ERROR ANALYSIS OF PASSIVE TRANSFORMATION AND ITS PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

BY

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BEING A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH AND LITERARY STUDIES, FACULTY OF ARTS, AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF Ph.D DEGREE IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SEPTEMBER, 2014

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this study: ERROR ANALYSIS OF PASSIVE TRANSFORMATION AND ITS PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS: A CASE STUDY OF BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH carried out by Bdliya, Idrisa Mohammed, meets the regulations governing the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D), Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary quality.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation has been written by me and that it is a record of my research efforts. It has not been presented in any previous application for a higher degree. All sources of information are duly acknowledged by means of reference.

Idrisa Mohammed Bdliya

Date:----------

Signature----------

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Almighty God, who made man and gave him diverse languages and to all Bura speakers, past, present and future.

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ABSTRACT

This is a linguistic study of the active – passive transformational problems of selected Bura learners of English by means of Contrastive and Error Analyses. The main aim of this research is to investigate the extent to which ingrained mother tongue habits interfere with the learning of English active - passive transformation by Bura learners of English. The objectives of the study are: to highlight the basic structural differences between English and Bura active-passive transformations; to provide adequate analysis and interpretation of the relationship between English and Bura active-passive transformation; and to identify measures which may help Bura native speakers overcome some grammatical errors relating to active - passive transformation. The study involves a detailed consideration of the grammatical errors of three hundred (300) randomly sampled SS111 Bura students in six selected private and public secondary schools in Biu and Hawul Local Government Areas of Borno State. An eclectic analytical procedure is adopted. First, Chomsky's (1957) supposition that: if S is a grammatical sentence of the form NP1 + AUX + be + NP2, then the corresponding NP2 + AUX + be + V + by + NP2 is also grammatical. Secondly, Adeyanju's (1978) CA analytical procedure of description of the two languages contrasted; selection of elements to be contrasted; the contrast and prediction of areas of interference; then the validation of the predictions through fieldwork such as error analysis. Also, Corder's (1965) Error Analysis (EA) model which involves four interdependent stages, namely: Recognition, Description, Explanation and Correction of errors. The findings from this study have brought to fore some important linguistic points which include the following: The passive exist in Bura but there is a significant difference between English and Bura passives; these differences in themselves hamper effective transformation of the English active voice into the passive voice; there is the persistence of the following category of grammatical errors namely: tense, concord, formal errors of lexis, morph-syntactic, punctuation and omission errors. Most of the errors (78%) are due to developmental stage. Only (22%) of the errors could be attributed to mother tongue interference. Most sentences also were discovered to exhibit more than one (compound) error as there could be phonological miscues, concord or morph-syntactic causes; both groups of Bura students in SS111 private and public secondary schools were seen to have difficulties in transforming active into passive and they produce similar grammatical errors. This implies that being in a private or public secondary school had not significantly improved the students' performance in active – passive transformation. With these hard data at his disposal, the researcher was able to conclude that the developmental stage of the learners and mother tongue interference are major sources of errors for Bura students learning English active – passive transformations. Some active – passive transformation forms that are completely non-existent in Bura but present in English language were found to have posed some problems to the students.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This is the general introductory chapter that provides the background of the study. The chapter discusses the background to the study; the Bura people, land and language; the genetic classification of the Bura language; statement of the problem; research questions; aim and objectives; justification of the study; scope and delimitation of the study, abbreviations and definition of the terms used in the study.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Transformation in linguistics refers to a rule that takes an input typically called deep structure (what is in the mind) and changes it in some restricted way to result in surface structure (what is spoken or written). For example, a typical transformation in TG is the operation of subject – auxiliary inversion (SAI). This rule takes as its input a declarative sentence with an auxiliary: "John has seen the boys," and transforms it into a negative and interrogative sentences, "John has not seen the boys," or "Has John seen the boys?"These in turn could be further transformed into passive sentences: "The boys were seen by John," "The boys were not seen by John" and "Were the boys seen by John?", respectively.

This study undertakes a search into the difficulties Bura learners of English encounter in learning English active – passive transformation. Although this is a very important aspect of English grammar, however, in Nigeria and many other nations where English is learnt as a second language, it is one of the difficult grammatical aspects. The passive construction particularly, which is a norm for academic and scientific discourse, is also used for process description in almost all fields of human endeavor. Generally, the passive is often used because of the tone of detachment and impersonality that it helps to establish. However, despite its importance, it has not been given much attention at the primary and secondary

levels of education in Nigeria, as only very few English language textbooks focus on constructions involving the passives. Recent textbook analyses which focus on the active – passive transformations examine this aspect in detail in different English language textbook series, which include the *Premier English for Nigerian Schools* 1– 6; *Macmillan Primary English*, 1– 6; *Secondary English Project*, JSS1– 3, SS 1– 3; *Integrated English*, JSS1– 3, SS1– 3, *New Oxford English*, JSS I- 3, SS1-3 and *Intensive English*, JSS 1– 3, SS1– 3. The provisions made in these texts are compared with classroom needs of Nigerian learners of English active - passive transformations. It was discovered that none of these texts adequately provides for the teaching of the passives.

In addition to the inadequate provision of the passives in the texts mentioned above, one important factor, which is a major source of problem and which leads to poor performance by Nigerian learners of English active – passive transformation, is the problem of mother tongue interference. This is a situation whereby the knowledge of the first language (L1) inhibits the learning / use of second language (L2) because the rules are different or misapplied. The problem of first language interference is very crucial in the teaching and learning of English active - passives transformation by Bura learners. The fact that English, (Indo European) and Bura (Afro-Asiatic) (Meek 1931) are typologically, genetically and culturally unrelated explains the difficulties encountered by Bura learners of English. This research, therefore, sets out to investigate the sources of errors as they relate to active - passive transformation with a view to show the pedagogical implications that will improve the quality of teaching and learning the English by this linguistic group in particular and other learners of English as a second language in general.

This research is also motivated by the general poor performance of Nigerian children in both internal and external examinations and the ever falling standard of English in Nigeria, as captured by GCE O' Level and recently SSCE external examination results.

For instance, the SSCE June/July results show that in 2009, out of the 1,200,398 candidates who registered, only 273,279 (22.74%) had one credit and above; in 2010,1,143,169 registered but only 245,890 (21.52%) had one credit and above, while in 2011, 1,190,393 registered but only 265,896 (22.34%) had one credit and above (Source: NECO Research and Statistic Division, Minna). Similarly, the WAEC External Examiners' reports whose language seems monotonous and almost identical, as (Ndjoze–ojo 1995:2) rightly reported are dominated by phrases such as "The performance is unsatisfactory, "There are the usual faults of grammar," "The performance is poor due to the usual grammar errors", "The grammatical errors or atrocities contribute to the poor performance of students." These comments present a poor picture of the state of teaching and learning of English in Nigeria which (Obanya 1982:8) laments:

> *In spite of the official and public emphasis on English, the schools do not seem to be producing an adequate number of pupils who are sufficiently proficient in English. The performance of candidates in terminal examinations in English has never been satisfactory. Their understanding and use of English have not attained a standard considered reasonable by other users of English.*

These reports and comments are thus relevant to this study because they give us clear documented evidence of the poor performance of students in English in Nigeria; that the standard of English has fallen and continues to fall and as English language teachers, we must strive at improving this unwholesome situation. Studying the errors of active - passive transformation is, therefore, considered reasonable and profitable, as it will add to the efforts made at alleviating the problem of poor performance in English in Nigeria.

1.2 THE BURA PEOPLE, LAND AND LANGUAGE

Bura (also known as Babur) is a Chadic language spoken in Nigeria (Gordon, 2005). Bura people are found all over Nigeria, most especially in the northern part of the country,

but their dense zones of population are found in five of the twenty – seven Local Government Areas of Borno State. These are: Biu, Bayo, Hawul, Kwaya Kusar and Shani. They are also found in Garkida, in Adamawa State and Gulani and Gujba in Yobe State. The origin of Bura people was traced to be of kushite descent. The people and allied ethnic groups like Marghi, Chibok, Mandara, Bagarmi and Kilba belong to the Biu – Mandara branch of the Afro – Asiatic (Chadic) language family. They were originally from Egypt, but migrated into the Lake Chad area between 500 B.C and 100A.D. These tribes were later driven out of the Lake Chad area by Berbers who came from the north (Fezzan). It thus followed that Bura people migrated south ward until they reached their present location along the eastern mountain frontier and hilly country in southern Borno (Davies 1954, Meek 1931, Bashir, 1996). Bura is one of the minority languages in Nigeria. It is a language natively spoken by approximately two hundred and fifty thousand (250,000) speakers, (Ethnologue, 1987 UBS). Bura is a tone language with two level tones, high and low. Syntactically, it has the basic word order of Subject/Verb/Object (SVO).

Bura is an interesting language in many ways. Some of its characteristics being that:

i) It contains the voiceless 'l' as in *kuthli* (chief), *thlali* (leaf), *mthlaku* (God almighty) and *dlama* (crowd).

ii) It contains an inclusive, exclusive and dual first person plural pronouns. These are:

   a) *Mburu* (we – including the person being addressed as well as the speaker).

   b) *Yeru* (we – excluding the person spoken to but including the speaker).

   c) *Mwa* (we two, i.e the speaker and the person spoken to).

iii) It uses a lot of digraphs – a pair of letters that represent a single sound, as in: *mnya* (talk, mouth or opening);

mthlaku (lord);

mbwi y (to tie);

pdaku (good).

Mshelbwala (a clan)

Bdliya (a clan)

(Davies op.cit) identifies Bura as having two dialects, namely: Babur (Pabir) and Bura. The Babur (Pabir) dialect, which is regarded as the language of the ruling class, is spoken in central and northern Bura land in towns/ villages like Biu, Buratai, Miringa, Gunda and Gur. The Bura dialect spoken in west and eastern parts of Bura land in places like Marama, Kidang, Kwajafa, Kwaya Bura, Shafa, Garkida and Yimirshika is classified under Bura Pela (the Bura stone i.e the Bura that live on the hills) and Bura Hyil Hawul (Bura that live on the plains around River Hawul) (Gordon 2005); and a sub dialect spoken in Kwaya kusar and Shani. The Babur (Pabir) dialect also has a sub dialect which is spoken in Gulani and Gujba both in Yobe State.

