewelry.
- (42) There were another old man and an old
woman who were not honest. (63)
There was another old man and an old
woman who were not honest.

9a. Omission of /S/ (Class 1 Error): When an error occurs as the omission of /S/ (39), it can be considered as an application of the L1 system and thus regarded as L1 Transfer.

9b. Needless insertion of /S/ (Class 2 Error) : (40) is considered L1 Interference, since the difference between L1 and L2 in regard to Number is assumed to be the factor which causes confusion to the speaker. Use of a wrong form of the verb "to be" (42) is also included in this type and is classified as Type 9-b.

9c. Use of an inappropriate /S/ (Class 3 Error), is considered an Intralingual and Developmental error. This is because L1 influence is assumed to occur at a stage of acquisition when the notion of the /S/ morphemes have been presented, but before the selection of the appropriate allomorph of /S/ has been learned. In order to select an appropriate form of /S/, the information which a speaker needs is within the L2 system. Thus, if the speaker produces an error such as "toothes" for "teeth", it simply indicates the speaker's lack of knowledge in the L2 system or a temporary lapse of memory.

The error in (41) is considered Intralingual and Developmental (Class 3 Error), since it seems more appropriate to regard the erroneous attachment of /S/ in "jewelry" as a by-product of the speaker's ignorance of collective nouns, rather than his misunderstanding of fundamental plurality.

3.10. Articles: Omission, needless insertion and inadequate selection of articles (Class 1,2,3 Errors).

Errors in articles were the most frequent type of errors encountered. Omission of articles is most often observed at the beginning levels, whereas the

most common errors at more advanced levels are needless insertion or inadequate selection of articles.

10a. Omission of articles (Class 1 Error)

(43) 0 bad grandfather and 0 bad grandmother
 lived next to the house. (27)

A bad grandfather and a bad grandmother
 lived next to the house.

The cause of article omissions (43) is considered L1 Transfer (Class 1 Error), since Japanese has no indefinite article and the definite article is used only when a noun needs to be specified.

The English indefinite article indicates as part of its meaning that the following noun is singular, while in Japanese a numerical adjective is placed before or after the noun only when it is considered necessary to indicate the number of the noun, e.g. "HITOTSU KIBIDANGO O KUDASAI" (one, millet dumpling, obj., give me), or "KIBIDANGO O HITOTSU KUDASAI" (millet dumpling, obj., one, give me).

Therefore, except in the case of specifying the number of the noun, no article is used. Thus, it is assumed that as the result of the application of this Japanese rule, omission of articles occurs.

10b. Needless Insertion and Inappropriate Selection of Articles (Class 2 Error)

The difference between the English definite article "the" and the Japanese equivalent "SONO" is not as clear as the difference in indefinite articles. If the English definite article is used only in referring to an earlier mentioned item, the difference between "the" and "SONO" is only functional. That is, "the" can not precede a pronoun, while "SONO" can.

In actual usage, however, the relation between the English definite article and anaphoric reference is not so clear. With reference to this problem, Quirk (1973) cites the following example, "John asked his wife to put on the kettle while he looked in the paper to see what was on the radio." and comments:

No prior mention of a kettle, a paper, a radio is needed, since these things are part of the cultural situation.

In addition to the above case, the English definite article is used with plural names, geographic names, public institutions and newspapers, none of which requires anaphoric reference.

The extensive use of "the" seems to semantically distance it from Japanese "SONO", and hinders learners in acquiring the proper notion of the L2 definite and indefinite article. As a result, it is assumed that

needless insertion of articles (44) and inadequate selection of articles (45) occur as a result of interference.

- (44) When the grandfather made some rice cakes with the mortar, the he got a lot of gold coins. (152)
When the grandfather made some rice cakes with the mortar, he got a lot of gold coins.
- (45) Momotaro went back home with a treasures. (21)
Momotaro went back home with the treasures.

10c. Improper Selection of "a" and "an" (Class 3 Error)

The only conceivable case of L2 Intralingual and Developmental errors in the use of articles is the improper selection of morphophonemic variation of the indefinite articles "a" and "an" (46)

- (46) Once upon a time there lived a old man and his wife in a desert village. (375)
Once upon a time there lived an old man and his wife in a desert village.

As far as the selection of "a" and "an" is concerned, no relation to the L1 system is seen. (46) is the only sentence obtained including an error of this kind.

3.11. Tense. (Class 1,3 Errors)

Errors in tense as well as in articles are the most frequent errors throughout the corpus. Because of the nature of the topic, or the stories used for obtaining the data, most of the sentences ought to have been stated in the past tense. However, many of them seemed to lack any definite tense. That is, because of the absence of the 3rd person singular /S/, it was difficult to determine tense.

11a. L1 Transfer in Tense (Class 1 Error)

The notion of tense is universal and both English and Japanese have a past tense. In both languages past tense is marked by past tense morphemes: "-ed" in English and "-ta" in Japanese. The possible L1 influence occurs only when the expression of L1 and L2 differs in connection with tense; that is, in the case of complex sentences.

In a Japanese complex sentence, tense is marked only where an action or a state is discontinued. Thus, no matter how many clauses follow, the unmarked tense (present tense) is used until the state is interrupted. However, in English, tense agreement is enforced.

- (47) One day when she go to the river as usual, a very big peach came down to her from the

top of the mountain. (380)

One day when she went to the river as usual, a very big peach came down to her from the top of the mountain.

(47) is a clear example of when this L1 rule is transferred into the L2 system.

11b. L2 Intralingual and Developmental Errors in Tense
(Class 3 Error)

(47) is a rare type of error in tense. The rest of the errors in tense are L2 Intralingual and Developmental, but in most of the cases the cause can not be attributed to the speaker's ignorance or uncertainty of the L2 system. Since many of the Japanese students among the participants had at least six years of previous English education it is absurd to assume that they were still incapable of producing the English past tense. Therefore, I assume that the errors in tense in simple sentences were due to the short span of time in which the students had to produce speech in a second language. Attributing the errors to the greater pressure associated with producing L2 material orally in a short period of time seems reasonable in view of the fact that in written composition where the participants were given more time to produce sentences, the errors in tense of this

kind were very few. (I arbitrarily collected written samples from the students of level 3,4 and 6.) Examples of Class 3 tense errors from the oral corpus are given below.

(48) Momotaro win. (200)
Momotaro won.

(49) He is very angry. (146)
He was very angry.

(50) Once upon a time there is a good old couple and a bad old man. (165)

Once upon a time there was a good old couple and a bad old man.

Chapter IV: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

4.1. Results by Source and Type.

Numbers of errors according to the eleven types for each group, which have been discussed in Chapter III are indicated in Table 2. Numbers of errors by sources (L1 Transfer, L1 Interference and L2 Intralingual and Developmental) are indicated in Table 3. Finally, by using the numbers obtained from Table 2, ratios of errors regarding the sources of each group are calculated and shown in Table 4.