Meanwhile Babur (Pabir) and Bura are mutually intelligible (Davies op.cit). On the other hand, the variety of Bura spoken in west and eastern Bura land is the variety commonly studied and referred to in many scholarly works on the Bura. Our study is based on this variety. Bura, an Afro - Asiatic language, has been fully reduced to writing. The Church of the Brethren Mission (C.B.M) has worked in the Bura speaking area since 1923. Having confined their work to this linguistic area, have studied and written the vocabulary and grammar of the language and even translated many works, such as the Bible and hymns from English into the Bura language. They have also written textbooks in the language for the schools they established in Bura land. Confirming this, (Brann 1975:208) states that the Bura language is among the fifty one Nigerian languages reduced to writing, thirty Nigerian

languages that have grammar texts, twenty –two Nigerian languages that have dictionaries, twenty - four that have pre-primers, thirty that have post primers, thirty three that have official orthography, fifty four that have reading books, eighty one that have new testament bibles, forty five that have old testament bibles and forty eight that have teachers manuals. In addition, there is an online dictionary on Bura by (Roger Blench 1999), which is based on a missionary dictionary of 1950.

1.2.1 THE GENETIC CLASSIFICATION OF BURA LANGUAGE

According to (Greenberg 1963 and Cohen 1983), African languages are classified into four phyla, namely Afro- Asiatic, Nilo-Sahara, Niger-Kordifanian and Khoisan. These four basic families followed the ancient migratory patterns of influence. There are areas on THE African continent where each family of indigenous African languages predominates. The languages of the Afro – Asiatic (sometimes called the Hamito – Semitic group) and those of the Nilo – Sahara group prevail mostly in Northern Africa, while the Niger – Congo and Khoisan are spoken in other parts of the continent.

Bura belongs to the Afro-Asiatic family, which is further divided into five branches, namely Semitic, Berber, Cushitic, Egyptian and Chadic families. Bura belongs to the Chadic family under the group known as the Bata-Marghi group. Other languages under this group include Bachama, Fali, Kilba, Marghi, Badama, Tera, Hona, etc. Below is the genetic tree.

TREE DIAGRAM OF AFRICAN LINGUSTIC PHYLA

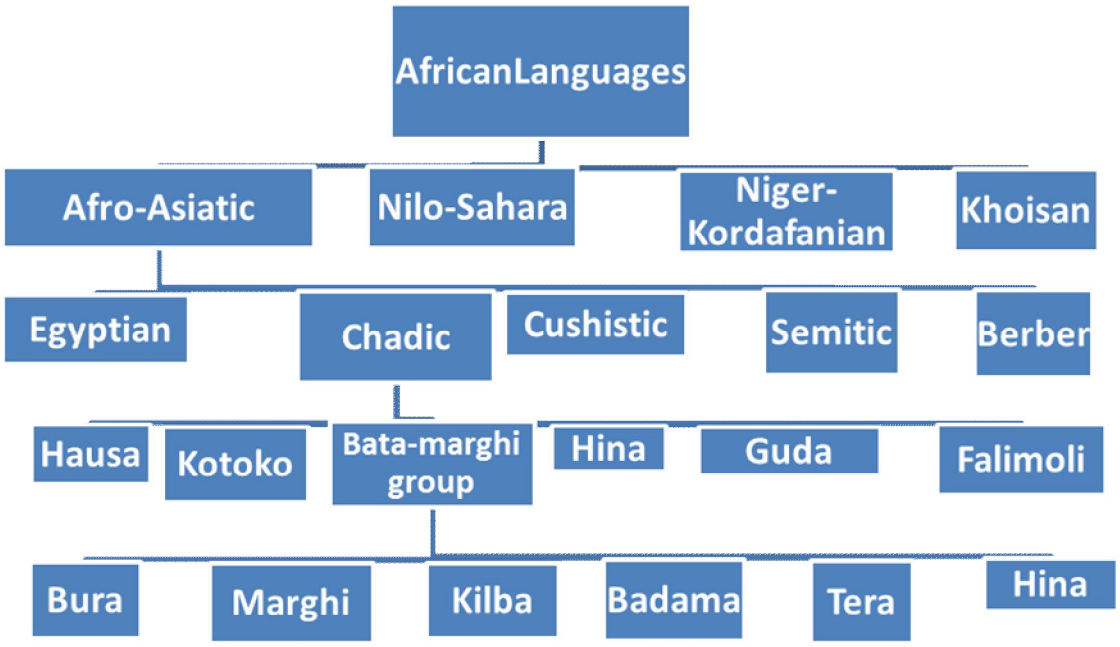


Fig.1 Tree diagram of African linguistic phyla showing Bura linguistic lineage.

Source: (Greenberg 1963).

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

English in Nigeria is a colonial heritage. It means so much to the Nigerian national life being the language of government, business and commerce, education, the mass media, literature, internal and external examinations, as well as external communications (Bamgbose in Spencer 1971:35). Yet, the performance of Nigerian students in the language in both internal and external examinations continues to fall. So far we have seen the evidences of the poor performance of the learners in the public examinations (WAEC and SSCE).

One important factor which is a major source of the problem and which leads to poor performance by Nigerian learners of English active- passive transformation is the problem of mother tongue interference. This is a situation whereby knowledge of the first language (L1)

inhibits the learning/ use of the second language (L2) because the rules are different or misapplied. The problem of language interference affects the teaching and learning of English active – passive transformation by Bura learners. The fact that English (Indo European) and Bura (Afro-Asiatic) (Meek 1931:138) are typologically, genetically and culturally unrelated explains the difficulties encountered by Bura learners of English.

The structural differences that exist between English and Bura pose a problem to the learning of English by Bura speakers because of mother tongue interference. As (Lado 1957:2 cited in James 1983:14) observes, "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meaning and the distribution of forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture". To (Lado 1973:29) then, "the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and other extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult."

Interference is a very important factor in the contrastive analysis of languages in contact. It is an instance in which the knowledge of the first language (L1) inhibits or has its rules misapplied in the second language (L2). This is because language is a set of habits. Its acquisition and use is a process of habit formation. Since a learner has imbibed the structures and systems of the mother tongue from childhood, these have been fixed permanently in his mind. An attempt at acquiring another language, a foreign one for instance, prompts the habits of the first language in which he thinks to readily come up for use. A learner either transfers some elements from the L1 to replace those that are different or tries to create those that are nonexistent in his target language. He may ignore completely those elements of the features of the L2 that he is not familiar with. This leads to the omission of vital elements and the misapplication of rules. Because of the reasons enumerated above, the performance of Bura learners, and others for whom English is a second language, has not been encouraging.

Thus, the absence of parallel equivalence in the active- passive transformation systems of English and Bura may be significantly responsible for the errors inherent in the performance of the Bura learners of English active- passive transformation.

Secondly, a review of the available literature on Bura reveals that there are very few contrastive linguistic studies of the language and English for both academic and pedagogic purposes. Specifically, only works like (Bdliya 1992 and Abdullahi 1996), which contrasted English and Bura pronouns and English and Bura morphology respectively, are available. Thus the active - passive transformation has not been studied by any other scholar, as far as the researcher knows. Transformational Grammar, according to Chomsky (1957) attempts to explain the ability of a native speaker to form and understand sentences in his native language. The ability of native speaker is referred to as 'Competence' and what he does when he uses the utterance on specific occasions is referred to as 'Performance'. It is the underlying competence that this study seeks to uncover, as this research is an attempt to discuss the implicit knowledge of active – passive transformation in Bura learners of English.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims at finding answers to the following questions:

1. What are the structural patterns of active – passive transformation in English and Bura?
2. What are the similarities and differences between the English and Bura active – passive transformations?
3. What grammatical errors exist in Bura learners' active – passive transformations?
4. What are the pedagogical implications of all these?

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim of this research is to investigate the extent to which ingrained mother tongue habits interfere with the learning of English active - passive transformation by Bura learners of English. In other words, this research is aimed at identifying the difficulties encountered by Bura learners of English in transforming active voice into passive voice.

The objectives of the study are:

1. To highlight the basic structural differences between English and Bura active-passive transformations.
2. To provide adequate analysis and interpretation of the relationship between English and Bura active-passive transformation.
3. To identify measures which may help Bura native speakers overcome some grammatical errors relating to active - passive transformation.

1.6 JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

In view of the crucial role of English in the formal education system in Nigeria, effective teaching and learning of the language should be a matter of concern to everybody that is involved in the country's educational system. And considering the fact that active-passive transformation constitutes a vital aspect of spoken and written forms of the English language, teachers and students alike should use them correctly in appropriate situations.

The research findings will be of great benefit not only to the Bura learners of English but to other language groups in Nigeria studying English. It will contribute to efforts already made by other researchers to identify the sources of structural problems confronting Bura learners of English and give some useful information that will serve as a reference for developing other areas of the language. It will also be beneficial to teachers of English to Bura speaking students in particular and other Nigerian students in secondary schools in identifying the correct transformation of the English active - passives.

This study is significant because textbook writers, teacher-trainees, policy makers, curriculum designers and administrators of education will find it useful. It will challenge, encourage and motivate other researchers to investigate other structural errors not examined in this study. Also, researchers from language groups other than Bura may be challenged to carry out similar studies in their languages.

1.7 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION

The study intends to investigate the extent to which ingrained mother tongue habits interfere with the learning of English active – passive transformation by Bura learners of English. The study is limited to six secondary schools in Biu and Hawul Local Government Areas of Borno State where three hundred respondents were obtained. The schools were sampled because the Bura speaking students in them are a fair representation of Bura students learning English as far as this researcher knows. The administration of the test was confined to only SS111 students who are Bura by birth for the sole purpose of the authentication of the study. The study focused on the level of syntax with particular reference to grammatical errors of English active - passive transformation considering aspects of the Simple Present, Present Continuous, Present Perfect, Simple Past, Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Simple Future, Future Continuous, and Future Perfect tenses, which were contrasted in three modalities-declarative, interrogative and negative.

1.8 ABBREVIATIONS.

1. ART – Article.
2. AUX – Auxiliary.
3. AV – Active Voice.
4. PV – Passive voice
5. CA – Contrastive Analysis.
6. EA – Error Analysis.

7. EST – Extended Standard Theory
8. REST – Reversed Extended Standard Theory
9. ST – Standard Theory
10. DECL – Declarative.
11. INT – Interrogative.
12. NEG – Negative.
13. FL – Foreign Language.
14. PREP – Preposition.
15. NP – Noun Phrase.
16. + – Plus.
17. * – Asterisk (ungrammatical construction)
18. TCR – Total Correct Responses.
19. TWR – Total Wrong Responses.
20. ATCR – Average Total Correct Responses
21. ATWR– Average Total Wrong Responses
22. TRANSLIT – Transliteration.
23. TRANSLAT –Translation.

1.9 DEFINITION OF TERMS USED IN THIS STUDY

1. **CONCORD**: This is a formal agreement in person, number, gender or tense between two parts of a sentence. It is the relationship between two grammatical elements such that if one of them contains a particular feature (e.g. plurality) then the other also has to have that feature.
2. **ERRORS**: Errors are the flawed side of learners' speech or writing. They are those parts of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norms of mature language performance.

3. **ERROR ANALYSIS:** This is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics.

4. **FORMAL ERRORS OF LEXIS**- These include:

   i) Formal misselection (malapropism) errors: they are a pair (or triple) of words that look and sound similar; have the same number of syllables; the same stress patterns; be of the same word class; have the same initial part; have the same phonemes in common, e.g. being /been, their/there, price/prize, peak/pick, parricide/patricide, and seat/sit.

   ii) Misformation errors: These are errors that produce words that are non-existent in the FL. They can originate either in the MT or be created by the learning from the resources of the TL itself, e.g. He has put on his *sleep suit (pyjamas).

   Nigeria has *made profit (benefited) from the deal

   iii) Distortions: These are intralingua errors of form created without recourse to L1 resources. The outcomes are the forms non-existent in the Tl. They result from the misapplication of one or more of the processing operations: omission, overinclusion, misselection, misordering, and bending. e.g. *little/little (misordering), *delitouse/delicious (misselection), *depth/debt (blend), (James, 1998).

5. **ERROR OF COMPETENCE-** They are result of the application of rules by L2 learner which do not (yet) correspond to the L2 norm.

6. **ERROR OF PERFORMANCE**- They are the result of mistakes in language use that manifest themselves as repeats, false starts, corrections or slips of the tongue. They occur frequently in the speech of both native speakers and L2 learners. They are

especially likely to occur when the speaker suffers from stress, indecision, or fatigue, e.g.

i) They asked to keep to keep the book away (repeat)

ii) They wanted, they said they wanted to leave (correction + repeat).

7. **OVER GENERALIZATION**- It is a process common in both first (L1) and second (L2) language learning in which a learner extends the use of grammatical rule/ linguistic item beyond its accepted use.

8. **INTERFERENCE**- Refers to those instances of deviation from the norms of either L1 or L2 which occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language (as a result of language in contact).

9. **INTRA-LINGUAL ERRORS**: These are L2 errors that reflect native language structure arising from false analogy where the learner assumes that the new item B behaves like A: she knows that 'girl' (A) has its plural 'girls' and assumes that 'man' 'B' behaves likewise, so pluralizes to* 'mans'.

10. **CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS-** It is a systematic comparison of the specific linguistic characteristics of two or more languages based on the assumption that L2 learners' Mother Tongue (MT) habits not only influence their Target Language (TL), but often persistently prevent them in some way from acquiring the habit of the second language (L2).

11. **CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS HYPOTHESIS**- This refers to the underlying assumptions on which any CA in contrastive linguistic analysis is based. They are the strong, the weak and the moderate versions.

12. **VOICE**- Voice concerns the emphasis that a speaker gives the subject or object in a sentence. In English, there are two voices, the active and the passive. It is important to note that only transitive verbs (which transfer action from subject to object) can be

either active or passive. Intransitive verbs do not use voice because the action is limited to the subject.

13. **AUXILLARY VERB**- An auxiliary verb combines with any of the forms of the main verb to establish the tense, mood and voice in a sentence. The most common auxiliary verbs are: to, be, is, are, were, has, have, had, do, does, did, will, would, shall, and should.

14. **MAIN VERB**- A word which expresses the action, event, or condition of a subject.

15. **LANGUAGE TRANSFER**- A learner of a second language transfers into his performance in the second language the habits of his mother tongue. If the system of the first language resembles those of the second language we speak of facilitation, and where they differ there is interference or, at least, a learning problem.

16. **MOTHER TONGUE (MT) -** This is the tongue which a child acquires in early years which normally becomes his natural instrument of thought and communication. It is in most cases the language of the parent and the socio-cultural community and the one most used by individual.

17. **FIRST LANGUAGE (L1) -** This is the language a child acquires from his immediate environment or in school informally as a result of contact with other speakers after his MT. Usually the child grows in L1 as he does in MT.

18. **SECOND LANGUAGE (L2) -** This is the language a person learns in addition to his MT and L1 mostly in formal situations. It is sometimes used as a national language, official language and language of instruction or the lingua franca.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews relevant concepts, studies and opinions on the research topic. Specifically it presents authorial and topical reviews. The authorial review discussed four dissertations on that studied the grammatical errors of SSIII and undergraduates while the topical review focused on the nature and function of language, language learning and acquisition, language and education, the status of English as an international language, the place of English in Nigerian education, syntax as a linguistic discipline, syntactic relations, the concept of error analysis (EA), contrastive analysis (CA), Chomsky as a linguist, the theories of transformational grammar (TG) and active and passive voice, as well as the theoretical framework.

2.2 AUTHORIAL REVIEW

In this context, we have attempted to review studies done on Error Analysis in other Nigerian languages as there has been none done on Bura.(Peter 2009) carried out a study of tense errors in the written English of eighty (80) 100 and200 level science students of Gombe State University. The study focused on grammatical errors in the use of present, past and future tenses. An eclectic approach to the investigation was adopted as the theoretical framework. The data collection instrument was a one hundred objective test item divided into four frames of 1-25, present tense; 26-50, past tense; 51-75, future tense, while 76-100 examined students' ability to use two or more tense features correctly within a sentence or group of sentences. The result showed that most of the subjects could not use correct verbal forms, particularly the s-form where the subject of the sentence is third person singular as in: I sees him every day. She smile a lot. They also could not distinguish the grammatical

function of 'has' and 'have' when used as tense markers as in: She have borne six children. All her children has had measles. The result also revealed that most of the respondents used wrong grammatical structures for the present and past perfect tenses, as in: Corruption has eating up Nigerians unto the skull. God has restore my lost glory. In-addition to the difficulties with present and past tenses, most of the subjects were not quite familiar with the different grammatical constructions for expressing the future. However, despite the observed difficulties, no remedial programme was suggested as a way of tackling the identified problems and the sample size of only eighty respondents is too small for a study of such magnitude.

(Oyedokun 2009) attempted contrastive and error analyses of the modification process in English and Yoruba. The study sought to contrast the structure of modification in the two languages with the view of determining the points of similarities and differences. The basic aim of the venture was to determine the ways by which similarities and/ or differences in the two languages affect the competence and performance of the speakers of L2.The data for the study were sourced from selected news bulletins, news magazines in Yoruba and guided discussions among students on a wide range of topical issues. A broad spectrum of materials on modification as related to both languages was examined. Different analyses were carried out under syntactic – semantic, lexico – semantic and morph – phonological incorrect usages. The study revealed that the absence of /t/,/z/,/θ /,/ð/ and /v/ sounds in Yoruba brought about phonological interferences to the respondents; the use of wrong lexes and the superimposition of Yoruba semantic values, e.g. "Profit of government"(a coinage for dividend of democracy), and "Small hand"(Yoruba literal usage for – handle with levity) caused lexical and semantic interferences. One weakness of the study is, although it randomly sampled four secondary schools, the sample size of the SS111 students used as respondents was not stated.

(Ndjoze-Ojo 1995) researched into the grammatical and writing errors of 100 Level Pharmacy students of ABU between1988 to 1994. The study involved a detailed consideration of the grammatical and mechanical errors of four hundred and sixty-seven (467) written scripts. The result showed that syntactic and mechanical accuracy errors occurred frequently, whereas redundancy errors, particularly the prepositional type were the least in frequency. One weakness of the study is it did not state how the sample of four hundred and sixty-seven (467) was arrived at.

(Adogwa 1993) analyzed the grammatical and discourse errors of two hundred and sixty-nine (269) SS111 students (10% of the total population) selected from14 secondary schools in Kaduna State and one hundred and thirty two (132) 100 level undergraduate students of ABU, Zaria selected from some courses. A stratified random sampling technique was employed in the selection of the samples while essay writing and a questionnaire were used as the data collection instruments. The findings revealed the persistence of three broad categories of grammatical errors namely the structural, the lexical and the mechanical. Discourse errors such as poor paragraphing, poor use of cohesive devices and repetition of lexical items within a paragraph were also discovered. Both groups of students were found to produce similar grammatical and discourse errors. This shows that the one year formal English instruction at the 100 Level had not significantly improved their performance. The study also showed sources of errors such as overgeneralization, faulty teaching, lack of awareness of the working of the English sentence pattern and lack of self-editing.

The present study is similar to these studies in a number of ways. Firstly, like their studies, it aims at finding out the weaknesses of its sample population in the use of English and thereby suggesting ways of improving their performances through remedial programmes. Secondly, they all used either SS111, 100 or 200 Level university students as respondents. This study is however different from all the others because it is a study of SS111Bura

learners' grammatical errors in active - passive transformation. Secondly, its sample was three hundred (300) students who were Bura by birth and necessarily spoke the language. In addition, it adopted transformational grammar (TG) as its theoretical framework.

2.3 TOPICAL REVIEW

In this section, we attempted a review of the literature on the nature and function of language, error and contrastive analyses, linguistic models, the concept of transformations, the active and passive voice and also a statement of the theoretical framework.

2.3.1 THE NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

Many linguists have attempted a definition of language; hence, there are as many definitions as there are experts and linguists. For instance, according to (Sapir 1921:8), "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." This definition suffers from several defects in that there is much that is communicated by language which is not covered by the terms 'ideas', 'emotions' and 'desires'. However, body language, which makes use of postures, gestures, eye-gaze etc, would seem to satisfy this definition.

To (Bloch and Trager 1942:5), "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group co-operates." This definition, in contrast to Sapir's, makes no appeal, except indirectly and by implication, to the communicative function of language. Instead, it emphasizes its social function, thus, it presents a rather narrow view of the role of language in society. Bloch and Trager's definition also differs from Sapir's, as it brings in the property of 'arbitrariness' and 'vocal symbols,' which restricts language to spoken form (excluding the written form).

(Hall 1968:158) in his *Essay on Language* argues that language is " the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral

–auditory arbitrary symbols". This definition emphasizes both communication and interaction as the basic functions of language to humans. In addition, Hall, like Sapir, sees language as a purely human institution; and as (Lyons 2009: 5) observes, "the term institution makes explicit the view that the language that is used by a particular society is part of that society's culture". (Crystal 1971: 239), on the other hand, defines it in terms of function as the most frequently used and most highly developed form of human communication the world over. (Crystal ibid: 210), particularly asserts that language is a meaningful activity and that what distinguishes the sounds issuing from our mouth as language or not is whether they 'carry meaning' or not. To communicate meaning is therefore the main aim of linguistic behavior. Halliday (1966) in Morley (1985) interprets a language as being an enormous system network of meaning potential. That the task of the grammar is to specify the total grid of options available to speakers of the language; in other words, it accounts for what the speaker 'can do' linguistically, that is to say, what he 'can mean' and indeed how he can represent the meaning through the lexicogrammar and the phonology of the language.