Table 2 Number of Errors According to Type

Type	Source	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
1	L2(D)	72	33	33	43
2	L1(T)	1	0	2	0
3a	L1(I)	0	0	1	0
3b	L1(I)	19	6	9	9
3c	L1(I)	11	8	13	19
4a	L1(T)	2	5	1	2
4b	L2(D)	13	12	17	10
5a	L1(T)	23	14	7	7
5b	L2(D)	37	18	19	12
6a	L1(T)	5	2	0	0
6b	L1(I)	1	2	0	0
6c	L2(D)	3	2	2	0
7	L2(D)	2	2	9	4
8a	L1(I)	4	0	2	5
8b	L2(D)	7	1	1	0
9a	L1(T)	2(9)	3(21)	1(7)	3(13)
9b	L1(I)	1	0	0	5
9c	L2(D)	11	6	8	3
10a	L1(T)	65	38	40	31
10b	L1(I)	8	9	10	8
10c	L2(D)	0	0	0	1
11a	L1(T)	1	3	1	4
11b	L2(D)	53	37	33	26

Note 1. L1(T), L1(I) and L2(D) refer to L1 Transfer,

L1 Interference and L2 Intralingual and Developmental.

Note 2. Number in parenthesis refers to the number of errors of absence of tense: i.e. omission of 3rd person singular /S/.

Total number of errors by sources is indicated in Table 3.

Table 3 Total Number of Errors by Sources

<u>Source</u>	<u>Group 1</u>	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 3</u>	<u>Group 4</u>
L1(T)	99	65	52	47
L1(I)	44	25	35	46
L2(D)	198	111	122	99
TOTAL	341	201	209	192

The ratio of each source is calculated as follows.

Table 4 Error to Source Ratios

<u>Source</u>	<u>Group 1</u>	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 3</u>	<u>Group 4</u>	<u>All Groups</u>
L1(T)	29.1%	32.3%	24.8%	24.4%	27.65%
L1(I)	12.9%	12.5%	16.8%	24.0%	16.55%
L2(D)	58.0%	55.2%	58.4%	51.6%	55.8%
Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

The overall ratio of errors influenced by L1 (L1 Transfer and L1 Interference errors) and L2 Intralingual and Developmental errors is; L1 44.2% and L2 55.8% (averaged ratio of all the errors influenced by L1, and L2 Intralingual and Developmental errors). This ratio indicates that in the corpus the frequency of errors of L2 source is 11.6% (55.8% - 44.2%) higher than that of L1 source.

It is obvious that the total number of errors decreases with the improvement of L2 proficiency

(Table 3, Total). The balance of L1 influenced errors (L1(T)+L1(I)) and L2 Intralingual and Developmental errors seems to reverse by improvement of the learners' proficiency.

As for errors influenced by L1, it can be said that Transfer errors decrease in the more advanced group whereas Interference errors increase as proficiency increases. This phenomenon appears to imply that L1 Transfer errors are more common in elementary groups than in advanced groups and thus they are easier to overcome than L1 Interference errors.

4.2. Difficulty Hierarchy

It has previously been noted that the comparison of difficulty is only possible by means of their persistence and frequency. Furthermore, errors which can not be categorized by the same standard of comparison (frame of reference) can not be compared. Thus it is one of the prerequisites for the comparison of difficulty that the error is categorizable under certain norms (frames of reference). It is also required that the speaker have some knowledge of the element of the L2 system behind the error. This is

because measurements of elements unknown to learners are impossible.

Considering the above factors, I will first examine errors influenced by L1 by setting up norms based on characteristic differences between English and Japanese. Then, the types of errors will be reorganized according to these criteria. From the result, a hierarchy of difficulty of L1 influence errors will be hypothesized. Further discussion of the difficulty hierarchy will be made in connection with the L2 system and its complexity of rules in case any types of errors do not fit the hypothesized hierarchy.

As the frames of reference (norms) for the characteristic differences of L1 and L2, which connote the types classified as L1(T) and L1(I), I extensively use the frames of reference which I have used in Chapter III.3 (a,b,c) Lexical Selection, by adding two more norms (N-4,N-5) to cover the rest of the types of errors which can not be categorized by the previous three frames of reference (N-1,N-2,N-3).

N-1 $L1(A)(B)(C) = L2(A')$
 An element of L2,(A'), corresponds to more than one element in L1.

In chapter III, the term "element" is limited to only lexical items; henceforth the limitation is extended to include elements of other types of errors.

For example, Type 4(a), Unnecessary Insertion due to the different concept of redundancy of L1 to L2, is categorized under this norm (N-1) as well as Type 3(a), Lexical Selection. That is because an element of L2(A') is considered to correspond to an element of L1(A) plus (B), a redundant element to L2.

N-2 $L1(A) = L2(A')(B')(C')$
An element of L1(A), corresponds to more than one element in L2.

This is the reverse case of N-1, thus, Type 5a, (Erroneous Omission due to the application to L2 system of the L1 redundancy concept) is included in N-2, in addition to Type 3(b), Lexical Selection.

N-3 $L1(A,B) = L2(A',C')$
Part of L1 element corresponds to part of L2.

Besides these, Type 3c, (Lexical Selection) Type 8a, (Aspect), and errors in the definite article "the" in Type 10 (Articles), are categorized under N-3.

N-4 $L1 \emptyset = L2(A)$
L2 has an element absent in L1.

Type 9, Grammatical morphemes /S/ and indefinite article "a" in Type 10 (Articles) are included in N-4.

N-5 $L1(A) = L2(B)$
L1 and L2 have no corresponding element.

Type 6, word order is categorized under N-5.

By using these norms, seven types of errors

influenced by L1, namely, 3(a,b,c), 4(a), 5(a), 6(a,b), 8(a), 9(a,b), 10(a,b) are reorganized under the five categories.

Table 5 indicates the description of the five categories (norms) and the types which belong to the categories.

Table 5 Descriptions and Types by Five Categories

<u>Cat.</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Types</u>	<u>Class</u>
N-1	L1(A)(B)(C) = L2(A)	3a Lexical Selection	2
		4a Unnecessary Insertion	1
N-2	L1(A) = L2(A')(B')(C')	3b Lexical Selection	2
		5a Erroneous Omission	1
N-3	L1(A,B) = L2(A',C')	3c Lexical Selection	2
		8a Aspect	2
		10a/b ("the") Article	1/2
N-4	L10 = L2(A)	9a/b Grammatical Morphemes	1/2
		10a/b ("a") Article	1/2
N-5	L1(A) = L2(B)	6a/b Word Order	1/2

Table 6 indicates the number of errors obtained by adding the number of errors of the types which belong to each category (norm).

Table 6 Number of Errors by Five Categories

<u>Cat.</u>	<u>Group 1</u>	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 3</u>	<u>Group 4</u>
N-1	2	5	2	2
N-2	42	20	16	16
N-3	70	39	52	58
N-4	21	19	14	13
N-5	6	4	0	0

The error decrease rate of each category in accordance with the improvement of the speakers' proficiency is obtained by dividing the number of each group by the numbers of group 1. Error decrease rate is computed to present a clear view of how the occurrence of errors in five categories decreases or increases with the improvement of the speakers' proficiency. The greater the rate, the more noticeable is the degree of improvement in respect of a particular element.

Table 7 Error Decrease Rate

<u>Category</u>	<u>Group 2</u>	<u>Group 3</u>	<u>Group 4</u>
N-1	0.4	1.0	1.0
N-2	2.1	2.6	2.6
N-3	1.8	1.3	1.2
N-4	1.1	1.5	1.6
N-5	1.5	6*	6*

* Because of null error, a numeric quantity of 1 was inserted in order to obtain an approximate rate.

In Table 5, N-5, N-2 and N-4 show a positive tendency in overcoming difficulty with N-5 being most

prominent. On the other hand N-1 stays the same. N-3 is considered the most difficult category while N-5 is considered the least difficult.