However, Chomsky's view of language when he says "From now on I will consider language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements." taken from *Syntactic Structures* (1957:13), strikes a very different note. For him, language is defined by syntactical structures, not by use of structures in communication. In this study, language is used according to this definition as Chomsky's transformational grammar theory is adopted as the theoretical framework.

Much effort has gone into showing the uniqueness of language to man. As (James 1998:1) rightly observed, "…human wisdom is the consequence of their gift of language". The significance and relevance of language in nation building and educational development is profound. This made the Nigerian government to promote the use of indigenous languages in education, (The National Policy on Education 1977:5, 1998:11-15, 2004). The rationale for

the promotion of mother tongue or language of the immediate environment in the education process is based on the assumption that an indigenous language is the best medium of education, (Fafunwa 1989). The origin of language has however been a matter of serious controversy. Most attempts that have been made to unravel its origin have hardly gone beyond speculative imagination. The divine, the natural-sound, the oral-gesture, glossogenetics (biological), and physiological adaptation sources all point to this fact, (Yule 2002:1-6, Atkinson, 1982:34).

The divine source: In most religions, there appears to be a divine source that provides humans with language. For instance, according to biblical account of creation in Gen.2:20, after God created Adam, he used language to name all the animals and birds, "So Adam gave names to all cattle, to the birds of the air, and to every beast of the field…" That was the first time ever man as a creature used language. However, prior to this event, in Gen.1:3, God himself had spoken, "Let there be light" and light appeared. Thereafter, God kept using language to command his creation into existence: Gen.1:6-29. In this regard, language could be said to have begun at the same time as God, the creator himself. However, be as it may, a few experiments to discover this divine origin of language have been carried out with rather conflicting results. The basic assumption is that if infants were allowed to grow up in isolation without hearing any language, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God given language, (Yule op.cit:2). It is unfortunate to note that all children who were used for the experiment (left in isolation without coming in contact with human speech), tend not to have any language at all. A case in point was the experiment carried out by an Egyptian pharaoh, named Psammetichus, who kept two new born babies in company of goats and mute shepherds. After two years, they uttered the word "*bekos*", meaning "bread" in Phrygian. The pharaoh then concluded that Phrygian must be the original language. But it is very likely, as several commentators observed, that the babies must have imitated the sound

made by the goats (*beh*!, remove the *kos*). A similar experiment was performed by James IV of Scotland around A.D 1500 where the children were discovered to have started speaking Hebrew (ibid). This variation in attempts to prove the divine source might have led to the other proposals.

The natural-sound source also referred to as the bow-bow theory expresses another view about the origin of language – that human speech is based on the concept of 'natural sounds,' such as the cries of animals and emotions. The suggestion is that primitive words could have been imitations of the natural sounds which, early men and women heard around them. When an object flew by, making a CAW-CAW sound, the early human imitated the sound and used it to refer to the object associated with the sound, (Yule op.cit:2). Proponents of this theory drew attention to an appreciable number of onomatopoeic words, which appears to be directly imitative of natural sounds like cats - mew, lions - roar, water - splash, owls - hoot, cocks - crow, cows - moo, and ducks - quak. This theory, however, does not account for words that are not onomatopoeic and hardly imitative of any conceivable sound neither does it explain how language obtained its articulate structure.

The yo – heave – ho theory is another natural sound proposal which posits that groups of early men might have developed grunts, groans and swear words, which they used when lifting and carrying heavy objects, like bits of trees and mammoth. Natural cries of emotion, such as pain, anger and joy such as OUCH!, Wow!, Ah! Ugh! Oop! Aash! Are examples. The merit of this theory is that it discusses the origin of human language in some social context- men using sounds (vowels and consonants) of a language to coordinate themselves for collective achievement of tasks. It does not, however, answer the question of regarding the origin of the sounds produced. The gesture theory claims that physical gestures preceded speech as the means of communication. This position is further confirmed by the day to day use of physical and oral gestures by human beings from different cultures and

languages the world over. The theory does not, however, still answer the question of the origin of the sounds of language.

The glossogenetics theory is another speculation on the origin of human speech. It focuses mainly on the biological basis of the formation and development of human language. It emphasizes the evolutionary development of human speech organs from that of the Neanderthal man from around 60,000BC to about 35,000BC when the structure begins to resemble those of modern man, capable of speech. This theory does not, however, categorically state the origin of language, but the development of the organs involved and that creatures possessing such features have the capacity for speech. By and large, there must be a supreme being from whom all human beings, including the language they use emanated. And human beings in trying to develop language have obviously incorporated versions of naturally occurring sounds such as discussed above. They have also incorporated cries of emotional reactions and accompany such with physical gestures.

2.3.2 LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ACQUISITION

The manner in which a child learns or acquires language is a matter long debated by linguists and child psychologists alike. Language learning may be defined as a conscious, formal process of mastering a target language. It is typically a classroom process. Hence, there are teaching aids such as computers, textbooks, charts, language laboratory, projectors, television sets, and the like. In addition, there is a program of instruction (or syllabus), which guides the teaching/learning process. In learning a second language, (Lado 1957:2, Rivers 1968:40, and Yule 2002:191- 192) argue that some features (e.g. vocabulary, grammar) may be easier to acquire than others (e.g. phonology). Those features that are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for the learner, while those elements that are different will be difficult.

Besides, there is a critical period of learning another language which (Lenneberg 1967) states ends around 12years. Thereafter, learning another language becomes difficult. This may be that the language faculty being strongly taken over by the features of L1, with resulting loss of flexibility or openness to receive the features of another language. Thus, learners in their teens are quicker and more effective than L2 learners. Some obvious reasons for the problems experienced in L2 learning are related to the fact that most people attempt to learn another language during their teenage or adult years in a few hours each week of school time (rather than via the constant instruction experienced by the child).

Language acquisition, on the other hand, refers to the implicit, non-formal natural process of mastering language. It is without conscious effort, without any syllabus and without any teacher. In Chomsky's (1957, 1972, 1983) view, every human child born into the world is endowed with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD), which facilitates language acquisition. (Carnie 2007:14) refers to this device as a "subconscious language faculty". This LAD processes Universal Grammar (UG); that is, it is not language specific. Thus, for instance, a Bura child born in Hausa land would acquire Hausa effortlessly since the LAD with which he is born is a mechanism for acquiring any language that the child is exposed to. (Atkinson, Kilby, and Roca 1982:11), made this clear by saying "…human mind is equipped from birth with a blueprint for language, i.e. it is endowed with certain genetically transmitted neurological structures which underlie the acquisition and subsequent use of human–like languages". This agrees with (Carnie's op.cit:15) claim that "Much of language is an ability hard – wired into our brains by our genes". To them, however, no human child reared in isolation can acquire language. An example is the case of Genie, otherwise known as 'The Wild Child", a thirteen year old victim of lifelong child abuse, who was discovered to be entirely without language (Yule 2002:171-173). This agrees with the view of the nativities linguistic theories which hold that children learn through their natural ability to organize the

laws of language, but cannot fully utilize this talent without the presence of other humans. Thus children learn by imitating adult speakers of a language (Yule ibid: 175–178 and Carnie 2007:21).Behaviorism identifies association, imitation, reinforcement, repetition and punishment as key ideas to language learning.

From the foregoing, it becomes clear that although there is a correlation between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, however, differences exist between the acquisition of L1` by a child and the learning of L2 by an adult (Ndjoze- Ojo: 1995: 64). It is also clear that basic requirements for language learning/ acquisition are: From the foregoing, it becomes clear that although there is correlation between L1 acquisition and L2 learning, however, differences exist between the acquisition of L1 by a child and the learning of L2 by an adult (Ndjoze-Ojo: 1995:64). It is also clear that basic requirement for language learning/ acquisitions are:

1. Innate Predisposition: The Language Acquisition Device (LAD), the human faculty for acquiring language.
2. Environment: Though every child is born with a LAD, (s) he must still be brought up in a human society for language learning/ acquisition to take place.
3. Absence of Impairment/ Physical Disability: Physical disabilities such as dumbness, deafness, or brain damage must be absent in the learner (Crystal 1982:12 - 13).

Thus, both the behaviorist and innatist theories that emphasize the importance of the environment and the mental capability as prerequisite for effective language acquisition and learning are very relevant.

2.3.3 LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION

Having looked at the nature and function as well as how language is acquired or learnt, it is pertinent to point out that this study is concerned with language use for instruction. Language and education could be described as two sides of a coin where one cannot do without the other. Language is the bedrock of education in that most learning is

carried out via the medium of language whether conventional, sign or machine and whether foreign or indigenous language. Akindele and Adegbite (1999:112) describe language as a tool to education by saying "Whether formal, non- formal or informal, education is imparted through the medium of language. In formal education system, school subjects are coded via the means of language. Teachers teach through it and pupils learn through it." Education, on the other hand, is the means through which any language can be developed, standardized and made more prominent.

The language ability of the child when he begins school is an important factor affecting his achievement in school in all subject areas. In Nigeria, however, most children go to school without any knowledge of English, which is the school language. Most of them, especially those in public schools, are hardly ever able to acquire the language of instruction and are thus left to grapple with the learning situation. The inadequacy and lack of proficiency in English in the classroom situation is not with the learners alone, teachers also fall victim to the problem, which (Awobuluyi 1992) traces back to the point where they themselves learned the language. According to him, the teachers of English in our schools are nearly all L2 speakers who were themselves taught by other L2 speakers who, in turn have learned the language necessarily imperfectly from other L2 speakers of English. He adds that to make matters worse still, most of such teachers have no training in contrastive linguistics and, therefore, will be unable to understand and consequently devise effective pedagogical strategies for combating the mostly mother tongue (MT) induced errors that recur in their pupils' written and oral performances in the language.

Thus important as English is to us, its acquisition and learning is characterized by errors. Researchers such as (Corder 1967, 1971, 1973, 1975,etc; Selinker 1972; Dulay and Burt 1974, 1975; Dulay et al 1982; Richards 1973, 1974; Davies (ed)1984; Ndjoze–Ojo 1995; James 1998) and so on, have all written on errors due to the light they shed on L2

acquisition and learning. For instance, errors, according to (Dulay et al op.cit:138) "Are the flawed side of learners' speech or writing. They are those aspects of conversation or composition that deviate from some selected norms of mature language performance." (James 1998:62) sees errors as "…the study of linguistic ignorance, the investigation of what people do not know and how they attempt to cope with their ignorance." This ignorance, according to him, can be manifested in two ways. First, in silence, when the learner makes no response, that is, says or writes nothing. He terms this "avoidance". Second, to compensate for their ignorance, learners prefer to try to express themselves in the target language by alternative means: they "beg, steal, or borrow." This he terms "substitution". However, as long as there is incompleteness or failure to attain full native like knowledge of the target language, there will be error.