Using this information, the hierarchy is drawn as follows:

Table 8 Hierarchy of Difficulty by Five Categories

Most Difficult

	<u>Cat.</u>	<u>Type</u>
L1(A,B)=L2(A'C')	N-3	3c, 8a, 10a/b("the")
L1(A)(B)(C)=L2(A')	N-1	3a, 4a/b
L1 0=L2(A)	N-4	9a/b, 10a/b("a")
L1(A)=L2(A')(B')(C')	N-2	3b, 5a/b
L1(A)=L2(B)	N-5	6a/b

Least Difficult

In Table 8, Type 9 (Grammatical Morpheme /S/) belongs to N-4 as well as Type 10("a"). However, the error decrease rate with the improvement of L2 proficiency of Type 10 is as negative as those of 8a (Aspect) or 3c (Lexical Selection) which belong to the most difficult category.

Table 9. Error Decrease Rate by Type

Type	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
3-a	1*	0.5*	1*
3-b	3.17	2.11	2.11
3-c	5	1.43	0.77
4-a	0.4	2.0	1.0
5-a	1.64	3.29	3.29
6-a,b	1.5	6*	6*
7	1.0	0.22	0.5
8-a	4*	2.0	0.8
9-a,b	1.0	0.33	0.27
10-a,b("the")	1.77	1.49	1.62
10-a,b("a")	1.13	1.38	3.60
11-a,b	1.35	1.59	1.80
	3.63	1.71	1.32
	1.55	1.46	1.87

* Because of null error, a numeric quantity of 1 was inserted in order to obtain an approximate rate.

The discrepancy of Type 9a/b and Type 10a/b("a") seems to be attributed to the degree of complexity of rules with regard to Number and Indefinite article. On the other hand, Type 4a (Erroneous Insertion of L2 Redundant Element) and Type 5a (Omission of L1 Redundant Element) have a reversed relationship with regard to the characteristics of errors, and have the same level of complexity of the L2 system. But Type 4 belongs to a more difficult class than Type 5. It is assumed that these phenomena indicate the correlation between the level of L1/L2 difference and the degree of the complexity within the L2 system. If the level of L1/L2 difference is the same, the element with more complex rules within the L2 system is more difficult

to learn. If the degree of complexity in the L2 system of two elements is the same, the difficulty will follow the difficulty hierarchy indicated in Table 8.

Table 10 is the tentative difficulty hierarchy of ten error types as outlined in my analysis. Types 8 and 12 are included to show their decreasing rates of occurrence with the improvement of the speakers' proficiency. Types 1, 2 and 7 are not included, since they are unknown elements for the speakers and do not meet the prerequisite for the measurement of difficulty, which I have discussed in Chapter II. Type 11 is excluded, since errors of tense are considered as performance errors.

Table 10 Hierarchy of Difficulty by Type

Most Difficult	7
	3, 4, 9
	8

	10, 11

Least Difficult	5, 6

4.3 Summary of the Discussion

In table 2, the total number of errors obtained from the four hundred sentences are indicated by group

and the three sources. The numbers indicated in Table 3 show that the total number of each group decreases according to the improvement of L2 proficiency, although the total number of errors in Group 3 (209) is only a little more than that of Group 2 (201), but the total number of Group 4 (192) is small enough to assume this tendency of decrease.

From the ratios obtained as shown in Table 4, four facts are revealed. One is that L1 Transfer errors decrease according to the improvement of L2 proficiency, although the ratios of Group 1 (29.1%) and Group 2 (32.3%) are reversed but otherwise this tendency is observed. Second, again there is a minor discrepancy between Group 1 (12.9%) and Group 2 (12.5%) but, on the whole it can be assumed that L1 Interference errors increase proportionately in higher groups (Group 3 16.8%, Group 4 24%). Third, Intralingual and Developmental errors seem to decrease according to the improvement of L2 proficiency. The dramatic increase in Group 3 (58.4%) may imply that students in Group 3 tend to use more complex structures in producing L2 than the students of Group 2 (55.2%). The ratios in L2(D) suggest a sort of cycle in L2 learning; that is, up to a certain point learners test new hypotheses concerning L2 structures, then, after acquiring those tested elements, they

attempt to meet further challenges presented by L2. Fourth, the total percentages of errors influenced by L1 and L2 Intralingual and Developmental errors are shown as: L1 (44.2%) and L2 (55.8%).

All types of errors, except Type 1,2,7 and 11, are reorganized under five categories (N-1, N-2, N-3, N-4 and N-5) in order to compare the degree of persistency (see Table 4). In order to study their transition; that is, how the error rates change according to the improvement of L2 proficiency, the results shown in Table 7, (Error Decrease Rate) are computed. In Table 7, it is shown that the rate is smallest in the N-1 category (0.4-1.0-1.0); that is, N-1 can be assumed to be the most difficult category among the five, whereas the rate of N-5 is largest (1.5-6*-6*), which indicates that N-5 represents the easiest category. From the rates shown in Table 8, the number of errors are reviewed by referring to Table 9 and the hierarchy is readjusted in Table 10.

4.4 Conclusion

1. Summary

In order to investigate the factor which causes difficulty for second language learners, I analysed errors from speech samples, emphasizing morpho-syntactic and semantic aspects. These samples were obtained from Japanese students who were learning English as a second language at San Diego State University.

First, I redefined the errors as by-products of L2 learners' incomplete competence. I then clarified the concept of difficulty from its durational sequence of overcoming errors. I set up three sources of errors: L1 Transfer, L1 Interference and L2 Intralingual and Developmental. Based on these three sources, I classified errors into 11 types for analysis.

As a result of the analysis, it has been disclosed that L2 Intralingual and Developmental and L1 Transfer errors decrease, while L1 Interference errors increase with the improvement of the speakers' English proficiency. Secondly, errors are most difficult to overcome when there is partial correspondence in the elements between L1 and L2. Thirdly, it has also been revealed that the degree of complexity of rules in elements of the L2 system is another factor which determines the degree of difficulty.

Finally, the analysis of tense suggests the existence of a type of performance error which reflects the speakers' transitional competence. This error can be attributed to latent psychological factors of second language learning involved in speech production. That is, there is a possibility that the learners are psychologically restrained by the L1 order of tense placement in producing sentences. In Japanese, the past tense morpheme "-TA" is generally placed at the end of the sentence. Therefore, if the speaker is psychologically restrained by the location of the L1 past tense morpheme, the speaker may miss the chance to place the past tense in producing an English sentence, unless the verb of the sentence comes at the end.

2. Suggestions for Future Study

For this study, I tape recorded speech samples from groups consisting of three to four students. It was recognized that in some cases the following speaker repeated the error of the former speaker. These errors can be called induced errors and could be avoided by using an isolated interview space or other effective technique.

When analyzing errors, it must first be decided

whether or not to do so from the sentential or discourse perspective. In the latter case, the treatment of logical authenticity; that is, how accurately the speaker follows the context with regard to grammaticality may cause difficulty in reconstructing sentences. For example, a sentence such as (323); "But the wolf was found by the old woman." is grammatical only if there is an indication in the context that the old woman was looking for the wolf. But for the contextual indication, "was discovered" should be used rather than "was found".

In order to establish a more comprehensive hierarchy for pedagogical purposes, it is necessary to set up a convincing norm to categorize the complexity of rules in the L2 system as well as the differences between L1 and L2.