2.4 THE STATUS OF ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

English is the world's most important language. Even at a time when such a statement is made as a long-standing truism, it is perhaps worth-while to glance briefly at the basis on which it is made. There are, after all, thousands of different languages in the world, and it is the nature of language that each one seems uniquely important to those who speak it as their native language- that is, the first (normally sole) tongue: the language they acquired at their mothers' knees. But there are more objective standards of relative importance. One criterion is the number of native speakers that a language happens to have. A second is the extent to which a language is geographically dispersed: in how many continents and countries is it used or is knowledge of it necessary? A third is its vehicular load: to what extent is it a medium for a science or literature or other highly regarded cultural manifestation including way of life? A fourth is the economic and political influence of those who speak it as their own language. According to (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 1972 and Quirk and

Greenbaum 2004) English is the world's most widely used language. It is spoken as a native, second and foreign language.

The Microsoft (Encarta 2009) puts it more succinctly:

> *If you speak English, you have plenty of people to talk to. People use English Language to communicate in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and other countries. It is spoken in more parts of the world than any other language.*

English is spoken as a native language by nearly three million people in the United States, Britain, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the Caribbean and South Africa.

By English being a second language, it means it is a language necessary for certain official, social, commercial or educational activities within a country. The English second language function is more note-worthy, however, in a long list of countries where only a small proportion of the people have English as their native language: India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya and many other commonwealth countries and former British territories. Thus, fifty-two years after independence, Nigeria, maintains English as the medium of instruction for its higher education. English is the second language in countries of such divergent backgrounds as the Philippines and Ethiopia, while in numerous other countries (Burma, Thailand, South Korea and some middle Eastern countries, for example) it has a second language status in respect of higher education. In addition, it is one of the 'working' languages of the United Nations and, it is by far the more frequently used both in debate and in general conduct of United Nations business.

By foreign language, we mean a language as used by someone for communication across frontiers or with people who are not his countrymen: listening to broadcasts, reading books or newspapers, commerce or travel. For example, (Quirk et al op. cit) point out that no language is more widely studied or used as a foreign language than English. The desire to learn it is immense and apparently insatiable. They concluded by saying "Taking the

education system of the world as a whole, one may say confidently (if perhaps ruefully) that more timetable hours are devoted to English than any other subject".

2.4.1 THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN NIGERIAN EDUCATION

English in Nigeria has had an unbroken history of over one hundred years. It was introduced into the country by the missionaries who arrived at Badagry in 1842. According to Tomori, in *West African studies in modern language teaching and Research* (1981), "people were motivated to learn English then because of the desire to speak the type of language spoken by the white-man; the desire to read books in English, particularly the Bible; and remotely, the desire to get jobs in the missions. At independence in 1960, the Nigerian constitution clearly entrenched the colonial language, English, as the language of parliament and consequently the defacto official language. Since the laws were made in English, they had to be administered also in English. Hence, administrative and legal document were in English, and most of the public and commercial life were also conducted in it.

In Nigeria, English has acquired the status of prestige language. It is the official, international and the language of trade and industry. In addition, it is used for religious, social and business purposes. It is also used as the language of instruction, particularly at post-primary and higher levels. It is also used for inter-ethnic, cross-cultural and institutional communication. Above all, it is the key to decent employment. Admission to post primary and tertiary institution of learning including the universities depends on one's performance in English which is the medium of instruction. To (Bamgbose in Spencer 1971:35),

> *Of all the heritage left behind in Nigeria by the British at the end of the colonial administration, probably none is more important than the English Language. This is now the language of government, business and commerce, Education, the mass media, literature, and much as internal as well as external Communication.*

English is, therefore, very crucial in the Nigerian educational system and this is the point Afolayan (1977:14) makes when he asserts that,

> *The sociological acceptance of English in Nigerian education has been nearly complete, more so, probably, than in any other aspect of national life… Thus formal education is taken to be synonymous with knowledge of English. Whoever has no access to English has no access to formal education.*

All parents hope their children are gainfully employed after their career and at present in Nigeria, English is the passport to this important goal. To some parents, the earlier a child can speak English the faster he is to become a doctor, a lawyer, an engineer, an architect, a graduate teachers etc. The quest for English could be seen even among low-income earners who can be seen struggling to send their children to nursery and other fee-paying schools where they can be taught English as the medium of instruction.

English in Nigeria is, therefore, essentially a second language, defined by its role, status and application to the various facets of life of the people. In our educational situation one of its major roles is as the sole medium of instruction from the upper primary through secondary to tertiary or higher education. However, in Nigeria, particularly in the northern part nowadays most youngsters find it difficult to speak and express themselves in English, and so there is a general low level of competence in it. This is evidenced by their mass failure in WAEC, SSCE, NECO and other examinations at the secondary level of education. This calls for concern on seeking ways of enhancing effective use of English and encouraging the interest rate of the use of English. If such Nigerians are to remain relevant in the present globalization trend, then something must be done to improve their awareness and interest in the use of English.

(Ubahakwe 1979), confirming the English language as a medium of communication in Nigeria (a multiethnic entity), stresses that the very persistence of the use of it as a lingua

franca could be seen as an act of accommodation as much as it is one of political expediency. It helps to alleviate the fear of ethnic domination and paves the way for participation at the national and international level. He also emphasizes that for participation at the national and international platforms, Nigerians must be able to manipulate English to project their country and its point of view, thereby gaining and maintaining worldwide respect for Nigeria. In view of this situation, where English continues to play an important role in Nigeria, the errors that inhibit its effective teaching and learning needs to be analyzed so that communication in the language can be ensured.

2.5 SYNTAX AS A LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINE

The word "syntax" came originally from Greek and literary means 'a setting out together' or 'arrangement' (Yule 2002:100). Syntax is the study of the rules governing the formation of linguistic units larger than the word. To (Carnie 2007:4), syntax studies the level of language that lies between words and the meaning of utterance: the sentence. It is the level that mediates between the sounds that someone produces (organized into words) and what they intend to say. When we say that ***the big boy*** is made up of ***the***, ***big***, and ***boy,*** and that the utterance ***the big boy*** is fully grammatical in English, we are making a syntactic statement. Through acquaintance with such syntactic rules, we know that neither **** boy the big,*** nor ****boy big the*** is an acceptable syntactic construction in English. Each language has its unique rules of syntax.

(Atkinson, Kilby and Roca 1982:145) observe that there is considerable diversity of opinion among linguists about the range of phenomena, which may be considered syntactic, and about ways in which a syntactic description of a language relates to the phonology and semantics of the language. Nevertheless, within this argument there is a large measure of agreement on the subject matter of syntax. To them "Syntax is concerned with the organization of meaningful elements within a sentence." Thus, in earlier approaches to the

description of syntax, there was an attempt to produce an accurate analysis of the sequence or the ordering 'arrangement' of elements in linear structure of the sentence. While this remains a major goal of syntactic description, more recent work in syntax has taken a rather different approach in accounting for 'arrangements' we observe in the structure of sentence. Since 1950s, particularly developing from the work of the American linguist, Noam Chomsky, there have been attempts to produce a particular type of grammar, which would have a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well-formed sentences. This explicit system of rules, it was proposed, would have much in common with the types of rules found in mathematics. The mathematical point of view helps to explain the meaning of the term generative, which is used to describe this type of grammar.

The theory of syntax, which has had many different names through its development Transformational Grammar (TG), Transformation Generative Grammar (TGG), Standard Theory (ST), Extended Theory (ET), Extended Standard Theory (EST), Government Binding (GB), Principle and Parameters (P&P), and Minimalism (MP) is often given the blanket name Generative Grammar. And the underlying thesis of generative grammar is that sentences are generated by a subconscious set of procedures (like computer programs). These procedures are part of our minds (or of our cognitive abilities). The goal of syntax theory is to model these procedures. In other words, we are trying to figure out what we subconsciously know about the syntax of our language. In generative grammar, the means for modeling these procedures is through a set of formal grammatical rules. These rules tell us the order in which to put our words. Thus in English, for example, we put the subject of a sentence before its verb. These rules are thought to generate the sentences of a language, hence the name generative grammar. These rules tell us step by step how to put together words into a sentence.

2.5.1 SYNTACTIC RELATIONS

At the syntagmatic level, words are joined together in a bond to convey meaning. The group, ***the new book***, for instance, is a syntactic unit exhibiting a syntagmatic relationship between the words, ***the***, ***new*** and ***book***. If the order of the word is reversed, we have ***book***, ***new***, ***the***. The same three words have been used as before, but according to the syntactic rules of English, these three words are not bonded together structurally. There is no syntagmatic relationship between them, and so what is formed is not an English group (Tomori 2004:21). Syntagmatic relationship in language tends to be exhibited in liner sequence in writing, and in temporal sequence in speech. But this does not mean that any two linguistic units that are closet are syntagmatically related. It often happens that linguistic units that are separated by other units can be more closely bonded together than closet ones. For instance, in the sentence **She has not yet accepted the offer from Mary**, **has** and **accepted** are separated by the words **not yet**; but have a stronger syntagmatic bond between them than **has** and **not,** which is next to it in linear sequence. The bond between **has** and **Mary** at the end of the sentence is a very weak one. The bond between **not** and **yet** is a very strong one, but the one between **not** and **to** is very weak.

2.5.2 SENTENCE STRUCTURES AND FUNCTIONS

A sentence is a means by which one attempts to communicate to another what he thinks or feels. It is a group of words with a subject and a finite verb, which expresses a complete thought or asks a question and begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. (Quirk and Greenbaum 2004:10-11) observe that traditionally, there is a primary distinction between subject and what is said about a 'subject' that has already been introduced in an earlier sentence. A sentence is the largest kind of the three kinds of word groups called grammatical units, the smallest grammatical units being the phrase and the clause. However, since thoughts and feelings differ in kind, and since the reasons for communicating them

vary, sentences are of different kinds. In this research, we considered the classification according to function, as they were used in the analysis of the data (The declarative, interrogative and negative functions).

2.5.3 SENTENCE CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO FUNCTION

The following are the types of sentences according to communicative functions.

2.5.3.1 DECLARATIVE OR ASSERTIVE SENTENCES

These types of sentences could be either affirmative or negative. They are statements which may be true or false. Such examples are:

i) Abuja is the capital of Nigeria.

ii) He will discuss with the students in a week's time.

iii) Moses is not a Hausa man.

iv) They grew happier when their friends arrived.

In Bura, (Gordon 2005) points out that in simple declarative sentences, there are verbal particles or auxiliaries to indicate whether the action of the verb is (a) in progress, (b) not yet began, (c) customary or habitual, (d) sustained, or (e) completed.

(a) In Bura, the action in progress is indicated by *akwa, e.g*

1. *Tsa akwa sim diva.*

   Translit: She/he/it is eat food.

   Translat: She is eating food.

2. *Da akwa sa yimi.*

   Translit: They are drink water.

   Translat: They are drinking water.

b) Action not yet begun is indicated by *atasi,* e.g.

1. *Taku ni ata si whi*

Translit: Horse the will run.

Translat: The horse will run.

c) Customary or habitual action is indicated by *ana,* e.g

1. *Yeru ana lekwa makaranta*.

Translit: We use to go to school.

Translat: We go to school.

d) Completed action is indicated by *ku,* e.g.

1. *Mda ku na alari kwaba.*

Translit: Someone has/had give to him/her money.

Translat: Someone has given him some money.

2.5.3.2 INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

An interrogative sentence asks a direct question and always ends in a question mark. Questions can be divided into three major types according to the types of answers they expect.

i) Those that expect affirmation or rejection (e.g, Have you done your homework?).

ii) Those that expect a reply supplying information.

Examples:

1. How old are you?

2. What is your best subject?

iii) Those that expect as their reply one, two or more options.

Examples:

3. Would like to eat rice and beans or pounded yam and vegetable soup?

4. Would you like to go for a walk or sleep?

In Bura, any of the declarative sentences above could be made interrogative by adding *ya* at the end of the sentence e.g.

i. *Yeru ana lekwa makaranta ya.*

Translit: We used to go to school?

Translat: Do we go to school?

ii. *Mda ku na alari kwaba ya.*

Translit: Someone has/had give to him/her money.

Translat: Did someone give him money?

2.5.3.3 NEGATIVE AND NON-ASSERETIVE SENTENCES

While a *yes* or *no* question normally challenges the validity of a predication as a whole, negation rejects it. And like *yes* or *no* questions, negative sentences involve the operator, requiring the insertion of *not* (or the affixal contraction – *n't)* between the operator and the predication.

Examples:

i) Haliru did not open the door.

ii) John isn't a good student.

iii) She didn't send the letter to the boy.

iv) They hadn't collected the money in the bank.

In Bura, any of the declarative sentences could be put into the negative by preceding the particle with *adi* and adding *wa* at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

1. *Yeru adi na lekwa makaranta wa.*

Translit: We not use to go to school not.

Translat: We do not go school.

2. *Taku ni adi akwa whi whi wa.*

Translit: Horse the not is run run not.

Translat: The horse does not run.

In this study, these forms of sentences: declarative, interrogative and negative were used in the analysis of the structures of English and Bura active – passive transformations. The test items were also in these forms of sentences.

2.6 THE CONCEPT OF ERROR ANALYSIS

Error Analysis was established in the 1960s by Stephen Pit Corder and colleagues as an alternative to Contrastive Analysis. As an aspect of applied linguistics, it arose out of the limitations of Contrastive Analysis, which presupposes a universality of all languages and tries to predict by comparing the systems and forms of the languages in contact and the likely errors that the learners might make and possible problem areas they will encounter. EA showed that CA was unable to predict majority of errors, although its valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer.

Language learning is characterized by a series of trial and error. The making of errors is seen as inevitable, indeed, a necessary part of the learning process as (Duley and Burt 1974) say "You can't learn without goofing" and (Corder op.cit: 129) insists that errors ought to be seen as "positive signs" that learning is taking place. Errors are, therefore, visible proof that learning is taking place. They are to be regarded as evidence of learner's strategies and the route he follows when building up his competence in the target language (Corder 1967, Strevens 1969, Adogwa 1992).

(Corder 1967*:*107) specifically points the significance of errors by saying:

> *A learner's errors are significant in three ways. First, they tell the teacher how far towards the goal the learner has progressed. Secondly, to the researcher, they provide evidence of how language is learned / acquired and the procedures the learner uses in the discovery of the language. Thirdly, the*

learner uses it to test his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning.

The making of errors, then, is as a result of strategy employed by both children acquiring their mother tongue and those learning the second language. They are indispensible in the language acquisition/ learning process. The implication of the study of errors to the present study is that learners' errors are manifestations of their knowledge of English passive transformation to date.

2.6.1 SOURCES OF ERRORS

Sources of errors are classified into broad categories, ranging from interlingual (interference) errors, which are caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on the production of the target language to intralingua errors, which originate within the structure of the target language (e.g. English) itself, such as errors of overgeneralization – the incomplete application of rules and the failure to learn conditions for rule application. Other sources of errors are developmental growth and the context of learning or teaching induced, as well as communication strategy errors (Richards 1971, 1977 and Selinker 1969). The errors that learners make may be as a result of many of these sources working together rather than either one kind or the other. The errors found in the students' transformations were looked at and explained in connection with the above mentioned categories.

2.6.2 TYPES OF ERRORS

(Corder 1971, 1973; Edge 1989 and James 1998) did extensive investigations into the nature of linguistic errors. Their categorizations have provided an acceptable pattern for modern classifications of errors. The first attempt was to separate lapses (or slips), mistakes and errors. Lapses, according (Corder 1973:114, and James 1998:80-84) are mistakes caused by processing problems or carelessness; the learner could auto correct them if pointed out and if given the chance. An example is:

*He had been *their for several days.*

Instead of:

He had been there for several days.

Lapses by their nature, therefore, call for on the spot correction rather than remedial work. (Corder ibid) opines that psychological conditions such as fatigue, indecision, haste, and stress are the causal factors of lapses. For (Edge 1989), 'mistakes' is the cover term for all ways of being wrong as an FL learner corresponding to James' 1998 own term 'deviance'. According to (James ibid:83), "mistakes can only be corrected by their agent if their deviance is pointed out to him or her". He further pointed out that we have first – order mistake if a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self correction. However, if more information is required, e.g. the exact location and some hint as to the nature of the deviance, then we have a second – order mistake.

Errors, on the other hand, signify imperfect competence in the target language. "They cannot be self corrected until further relevant (to that error) input (implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by the learner" (James ibid). In other words, they require remedial exercises before they can be self corrected. This suggests that errors occur due to lack or inadequate knowledge of the rules of the TL usually due to interlingua transfer, fossilization or competence conflict between L1 and L2 grammar (Corder op.cit.). Thus (Corder 1967:167) associates errors with failure in competence and mistakes with failures in performance, making use of Chomsky's distinction. He insists that mistakes are not of significance to the process of language learning since they 'do not reflect a defect in our knowledge' (are not caused by incompetence) but are traceable to performance failure. The learner is normally immediately aware of them and can correct them with more or less complete assurance. Both native speakers as well as learners make them. This study particularly sets out to look at the sources of grammatical errors in Bura learners' passive

transformation, not their lapses (slips) or mistakes since the latter could be self corrected and may not be significant.

2.6.3 LANGUAGE TRANSFER AND INTERFERENCE

Language transfer (also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference and cross meaning) refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to a second language (L2). The psychological effects of knowing more than one language on the learning of a new one are evident. Language teachers often observe a tendency among students to confuse the language they are studying with others studied previously or concurrently. The process of interpreting the particular grammar of one language in terms of another is called transfer. The mistakes that result from the process are said to be due to interference.

Linguistic interference can result in correct language production called positive transfer or facilitation, the transfer of skill 'x' which facilitates the learning of or has a positive influence on the command of skill 'y'. This gives "correct" meaning in line with most native speakers' notion of acceptability. A negative transfer or interference, on the other hand, is the transfer of a skill 'x' which impedes the learning of or has a negative influence on the command of a skill 'y'. This occurs when the speakers and writers of a language transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages. (Ndjoze-ojo 1995:72) states that: " Negative transfer refers to those instances of transfer which result in error because old habitual behaviours are different from the new behaviours that is being learned… positive transfer results in correct performance because the new behavior is the same as the old." This observation is in line with Wardhaugh's 1970 contribution to the empirical status of CA when he distinguishes between the a strong (*apriori*) claim that: L2 learning problems can be predicted on the basis of linguistic differences between L1 and L2;

and a weak (*aposteriori*) claim that: L2 learning problems can be explained on the basis of linguistic differences between L1 and L2.

The strong claims give rise to two assumptions. First, that the chance of learning problems will increase proportionately to the linguistic differences between L1 and L2: i.e. linguistic difference gives rise to interference and second, that the chance of L2 learning problems occurring decreases proportionately to the absence of linguistic differences between L1 and L2: i.e the absence of linguistic differences gives rise to facilitation.

On the contrary, however, other researchers have shown that not all errors can be attributed to interference. For instance, (Duley and Burt 1974 in Ndoje-Ojo op.cit:73- 74) who classified 513 unambiguous errors of 179 Spanish-speaking English Second Language (ESL) learners between the ages of five and eight listed three types of errors, namely: developmental, interference and unique errors. According them, developmental errors are those similar to those in native language acquisition; interference errors reflect native language structure while unique errors are due to the factors other than developmental or interference. (Duley and Burt 1974:132) found that only 4.7% of the errors could be attributed to interference, while 87.1% of the errors reflected developmental structures used by children learning English as first language.

(James 1998:173 -203) also observes that errors could also be communication based or induced such as teacher-talk errors, exercise based errors, and look-up errors. Considering teacher-talk induced errors specifically, he notes that although one of the roles of teachers is to provide models of standard target language (TL). He however observes that:

> *modelling the standard of target language is sometimes a problem even for Native Speaker teachers. As for Non Native Speaker teachers of a language, their own command of the target language is often a cause for grave concern, and in many places young trainees' expertise in up-to-date methodology is far in excess of their command of the TL itself.*(p.191)

He specifically noted the following error-inducing errors in the EL2 of a group of Brazilian teachers:

1a. *In order *to become learning meaningful.*

2a. **Can be used just one determiner.*

3a. *Commo*m noun poten*cial problems.*

These were written on the blackboard and left there till the end of the lesson, so allowing the class ample time to absorb ('notice') them. Below, however, are the correct forms of these expressions:

1b. *In order for learning to become meaningful.*

2b. *Just one determiner can be used.*

3b. *Common noun potential problems.*

From the above examples, it is clear that teacher-talk induced errors also contribute significantly to the problem of second language learning, and as James (ibid) rightly observes, "Foreign Language teachers have their own professional target language needs, … they need proficiency training in order to prepare them to meet the linguistic demands of the Foreign Language classroom".