Finally there is a possibility that language difficulties do not necessarily appear as errors. Learners may avoid using difficult elements. For instance, very few relative clauses were obtained in the corpus of this study. Although it is undetermined if this phenomenon simply suggests methodological shortcomings, i.e., selection of the topic, the result seems to support tacitly what Schachter (1974) or Kellerman (1983) claims:

Although interference errors are the most easily visible evidence for L1 influence,

such errors should not be assumed to be the only evidence. For instance, the possibility of "avoidance" of L2 features seems to grow as L1-L2 differences grow (Kellerman, 1983:128).

In teaching a second language, it is undoubtedly a great advantage if a teacher has a sufficient knowledge of his student's mother tongue. That is because in second language learning, contrary to first language acquisition, learners tend to grasp elements of the L2 system logically, often with reference to their L1 system. Therefore, the teacher who is knowledgeable of L1 is capable of providing effective clues for his students which enable them to overcome interference difficulties. Instruction not based on an understanding of the causes of difficulties may lead his/her students in the wrong direction; for instance he/she may encourage students simply to avoid using specific elements which cause difficulties.

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Appendix: Speech Samples

Group 1

Note 1. First sentence is the essential component of original sentence (Step 2). The sentence under is the reconstructed one.

Note 2. Words in capital letters are Japanese words, which the speakers used deliberately.

1. Once upon a time once upon a time somewhere grandmother and grandfather lived in the near the river.

Once upon a time a grandfather and a grandmother lived somewhere near a river.

2. Then grandfather went to the wood cut the tree.
The grandfather went to the forest to cut some wood.

3. And grandmother went to wash in the river.
The grandmother went to the river to wash clothes.

4. Then grandmother looked a peach over there.
Then the grandmother found a peach over there.

5. She bring peach to her house.
She brought the peach to her house.

6. Grandfather go home and cut peach.
The grandfather went back home and cut the peach.

7. Child was born in from peach.
A baby was born from the peach.

8. When he grow up, he went to ONIGASHIMA to ONITAIJI.
When he grew up, he went to Monster Island to conquer the ONI monsters.

9. He said to his grandmother, "Please cook KIBIDANGO for me."

He said to his grandmother, "Please cook some millet dumplings for me."

10. Momotaro take KIBIDANGO TO ONIGASHIMA.

Momotaro took some millet dumplings to Monster Island.

11. Momotaro taked go to going to ONIGASHIMA.

Momotaro was on his way to Monster Island.

12. Then famous said, "Give me KIBIDANGO."

A pheasant said to him, "Give me a millet dumpling."

13. Momotaro said, "You are going to ONIGASHIMA with me, then give you and monkey.

Momotaro said to the pheasant, "If you go to Monster Island with me, I will give you one."

14. Momotaro arrived ONIGASHIMA.

Momotaro arrived at Monster Island.

15. He looks look for over there.

He looked around the island.

16. ONI ONI is stay here.

Oni monsters were there.

17. Momotaro and dog and cat no dog and KIJU and monkey fighting a ONI.

Momotaro, the dog, the pheasant and the monkey fought with Oni monsters.

18. Momotaro win won.

Momotaro won.

19. And Momotaro say, "I want a TAKARAMONO."

Momotaro said to the monsters, "I want some treasures."

20. ONI say, "OK."

The Oni monsters said to Momotaro, "O.K."

21. Momotaro bring back a treasures to home.

Momotaro went back home with the treasures.

22. Grandmother and grandfather wait wait to him.

His grandfather and grandmother waited for him.

23. Momotaro say, "I'm win won. Look this TAKARAMONO."

Momotaro said to them, "I won. Look at these treasures."

24. Grandmother and grandfather say, "It's very good."
His grandmother and grandfather said to him, "That's very good."

25. They have been living happy.
They lived happily.

26. Once upon a time, long long ago there are good grandfather and good grandmother is one couple one house in house.

Once upon a time, long long ago there was a good grandfather and a good grandmother in a house.

27. Next near the house was bad grandfather dirty grandfather and dirty grandmother live.

A bad grandfather and a bad grandmother lived next to the house.

28. Good family was one dog in the house.
The good family had a dog in the house.

29. Dog he said to grandfather, "Dig here dig, bow wow."

The dog said to the grandfather, "Dig here, bowwow."

30. Grandfather was dig digging.
The grandfather dug there.

31. Look at many gold and many jewelry.
He found much gold and jewelry.

32. Its situation look at situation next dirty grandfather.

The next-door neighbour watched the scene.

33. Dirty grandfather said, "May I borrow your dog?"
The bad grandfather said to the good grandfather, "May I borrow your dog?"

34. "OK" good grandfather said, "OK, you rent for my dog."

The good grandfather said, "O.K., you can borrow my dog."

35. But, this dog different place.

The dog pointed him to the wrong place.

36. Dirty grandfather was hole digging, but waste many waste look at he can see waste many waste only waste only many waste.

The bad grandfather dug the place, but he could find only waste.

37. He afraid.

He got angry.

38. Dog was killed by dirty grandfather.

The dog was killed by the bad grandfather.

39. Dog was under the ground near the tree under the ground.

The dog was under the ground near the tree.

40. Good grandfather cut the its tree.

The good grandfather cut the tree.

41. He made USU.

He made a mortar from the tree.

42. And he made a MOCHI.

He made some rice cakes.

43. Mochi in the jewelry.

A lot of jewelry came out from the rice cakes.

44. Dirty old woman was, "May I borrow USU?"

The bad old woman said, "May I borrow the mortar?"

45. "O.K."

They said , "O.K."

46. Dirty old woman was making rice cakes, but not good jewelry."

The bad old woman made some rice cakes, but no jewelry came out.

47. But so dirty old father was happened.

So the bad old man was angry.

48. So fire it this USU.

So he burnt the mortar.

49. Good old father was, "May I borrow USU HAI?".

The good grandfather said to the bad grandfather, "Will you return the ash of the mortar to me?"

50. Good old father was going to tree.

The good grandfather went toward the dead trees.

51. Old father is making makes flower.

The good grandfather made the dead trees bloom.

52. When to going to king, just good making flower.

When he made the trees bloom, the feudal lord was parading by.

53. Dirty old woman was looking this.

The bad old woman was watching that.

54. Dirty old woman was going tree, but not making flower.

The bad old woman went toward the trees, but she could no make them bloom.

55. But so king is looking, not flower were flower.

The feudal lord was watching and blamed her for being unable to make them bloom.

56. This dirty old woman was killed.

The bad old woman was killed.

57. Long long time ago, somewhere old woman and old man who is very honest is there.

A long time ago somewhere there lived an old woman and an old man who were very honest.

58. He they keep the dog.

They kept a dog.

59. Dog is very very very serious.

The dog was very clever.

60. The dog call to them, "You had better come here HORU here. It is good for you."

The dog said to them, "Come here. Dig here. It is good for you."

61. They HORU here.

They dug there.

62. And so they find they find jewelry.

Then they found some jewelry.

63. There are another the old man and the old woman who is not honest.

There was another old man and an old woman who were not honest.

64. They are honest old man and old woman neighbour.

They were the neighbours of the honest old man and woman.

65. Not honest old woman and the old man watched them.

The dishonest old man and woman watched them finding jewelry.

66. Not honest man and old man think about it thought about it this is this things for them.

The dishonest man and woman thought that the jewelry was theirs.