2.6.4 STAGES INVOVELED IN ERROR ANALYSIS

According to (Etherton 1975:75), "No two specialists would agree on the exact way of classifying some errors and it is a waste of time to search for an ideal method". This notwithstanding, it is pertinent to review the opinions of specialists on the methods used in analyzing errors. Traditional error analysis classified errors into categories such as errors of agreement, omission etc (Adogwa 1992:24). Their method consisted of six steps: the collection of data, the identification of errors, the classification into error types, the statement of relative frequency of errors, the identification of the areas of difficulties in the TL and remedial drills which (Corder 1972) sees as too superficial to explain some of the learning

difficulties as it concentrates on those utterances that are overtly questionable and ungrammatical. To him, the recognition of errors is crucially dependent upon a correct interpretation of the learner's intention. Thus, EA should involve interpretation in the context so that covertly erroneous sentences, which are not appropriate in the context they occur are analyzed, too. (Corder 1981), on the basis of this argument, gives three stages in EA, which are: recognition of the idiosyncrasy, description of idiosyncrasy and explanation of errors. But a more systematic framework of analysis is provided by (Shridhar 1976). According him, EA begins with:

1. Collection of data.
2. Identification of errors (labeling).
3. Classification into error types (e.g errors of concord, omission etc).
4. Statement of relation and frequency of error types.
5. Identification of areas of difficulties in target language.
6. Therapy (remedial drills).

(Corder 1965) sees fault analysis, as the study of L2 learners' language that involves four interdependent stages, namely:

1. Recognition,
2. Description,
3. Explanation and
4. Correction.

The process of recognizing and identifying errors is one of comparing original utterances with their plausible reconstruction and authoritative reconstruction and identifying the difference. Description involves a process of correction to show the learner in what way he has failed to realize his intended message. The most appropriate theoretical model is to relate the semantic structure of a sentence to its surface structure by a set of explicit rules.

The description of errors is essentially a comparative process, the data being the original erroneous utterance and the reconstructed utterance. For description to be valid, it must explain error linguistically and psychologically in order to help the learner to learn. Description is established when there are sufficient instances of error in the learner's text being studied or analyzed. Explanation of error is a linguistic activity concerned with accounting for why and how errors come about. It involves observations that will pave the way for the statement of the way in which the learner has deviated from the realization rules of the target language in the derivation of his sentence (i.e. what rules he has broken, substituted or disregarded). Explanation gives the possible cause of the error. And correction in EA is providing learners with information that allows them to review or reject the wrong rules they were operating with when they produced the error token. The purpose is primarily for remediation to improve the processes for all future productions. From the view of the methodologies of Error Analysis, it is obvious that there are different approaches to it. This study adopted Corder's 1965 Fault Analysis model, which involves four interdependent stages, namely:

i) Recognition,

ii) Description,

iii) Explanation

iv) Correction of the errors.

Below is a chart showing the process of recognizing and identifying errors:

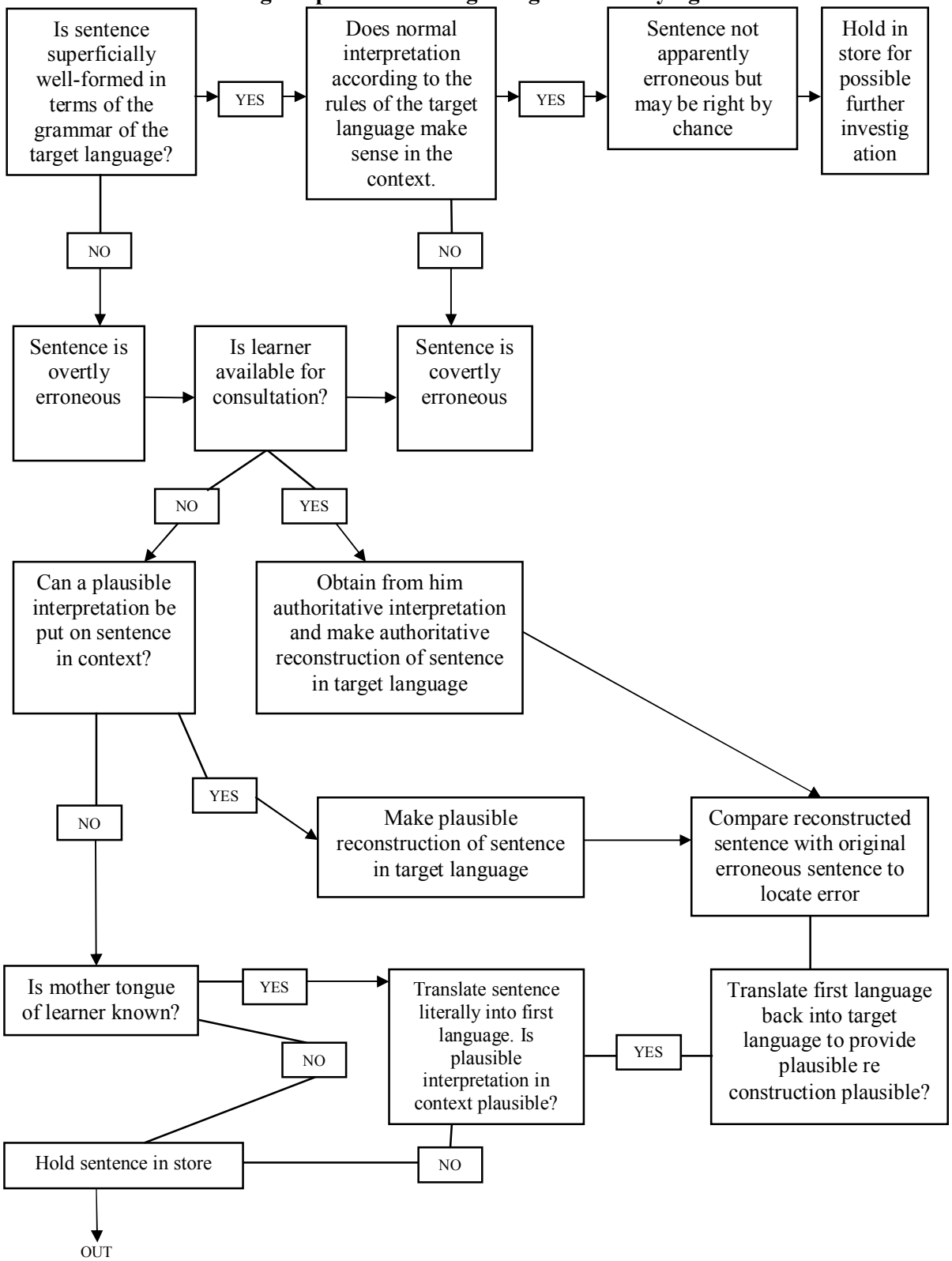


Fig 2: Showing the process of recognizing and identifying errors.

Source: (Aronoff, M. and Rees-Miller, J. 2003: 129)

From the review of the methodologies of EA, it is obvious that there are different approaches to EA. This study adopted an eclectic approach as discussed in chapter three under the analytical procedure.

2.6.5 THE CORRECTION OF ERRORS

The term "correction" has been used in three senses (James 1998:236-237). They are:

1. Informing the learners that there is an error, and leaving them to discover it and repair it themselves. This sort of intervention feedback is telling people whether their utterance or understanding is right or wrong. It is usually associated with slips, which are self-correctable without benefit of feedback from another person.
2. Providing treatment or information that leads to the revision and correction of the specific instance of error (error token) without aiming at to prevent the same from recurring later. In addition to indicating that the present attempt is wrong, the corrector can specify how and where; suggest an alternative, or give a hint. This is the correction proper.
3. Providing learners with information that allows them to revise or reject the wrong rule they were operating when they produced the error token. The result will be to induce them to revise their mental representation of the rule, so that this error type does not recur. In this case, we are giving remediation. Error correction strategies need to be planned carefully. Errors need to be corrected and learners guided in recognizing deviant forms and structures in their oral or written expressions. If the student is not aware of his errors, the teacher will find it difficult to help him correct them.

It is necessary to determine the cause of the errors since it is only then that the teacher can know how serious the error is. The more serious the error, the higher priority it should have in the remedial work. Some researchers like (James ibid.238-239, Corder 1981,

Broughton et al 1980 in Ode 2006:19) have attempted to categorize errors according to their level of significance, though they equally acknowledge that there is no general agreement about the scale of gravity. James specifically made a distinction between feedback, correction and remediation. (Corder 1981:10) said of mistakes (although he had slips in mind): "We are normally immediately aware of them when they occur and can correct them with more or less complete assurance." In other words, slips are self-correctable, without benefit of feedback from another person. But feedback there must be, of some sort, from one's self. This is the sort of feedback that comes from one's intuitions: one just feels that what has been said or written is wrong.

Mistakes are self corrected only with the benefit of feedback: knowers have to tell the learners that they are wrong, but no more. They do not have to specify in what respect. In such cases, informing the learners that the present form is wrong, that is, doing no more than give feedback, will usually be enough to cause the learners to reject their current hypothesis, and this will be a sufficient prompt to them to search for an alternative hypothesis with which to replace it. For example, telling them that **eated* is wrong triggers a shift of verb morphology paradigm to eaten. Similarly, telling them that **He is broking it* is wrong will normally be sufficient information to trigger selection of *He is breaking it*. The learners knew the correct form all along. It was simply insufficiently automatized as a part – repertoire.

However, if the self-correction is still impossible despite the provision of simple factual feedback without the specification of the nature of the deviance, then we have a case of error proper. The deviance springs from ignorance. The learners are not told simply that there is an error, but also the nature of this error. In this case, what is called for is the explanation of the TL system. This explanation can be communicated explicitly to the learners, or can be implicit, merely determining the nature of the necessary instruction. It can take into account, again explicitly or implicitly, the respects in which the learners' erroneous

IL version did not match the TL form. In each case we are giving remediation, (James op.cit.238-239).Error correction strategies range from individual to group correction, depending on the seriousness of the errors in question. It should be pointed out that immediate feedback could be extremely valuable to the students. The teacher should point out the errors, explaining what is wrong and attempting on the spot to give extra practice, or make a teaching point of them in another lesson where there will be some conscious comparison of items confused. In the correction of errors on individual basis, the teacher needs to tread very carefully. (Olahinde 2002 in Ode 200820) says "there is no point in painting every error red". This wastes marking time, yet provides no guarantee that the student will learn from his mistakes as evidenced by similar errors that may appear on his subsequent written works.