67. So they borrowed the dog for them.

So they borrowed the dog.

68. And they said to the dog, "HORE here."

They said to the dog, "Dig here."

69. The dog HOTTA, but they can't couldn't find jewel.

The dog dug the place, but they could not find any jewels.

70. They ugly very much.

They got very angry.

71. And they killed the dog.

And they killed the dog.

72. And they UMELU the dog.

They buried the dog.

73. The honest old woman old man and old woman heard it.

The honest old man and woman heard about it.

74. The honest old man and woman feels sorry.

The good old man and woman felt sorry.

75. They give they KAESHITE MORATTE and HAKA NI UMERU.

They took back the carcass of the dog from the dishonest man's house and buried it.

76. They UMERU under the tree.

They buried it under the tree.

77. And under the tree the tree they was maked by the USU was maked by the tree.

They made a mortar from the tree under which the dog was buried.

78. The USU he maked MOCHI by USU its USU.

He made some rice cakes with the mortar.

79. While they was making MOCHI, they find jewels in the USU.

When they were making rice cakes, they found some jewels coming out from the mortar.

80. The flowers blossom grandfather's story.

The story of the old man who made flowers bloom.

81. Give to the USU bad grandfather by makes, but scrap scraps in place.

Borrowing the mortar the bad grandfather made some rice cakes, but only scraps came out.

82. Bad grandfather's next sign scrap.

The bad grandfather found only scraps.

83. OKOTTA grandfather is this USU fire.

The bad grandfather got angry and burnt the mortar.

84. This look at good grandfather.

The good grandfather saw this.

85. Ash give to ground on the ground.

When the ash of the mortar was thrown over the dead trees,

86. It's new blossom flowers very beautiful.
they bloomed beautifully.

87. It's look at bad grandfather.
That was watched by the bad grandfather.

88. Give to ash its ash ground on the ground, but no good new flower.

The bad grandfather scattered the ashes over the ground, but no flowers bloomed.

89. It's look look at president is bad grandfather SEIBAI O SHITE KORASHIMETA.

That was watched by the feudal lord. And then the bad grandfather was punished.

90. Long long years ago once upon a time, there live in there live in grandmother and grandfather.

Long, long ago there lived a grandfather and a grandmother.

91. Grandfather is cutting cutting in the mountain cutting wood in the mountain.

The grandfather was cutting wood on the mountain.

92. Grandmother is washing the cross.

The grandmother was washing the clothes.

93. Just just follow in the river large peach.

Then a large peach was drifting down the river.

94. Grandmother is bring take home.

The grandmother took the peach home.

95. So grandfather is was cut.

Then the grandfather cut it.

96. And so a boy was born in the large peach.

A baby was born from the peach.

97. His name is Momotaro.

His name was Momotaro.

98. Grandmother and grandfather want have a child.
The grandfather and the grandmother wanted to have a child.

99. So they are very happy.
So they were very happy.

100. And one day he said, "I will go and I want to go kill the devil. So I want ONIGIRI."

One day he said to his foster parents, "I want to go to Monster Island to kill the monsters. So I want some millet dumplings."

Group 2

101. Long long ago there's grandfather and grandmother a place.

Long long ago there was a grandfather and a grandmother in a certain place.

102. A day a grandmother go to washing at the river.

One day the grandmother went to the river to wash some clothes.

103. And then up the river stream the big peach.

And then a big peach drifted down the river.

104. She take up and bring their house.

She picked up the peach and took it to her house.

105. And they cut the big peach.

They cut the big peach.

106. And then its appear the big baby in the big peach.

Then there appeared in the peach a big baby.

107. They are surprise and they called Momotaro.

They were surprised and called him Momotaro.

108. They love.

They loved him.

109. He grew up and ONI came to the village and very bad thing.

When he grew up, Oni monsters came to the village and did very bad things.

110. So Momotaro go to ONIGASHIMA.

Then Momotaro decided to go to Monster Island.

111. So he asked grandmother to make a KIBIDANGO.

He asked the grandmother to cook some millet dumplings.

112. Grandmother made a KIBIDANGO.

The grandmother cooked some millet dumplings.

113. And he go to island of ONIGASHIMA.

He went to Monster Island.

114. The way first he met the dog.

On the way to the island he met a dog at first.

115. Dog asked Momotaro, "Please give me one KIBIDANGO."

The dog said to Momotaro, "Please give me one millet dumpling."

116. So he said, "If you go to ONIGASHIMA with me, we'll give you."

Momotaro said to him, "If you will go to the Monsters Island with me, I will give you one."

117. So dog answered it.

The dog agreed to his offer.

118. And dog go with him.

The dog went to the island with him.

119. And next he saw KIJU.

Next he met a pheasant.

120. KIJU answered Momotaro, "Please give me KIBIDANGO."

The pheasant said to Momotaro, "Please give me one millet dumpling."

121. And he said, "If you go to ONIGASHIMA with me, I will give you."

He said, "If you will go to the Monsters Island with me, I will give you one."

122. And KIJI go to ONIGASHIMA with him.
Then the pheasant went to the island with him.

123. And next he met monkey.
Next he met a monkey.

124. Monkey said the same thing.
The monkey asked Momotaro the same thing as the former animals did.

125. And he he Momotaro said, "If you go with us, so you will get a KIBIDANGO."
Momotaro said, "If you will come with us, I will give you one."

126. And Momotaro, dog, KIJI and monkey go to ONIGASHIMA.

Momotaro, the dog, the pheasant and the monkey went to the island.

127. And KIJI and SARU and dog and Momotaro went to ONIGASHIMA.

A pheasant, a monkey, a dog and Momotaro went to the island.

128. And they attacked ONI.
They attacked the Oni-monsters.

129. And they were fighting and ONI.
They were fighting with the Oni monsters.

130. And finally ONI gave up.
Finally the Oni monsters gave up.

131. And ONI gave them a many many treasure.
The Oni monsters gave them much treasure.

132. And they went back.
They went back.

133. And grandfather and grandmother were happy.
The grandfather and the grandmother were happy.

134. Once upon a time, in one place grandfather and grandmother live lived.

Once upon a time, a grandfather and a grandmother lived in a certain place.

135. The grandfather is very kindly.

The grandfather was very kind.

136. He have had dog.

He had a dog.

137. His name was Pochi.

Its name was Pochi.

138. Pochi was very clever.

Pochi was very clever.

139. One day Pochi was breaking, "Bow wow this dig this place."

One day Pochi was barking, "Bowwow dig here."

140. The grandfather dig that place.

The grandfather dug that place.

141. So many gold coin the grandfather find out gold coin.

The grandfather found many gold coins.

142. That scene next door live man see saw that scene.

The man next-door watched that scene.

143. The next door's man said the grandfather, "May I borrow the Pochi?"

The man next-door said to the grandfather, "May I borrow Pochi?"

144. The grandfather say said, "Yes."

The grandfather said, "Yes."

145. But, when the grandfa when the next door's man dig on the ground, he didn't find out many much gold coin.

When the man next-door dug the ground, however, he could not find any gold coins.

146. He is very angry.

He was very angry.

147. He killed Pochi.

He killed Pochi.

148. The grandfather find grandfather asked the next door's man, "Where was my Pochi?".

The grandfather asked the man next-door where his Pochi was.

149. But Pochi was dead Pochi dead.

Pochi had been killed.

150. And the grandfather take take the Pochi a grave of Pochi on the tree.

The grandfather made a grave for Pochi under the tree.

151. The grandfather make the tree the grandfather made from of from the tree USU.

The grandfather made a mortar from the tree.

152. When grandfather cook the MOCHI with the USU, the he take much gold coin.

When the grandfather made some rice cakes with the mortar, he got a lot of gold coins.

153. The next door's man saw that scene.

The man next-door saw that.

154. The next door's man borrow the USU, but the next door's man couldn't take much gold coin.

The man next-door borrowed the mortar and made some rice cakes, but he could not get any gold coins.

155. And he was angry.

He was angry.

156. So he was he was fire the USU.

He burnt the mortar.

157. Grandfather borrowed ash from next door old man.

The grandfather borrowed the ashes of the mortar from the next-door neighbour.

158. When he scattered ash ash to trees, flower bloomed.

When he scattered the ashes over the trees, they bloomed.

159. The DAIMYO saw that scene.

The feudal lord saw that.

160. He was very surprised.

He was very surprised.

161. And and grandfather was became very rich man.

The grandfather became very rich.

162. The next door old man saw that scene.

The next-door neighbour saw that.

163. And he did he did, but but flower is didn't bloom.

He tried to make flowers bloom, but he could not succeed.

164. He is embarrassed.

He was embarrassed.

165. Once upon a time, there're old good couple and bad old man.

Once upon a time there was a good old couple and a bad old couple.

166. One day Pochi, the dog's name, bow somewhere.

One day Pochi, the name of the dog of the good couple, barked somewhere.

167. A man of old couple saw that scene.

The old man of the good couple found the dog.

168. He dig the place where the dog bow.

He dug the place where the dog barked.

169. And then she was washing clothing and something.

She was washing clothing and some other things.

170. And then she found out a peach one peach in the river. One peach flow down in the river.

Then she found a peach drifting down the river.

171. And then she cought one.

She caught it.

172. And then she took brong one in her their house.
Then she took it to her house.

173. And she said to the her husband, "I found out a big peach in the river. Shall we cut?".

She said to her husband, "I found a big peach in the river. Shall we cut it?".

174. And then in the peach they found out a little baby.

In the peach they found a little baby.

175. They were so glad to find a baby.

They were so glad to find a baby.

176. The tiny who is so little that time, but he was grown up as soon to big.

The baby was very small at that time, but he grew up soon.

177. He was the strongest man in the village.

He became the strongest man in the village.

178. And someday it is bad happen that is battle at monster that is has like a so vampires he has two horns horns and big tooth.

179. One day a bad thing happened. That was a battle with monsters that were vampires having two horns and big teeth(fangs).

180. They had take a food in the village.

They plundered some food of the village.

181. And then they escaped after village.

Then they left the village.

182. And the old man and old woman called him. They called Momotaro who were born in a peach.

183. The old man and the old woman called the boy who was born from the peach Momotaro.

184. Momotaro had decided to battle to monster.

Momotaro decided to fight with the monsters.

185. And he said to his parents, "I want to go to Monster Island that is a ONIGA island."

He said to his parents, "I want to go to Oniga-shima that is the monsters' island."

186. When he start to ONIGA island, his father and mother give him some KIBIDANGO.

When he started for the island, his father and mother gave him some millet dumplings.

187. He bring these KIBIDANGO.

He took those millet dumplings.

188. By the way he met a monkey, KIJU, dog.

On the way to the island he met a monkey, a pheasant and a dog.

189. And the monkey said, "Give me a KIBIDANGO."

The monkey said, "Give me one millet dumpling."

190. Momotaro said, "If you come follow me, I give you one KIBIDANGO."

Momotaro said, "If you will come with me, I will give you one."

191. Monkey said, "Yes."

The monkey said, "Yes."

192. He Momotaro give one KIBIDANGO to him.

Momotaro gave one of his millet dumplings to him.

193. Next next time by the way next KIJU Momotaro met KIJU.

Next Momotaro met a pheasant.

194. KIJU said, "Give me a KIBIDANGO."

The pheasant said, "Give me a millet dumpling."

195. Momotaro said, "Follow you followed me if you followed me, I give you one KIBIDANGO."

Momotaro said, "If you will follow me, I will give you one."

196. KIJU said, "Yes."

The pheasant said, "Yes."

197. And same dog.

And the dog asked him the same thing as the other animals did.

198. And they go to Momotaro, monkey, KIJU, dog go to they are going to go to ONIGA island. Momotaro, dog, pheasant and monkey went to ONIGA island.

Momotaro, the dog, the pheasant and the monkey went to the island.

199. And they fight with demons.

They fought with the devils.

200. Momotaro win.

Momotaro won.

Group 3

201. Many many many years ago at the certain village in Japan there are old grandfather and old grandmother.

Many years ago in a certain village of Japan there was an old grandfather and an old grandmother.

202. He go to went to the mountain for cutting a trees. He went to the mountain to cut wood.

203. And she went to river for washing the clothes. She went to the river for washing the clothes.

204. At the river she find out a peach. At the river she found a peach.

205. And she took the peach with her to her house. She took the peach to her house.

206. And they cut the peach. They cut the peach.

207. And they found a baby in the peach. And they found a baby in the peach.

208. They called him Momotaro. They called him Momotaro.

209. The grandfather and grandmother were very surprised.

The grandfather and the grandmother were very surprised.

210. And they pleased.

And they were pleased.

211. And everyday they take care of look after Momotaro very much.

They took care of Momotaro very well.

212. They were looking forward to Momotaro's future.

They were looking forward to Momotaro's future.

213. And he is grow up.

He was grown up.

214. And become strong and he become a good boy.

And he became a strong and good man.

215. And once one day he heard about the devil who lives in a metropolitan city.

One day he heard about the devil who lived in a metropolitan city.

216. And the devil hurt the many people in that city.

The devil hurt many people in that city.

217. So he wanted to go the city and catch the devil.

So he wanted to go to the city to catch the devil.

218. So he said to their grandmother and grandfather, "From now I will go to city and I have to catch him and I have to arrest him."

He said to his grandfather and grandmother, "Now I will go to the city. I have to catch the devil. I have to arrest him."

219. So after that he went to go to city.

Then he went to the city.

220. He decide decided to go the island who lives in devil tomorrow.

Next day he decided to go to the island where the devil lived.

221. And he said to his mother that he will go to the island tomorrow.

So he told his grandmother that he would go to the island the next day.

222. Grandmother makes him KIBIDANGO for his lunch.

The grandmother made some millet dumplings for his lunch.

223. And he bring KIBIDANGO.

He took them with him.

224. And he started to go to the island.

He started for the island.

225. Suddenly dog appeared in front of him.

Suddenly a dog appeared in front of him.

226. And dog said, "Please give me KIBIDANGO and I help you to fight."

The dog said, "Please give me one millet dumpling. Then I will help you fight."

227. Momotaro said, "It's all right. I'll give you a KIBIDANGO and please help me."

Momotaro said, "All right, I will give you one. So please help me."

228. Momotaro and dog started to go with together.

Momotaro and the dog started for the island together.

229. Next they met pigeon.

Next they met a pheasant.

230. And pigeon said, "Please give me KIBIDANGO."

The pheasant said, "Please give me a millet dumpling."

231. And Momotaro said, "Sure".

Momotaro said, "Sure".

232. And they three members go to island together.

Three members went to the island together.

233. And next monkey appeared in front of them.

Next a monkey appeared in front of them.

234. Monkey said, "Please give me a KIBIDANGO."

The monkey said, "Please give me a millet dumpling."

235. Momotaro answered, "It's of course."

Momotaro said, "Yes, of course."

236. And he gives me it KIBIDANGO.

He gave it a millet dumpling.

237. And all four members go together to island.

All four members went together to the island.

238. Momotaro is very strong and pheasant and dog and monkey helped him very well.

Momotaro was very strong and the pheasant, the monkey and the dog helped him very well.

239. And they overcomed so devil.

They defeated the devil.

240. And devil excuse them very much.

The devil apologized to them very much.

241. And devil received their jewels for Momotaro.

Then the devil gave his jewels to Momotaro.

242. And Momotaro brings a lot of jewels. And their friends dog and monkey and jewel.

Momotaro came back with his friends: the dog, the monkey and the pheasant, and with a lot of jewels.

243. And then Momotaro is the most strongest man in Japan.

And then Momotaro became the strongest man in Japan.

244. And Momotaro's grandfather and grandmother were very surprised and very pleased.

Momotaro's grandfather and grandmother were very surprised, but were very pleased.

245. And they are living very happy.

They lived very happily.

246. Once upon a time there are an old man and an old woman.

Once upon a time there was an old man and an old woman.

247. They have a one dog.

They had a dog.

248. And one day a dog dog said, "Hole the dig here."

One day the dog said, "Dig a hole here."

249. So they hole a dig.

So they dug a hole.

250. And there are a lot of TAKARAMONO in it.

There was a lot of jewelry.

251. Neighborhood there is there are another old man and old woman near them.

There was another old man and woman near their house.

252. Peach Boy

Peach Boy

253. Long long ago there was a grandfather there were grandfather and grandmother lived in a suburvs.

Long, long ago there were a grandfather and a grandmother in a village.

254. And one day grandfather went to a hill to fix a grass.

One day the grandfather went to a hill to mow the grass.

255. And grandmother went to a river to wash the clothes.

The grandmother went to the river to wash the clothes.

256. The peach came from near the grandmother.

A peach drifted down toward the grandmother.

257. And grandmother surprised and catch the peach.

The grandmother was surprised and caught the peach.

258. And then she bring a peach her house.

And then she brought the peach to her house.

259. After she found a peach ball, she brought it to home.

After she found the peach, she brought it home.

260. And she showed it to his husband.

She showed it to her husband.

261. It is too big so that's surprised them.

It was big enough to surprise them.

262. So they thought that they discuss that they will cut it.

So they decided to cut it.

263. So they cut the peach and a little boy appeared in the peach.

They cut the peach and then a little boy appeared inside the peach.

264. And they have no children.

They had no children.

265. So they thought this boy they thought the boy was ours.

They thought that the boy was theirs.

266. And they named his.

They named him Momotaro.

267. Then he was called Momotaro.

They called him Momotaro.

268. Fifteen years left.

Fifteen years passed by.

269. He grown up.

He grew up.

270. And he is very kind and strong and very gentle.

He was very kind, strong and gentle.

271. The village people loved him.

The village people loved him.

272. Some day he heard the story that is island a lot of devil live on the island.

One day he heard about the story of an island where a lot of devils lived.

273. They were very bad.

They were very bad.

274. So he tried to defeat them.

He thought he wanted to defeat them.

275. He decided to go to the island to defeat to against devils.

He decided to go to the island to defeat the devils.

276. So his mother grandmother made a KIBIDANGO for him.

His grandmother made some millet dumplings for him.

277. He wears HACHIMAKI and special mail.

He wore a headband and special mail.

278. And he brings flag.

He brought a flag.

279. And he met three animals: first dog and then monkey and peasant.

He met three animals: first a dog, and then a monkey and a pheasant.

280. He ask them to go with him to fight.

He asked them to go with him to fight.

281. And they answered, "Yes".

They said, "Yes."

282. So they went together.

They went together.

283. He gave them KIBIDANGO.

He gave them some millet dumplings.

284. Then they went to ONIGASHIMA by ship.

Then they went to the island by ship.

285. So they fight.

They fought.

286. Momotaro uses used sword and monkey used his nail so scratch to devil's face.

Momotaro used a sword and the monkey used his nails to scratch the devils' faces.

287. And peasant used his beak prick to devil's eyes.

The pheasant used his beak to stab the devils' eyes.

288. So dog used his mouth teeth and bite devil's arms.

The dog used his fangs to bite the devils' arms.

289. After all they won.

After all they won.

290. And finally they won.

Finally they won.

291. And devil said, "You are very strong. We gave up. And I want you to bring our treasure. We have a lot of treasure. We give you all."

One of the devils said, "You are very strong. We give up. We want you to take our treasure. We have a lot of treasure. We'll give you all of it."

292. They were pleased, "Oh, we wanted."

They were pleased and said, "O.K. We will take it."

293. And they said, "Good by " to devils.

They said to the devils, "Goodbye."

294. And got into the ship and went back to the village.

They got into the ship and went back to the village.

295. All the people in the village were pleased with the story about they did in the island.

All people in the village were pleased with the story about what they did on the island.

296. And Momotaro devided the treasure to all the people in the village.

Momotaro divided the treasure among all the people in the village.

297. And they became very rich.

They became very rich.

298. And Momotaro got very good friends: monkey, dog and pheasant.

299. Momotaro had very good friends: the monkey, the dog and the pheasant.

300. They lived all happy.

They all lived happily ever after.

Group 4

301. The monkey agreed with him.

The monkey agreed.

302. And monkey became a his followers.

The monkey became his follower.

303. They walked along in the forest together.

They walked through the forest together.

304. Few hours later they met a one dog.

A few hours later they met a dog.

305. And the dog asked Momotaro to give me a millet dumpling.

The dog asked Momotaro to give him a millet dumpling.

306. He answered same as as like like as he did.

He gave him the same answer as he did to the monkey.

307. And dog became a followers, too.

The dog became one of his followers too.

308. And then they met pheasant.

Then they met a pheasant.

309. The pheasant asked him the same thing.

The pheasant asked him the same thing.

310. And pheasant became to the follower, too.
The pheasant also became one of his followers.

311. And they leave to the Devil Island together.
They arrived at the devils' island together.

312. And they tried to fight with the devil.
They tried to defeat the devils.

313. When they are fighting with the devil, they helped Momotaro.

When Momotaro was fighting with the devils, the others helped him.

314. Dog bite his body and pheasant hurt at his eyes and monkey scrutches his body.

The dog bit the devils' bodies and the pheasant stabbed their eyes and the monkey scratched their bodies.

315. So they won.
They won.

316. And the devil gave them that he treasure.
The devils gave them their treasure.

317. And they came back their own country.
They went back to their own country.

318. And they lived happy ever after.
They lived happily ever after.

319. Once upon a time there are an old woman and rabbits.

Once upon a time there was an old woman and a rabbit.

320. The old woman and rabbit was were very good friend.
The old woman and the rabbit were very good friends.

321. And one day a bad wolf came to the old woman's house.

One day a bad wolf came to the old woman's house.

322. And he tried to stole steal their moneys from old man woman's house.

He tried to steal money from the old woman's house.

323. But, the wolf was found by old woman.

But the wolf was discovered by the old woman.

324. And the wolf was arrested and he was bound.

The wolf was caught and tied up.

325. Next day the old woman was working in the garden.

Next day the old woman was working in the garden.

326. Then wolf said, "Can I help you?".

The wolf said, "Can I help you?"

327. He answered, "Yes, please".

She answered, "Yes, please."

328. But wolf lied the old woman.

But the wolf had lied to the old woman.

329. And he wolf push the old woman and go away somewhere.

The wolf pushed the old woman aside and went away.

330. And she was died.

And then she died.

331. And the rabbit who lives with the old man got mad.

The rabbit who lived with the old woman got angry.

332. And he decided to revenge against the wolf.

He decided to take revenge on the wolf.

333. The rabbit took the wolf to cut the grass wood.

The rabbit took the wolf out to cut firewood.

334. And the rabbit told wolf, "This mountain called ticktack mountain because we can hear the sound like ticktack."

The rabbit said to the wolf, "This mountain is called 'clickclack mountain' because we can hear a clacking sound."

335. And the rabbit as a matter of fact rabbit lied to wolf

As a matter of fact the rabbit had lied to the wolf.

336. And to revenge rabbit took fire.

The rabbit set fire to the wolf's back in revenge.

337. And rabbit light wolf burned.

The rabbit burnt the wolf up.

338. So and one old man name is Hanasakajijii.

The old man's name was Hanasakajijii.

339. He is very kind man and he loved Pochi.

He was a very kind man and loved Pochi.

340. And his next neighbor is very bad man.

His next-door neighbour was a very bad man.

341. And one day Pochi Pochi talk to teaches Hanasakajijii, "Here the treasure is."

One day Pochi said to Hanasakajijii, "There's treasure here."

342. So Hanasakajijii dig to ground.

So Hanasakajijii dug up the ground.

343. And he found he get a he got them and he become became rich.

He found the treasure and became rich.

344. Next neighbor's old man envy him.

The next-door neighbour envied him for his good fortune.

345. So he want he asked him, "Please lend me Pochi."

So he said, "Please lend me Pochi."

346. So Hanasakajijii said, "Yes, sure."

Hanasakajijii said, "Yes, certainly."

347. And next neighbor's man brought a dog.

The next-door neighbour took the dog to his house.

348. And Pochi showed place, but he didn't get treasures.

Pochi pointed to one place, but he could not find any treasure.

349. So he was very angry.

The neighbour was very angry.

350. So and he killed Pochi.

He killed Pochi.

351. And Hanasakajijii feel very sad.

Hanasakajijii felt very sad.

352. So he made a grave for Pochi and he planted some trees.

Then he made a grave for Pochi and planted some trees.

353. So after he made USU.

Then he made a mortar from one of the trees.

354. USU is a mortar.

Usu is a mortar.

355. And he stick a mortar, so he got a lot of rich gems.

He made some rice cakes with the mortar and got a lot of rich gems.

356. Next neighbors saw that, so that he wanted to rent that.

The next-door neighbour saw that and wanted to borrow the mortar.

357. The neighbor tried to do same thing as Hanasakajijii, but they can't get a gold coin or some jewelries.

The neighbours tried to do the same thing as Hanasakajijii did, but they could not get any gold coins or jewelry.

358. So they get angry and they cut the mortar and they burned them.

They got angry and broke the mortar and burnt it.

359. And then Hanasakajijii notice this accident this trouble.

After a while Hanasakajijii learned about that.

360. And he was feel very sad.

He felt very sad.

361. And he decided to collect the ash.

He decided to collect the ashes.

362. And he bring them to his home.

He took them to his home.

363. After the neighbor told the feudal lord the Hanasakajijii make a flower grow the ash.

Then the neighbour told the feudal lord that Hanasakajijii made flowers bloom by scattering ashes.

364. So the Hanasakajijii have to do such a thing the dead tree blooming the flowers.

Hanasakajijii had to demonstrate such a thing, that is to make dead trees bloom.

365. And feudal lord was very impressed by him.

The feudal lord was impressed by him.

366. And he treated him very kindly.

He treated him kindly.

367. And he gave some money to him.

He gave some money to him.

368. And then the next neighbor envy him again.

The next-door neighbour was again envious of his good fortune.

369. And they forced to try to do same thing, but he couldn't do such a things.

He tried to do the same thing as Hanasakajijii did, but he could not do such a thing.

370. And the feudal lord was angry with them.

So the feudal lord was angry with him.

371. And the feudal lord give us some permission.

The feudal lord punished him.

372. And the next neighbor noticed they about things.
The next-door neighbour learned about life.

373. And Hanasakajijii spent rest his life very happy.
Hanasakajijii spent the rest of his life very happy.

374. And next neighbor began change their mind and they
become a good person.

The next-door neighbour began to change his ways and
eventually became a good person.

375. Once upon a time there lived a old man and his
wife in a desert village.

Once upon a time there lived an old man and his wife in
a desert village.

376. They had a happy life for a long time.
They had a happy life for a long time.

377. And they had their ritual every day.
They did their ritual every day.

378. One hand the old man had to go up the mountain to
cut down the trees.

On the one hand the old man had to go up to the
mountain to cut down trees.

379. And his wife used to go to the river to wash their
clothes.

His wife usually went to the river to wash their
clothes.

380. One day when she go to the river as usual, a very
big peach went down to her from the top of the
mountain.

One day when she went to the river as usual, a very big
peach came down to her from the top of the mountain.

381. And she said, "What a big peach it is! I will take
it home and eat it together."

And she said, "What a big peach it is! I will take it
home and eat it with my husband."

382. So she took it home.
Then she took it home.

383. And the old man said, "Let's cut down let's cut it down."

The old man said, "Let's cut it."

384. When they cut it, a very pretty boy propped out from that peach.

When they cut it, a very handsome boy popped out from that peach.

385. And they said, "The god must have given us a pretty boy because we don't have a boy or girl we don't have a children."

They said, "God must have given us this pretty boy, because we don't have children."

386. So and after that the years have passed and a peach boy became very popular and strong in the village.

Years passed. The peach boy became very strong and popular in the village.

387. And one day he heard about a kind of evil, called in Japanese ONI.

One day he heard about a kind of devil called 'Oni' in Japanese.

388. And he went to beat them with KIBIDANGO, it is a kind of cake Japanese cake.

He went to beat them carrying some Kibidango which is a kind of Japanese cake.

389. And evils, called ONI were living in island, called ONIGASHIMA.

The devils called 'Oni' were living on the island called 'Onigashima'.

390. He went to ONIGASHIMA.

He went to Onigashima.

391. And on the way to the island he got some/kokaiyonz/; they are dog, monkey, and a kind of bird.

On the way to the island he acquired some retainers. They were a dog, a monkey and a kind of bird.

392. And they went to ONIGASHIMA and made fight.

They went to Onigashima and fought with the Oni.

393. And at last Momotaro won.

At last Momotaro won.

394. And after the fight they went back to his home with great triumph.

After the fight they went back to Momotaro's home in great triumph.

395. And his grandmother and grandfather were very glad.

His grandfather and grandmother were very glad.

396. And later they sent happy days for a long time.

After that they spent happy days for a long time.

397. Once upon a time there were honest old man and woman.

Once upon a time there was an honest old man and woman.

398. On the other hand, there were bad old man and woman.

In their neighbourhood there was also a bad old man and woman.

399. The honest old man and woman had a dog.

The honest old man and woman had a dog.

400. He is very nice and pretty dog.

It was very nice and good-looking.

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