2.6.6 THE LIMITATIONS OF ERROR ANALYSIS

Critical review studies on EA have raised serious doubts about the sophistication and reliability of the methods of EA. (Bell 1974:35) in particular refers to EA as a recent pseudo procedure in applied linguistics and attacks it for its poor statistical inference, the subjectivity of its interpretations of errors, and its lack of any predictive power (something that any scientific procedure must have). (Hammarberg 1974: 18) points to the "insufficiency of EA", which for him lies in the one – sided practice of analyzing only errors and neglecting the careful description of non – errors. This is short sighted, he claimed, because it conceals from teachers exactly the information they could put to good use, information about potential errors that the learners somehow manage to avoid committing. For instance, a learner who for one reason or the other avoids a particular structure may be assumed incorrectly to have no difficulty with such structure. Thus, the absence of error does not necessarily reflect native – like competence since learners may be avoiding the structure that pose difficulty for them. Another limitation of EA is that, it does not seek to identify the strategies used by good FL

learners so that these same strategies can be taught to not – so – good learners. To solve this deficiency, (Faerch 1978) offered Performance Analysis, that takes into account both error and non errors as an alternative to EA.

2.7. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

Although the study is essentially an error analysis of Bura Learners' of English active – passive transformations, it is necessary to discuss CA given its contributions to the study of the problems encountered when languages are in contact. As (Olaofe 1982:20), citing (Banathy 1969:12) rightly observes, CA and EA are not necessarily opposite choices. They are complementary to each other. Both are required for the construction of foreign language instructional materials.

Contrastive Analysis as a branch of applied linguistics is concerned with systematic comparison of two languages to determine their areas of similarities and differences with their implication on language learning and teaching. The CA hypothesis pays special attention to the sources of errors in L2 language learning .It totally relies on comparisons of L1 and L2 based on the assumption that L2 learners MT habits not only influence their TL but often persistently prevent them in some way from acquiring the L2 habits.

CA was central to linguistic studies, notably in the 19th and early 20th century Europe under the title comparative philology. The primary object of such studies was to establish historical and genetic connections between languages on the basis of their manifest similarities, particularly between the forms having similar meanings or cognate word forms. According to (Olaofe 1982:10 and Yule 2002: 191), Weinreich's book, *Languages in Contact* (1953) provided a conceptual framework for understanding the ways in which languages in bilingual situations may affect each other phonetically, grammatically and lexically. In this attempt, he made extensive use of the term 'interference', that is, deviation from the norms of either language, which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with

more than one language. But that it was Lado's book *Linguistics Across cultures* (1957) that set the stage for systematic contrastive analysis of languages. The fundamental assumption of the book is that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native languages and culture – both productively, when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively, when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by the natives (Lado 1957:2). (Banathy, Trager and Waddle 1966) made an equally similar strong claim that the change that has to take place in language behavior of the foreign language student can be equated with the differences between the structure of the student's native language and culture, and that of the target language and culture.

With CA, it was considered feasible that the tools of structural linguistics would enable a linguist to describe accurately the two languages in question, and to determine valid contrasts or differences between them. Moreover, human learning theories like the behaviorists' view of language, as evoked by Skinner, provided the CA approach to error with a sound theoretical foundation. According to Skinnerian linear programming and principles, all L2 learners' errors are considered as being due to MT interference and thus regarded as loathed pathological manifestations that require immediate eradication through rigorous drills and intensive remedial programmes. Consequently, most studies based on this programming were often geared towards classroom practice remedies and syllabi-design rather than theory construction. However, it was not until Chomsky's Review of Verbal behavior in 1959 that the behaviorists' model was transformed. Chomsky did not only question the very core of the behaviorists' theory but also discarded and denied virtually all the previously accepted axioms of language learning. He instead suggested and insisted on the existence of a language acquisition device (LAD). Chomsky argues that human beings have an inherited core of linguistic knowledge of the kind which is basic to all languages; this

he calls Universal Grammar (Finch 2000; Ekundayo, Salami, Oni 2002:25-25; Yule 2002:174 and Carnie 2007:21-22).

2.7.1 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS AS A PEDAGOGICAL TOOL

Besides being useful in determining teaching (and textbook) materials, (Olaofe 1982:21) obverses that CA can enliven teaching, e.g. of grammar, especially to the advanced ESL student, and make it something more than drills and exercises. Through it, the student can be shown how the structure of the target language (English) differs from his own language. (Olaofe ibid) citing Adeyanju 1973:5 and Telemans 1977:233-238) pointed out further that simple analysis of sample sentences from the two languages should do this.

When students are shown, in rudimentary terms only, how their languages differ from the target language (English), they are being helped to overcome what (Terrel 1977:328) describes as 'emphatic barriers set up by ego boundaries' which make learning difficult for many students. (Olaofe op.cit.), says of this approach that "This practical way of teaching has been tried and proved effective". The importance of CA as a pedagogical tool notwithstanding, it is by no means a better tool than Error Analysis. Both are particularly important for English Second Language (ESL) teachers, especially where the teachers are inadequately educated in English.

2.7.2 MODELS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS.

According (Lado 1957, Banathy 1969, Whitman 1970, Di Pietro 1971, Adeyanju 1978, Olaofe 198) and others, there are basic steps that must be taken in contrasting two languages: (Lado 1957) supports the following steps:

1. Locate the best structural descriptions of the two languages concerned, keeping the same analytical models;
2. Establish the elements you want to describe in the two languages;
3. Contrast the two languages;

4. Predict interference; and

5. Prove out the theoretical predictions.

(Banathy 1969:3) has put forward the following six major steps:

1. The rationale or purpose for which it is undertaken;

2. The scope and depth of coverage;

3. The language theory upon which the comparison is based;

4. The framework within which the comparison is made;

5. The procedures used in making the comparison; and

6. The format and style of formulation of the contrastive statement.

(Whitman 1970) posits four major steps similar to those of Banathy and Lado. They are:

1. Taking languages L1 and L2 and writing formal description of them;

2. Picking forms of x and y from the description for contrast;

3. Making the contrast of the forms selected; and

4. Making a prediction on the basis of the three steps above and formulating a hierarchy of difficulty.

(Di Pietro 1971:2-3) from the Transformational Generative linguistics point of view suggests the following steps:

1. Observe the differences between the surfaces of the two languages. Such differences may range from total absence of some surface features in one of the two languages to partial sharing of a feature;

2. Postulating the underlying universals; and

3. Formulating the deep to structure (realization) rules concerning the various expressions in contrast in each of the languages involved in the contrastive linguistic analysis. In this last step, we may decide to make the analysis operational. In doing

so, we label one of the languages, the source and the other, the goal (or target) (Olaofe 1982). (Adeyanju 1978:8) equally suggested four steps which were:

1. The description of the two languages using the same analytical model;
2. Selecting which elements to contrast in the two languages;
3. The contrast itself; and
4. Predicting areas of interference.

According to him, a fifth step might be that of validating the theoretical predictions through fieldwork and such approaches as error analysis.

(Olaofe 1982) synthesized all the various models discussed above and adopted the following nine steps:

2. Outlining the scope and depth of coverage;
3. Describing the two languages using the same analytical model;
4. Selecting elements for the actual contrast;
5. The contrast of the forms selected using the same comparative framework;
6. Predictions of areas of interference based on the contrast;
7. Establishing a hierarchy of difficulty;
8. Validating the predictions/ hierarchy of difficulty; and
9. Outlining the pedagogical implications of the predictions and validation.

The analytical procedure followed in this study was the five steps presented by Adeyanju's 1978 model which constitutes the eclectic analytical procedure adopted.

2.7.3 THE LIMITATIONS OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

As with many other theories of applied linguistics, CA is also faced with many criticisms (Olaofe 1982:13, Adeyanju 1978, Selinker 1972, Corder 1971, Mackey 1966). The criticisms that gathered force then were the doubts concerning its predictive power. The claims made by (Lado 1957, 1964) about the predictive power of CA faced serious

challenges. Some criticized it for its "over inclusiveness" in predicting errors never observed in actual classroom performance, the dubious quality of its statements, its reliance on out-dated behaviorist models, and its lack of a unified theory. Consequently, further studies that came to be known as Error Analysis (EA) discovered that some errors in language learning seemed to arise not from the contrasts between native language (L1) and language being learned (L2) but from other sources as transfer of learning (i.e. the influence resulting from the way the learner is taught); inadequate knowledge of the target language (L2); age, aptitude, motivation and over generalization (i.e. the over extension of a target language rule to domains where it is not normally used). Take the case of noun pluralization in English for instance. Learners may tend to over extend the domain of the rule by process analogy as in: boy – boys; bag – bags; room – rooms and so man – mans; child – childs; church – churchs; dish – dishs; thief – thiefs; knife – knifes. However, in spite of the weaknesses of CA it should not be abandoned in classroom practice due to its diagnostic powers.

2.7.4 THE WEAK HYPOTHESIS

(Olaofe 1982:13) says it was in the context of the criticisms above that error analysis and the weak hypothesis of CA emerged. Error analysis (EA) is founded on the purported similarity between first language acquisition and second language learning. The learner is looked upon not as a producer of malformed, imperfect language replete with mistakes, but as an intelligent creative being proceeding through logical, systematic stages of acquisition, creatively acting upon his linguistic environment as he encounters its forms and functions in meaningful contexts. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, the learner slowly and tediously succeeds in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by the native speakers of the language. In the process of doing this, the learner makes mistakes, misjudgments, miscalculations and erroneous assumptions about the language he is learning. The weak hypothesis of CA came as an offshoot of EA. (Wardhaugh

1970:126) noted that "CA has intuitive appeal and that teachers and linguistics have successfully used the best linguistic knowledge available ... in order to account for observed difficulties in second language learning". He termed such observational use of CA the weak hypothesis or the weak version of contrastive analysis hypothesis. Both error analysis and the weak version of CLA hypothesis have fallen under severe criticisms of late. (Da Rocha's 1976) critical review of studies in EA and Chan's (1975) comparative study of CA and EA have raised serious doubts about the sophistication and reliability of the methods of EA. He observed, in particular, that there is no standard methodology of EA. A claim also reinforced by (Bell 1974:35-40).

2.7.5 THE STRONG HYPOTHESIS

Regardless of the criticisms leveled against the strong hypothesis of CA, evidence from research work continuously points to its validity. Ebraim's (1975) study of Afghan students, for example, found that as much as 46% of their English errors were attributable to interference. (Mario 1978:42-43) found that 58.78% of all the errors made by Swedish and 63.83% of those made by Finnish speaking students were as a result of the influence of the primary language on the secondary one. (Peter 1974) found CA to be strongly predictive of errors of Hungarian students learning English. Very many other studies of foreign students abroad have confirmed interlingual interference problems. Such studies include (Wagner and Nickel 1968:233-255 and Sharp 1972:30-38).

In Nigeria, too, the few contrastive studies available so far support the predictive power of CA. (Adeyanju 1971 and 1979) finds CA capable of predicting "global" and 'local" errors of the Hausa students learning English. (Banjo 1969) used CA to predict some problems that a Yoruba student may encounter in the learning lexical-semantic and syntactic rules of English. (Ajayi 1973) also predicts wrong sequences of French tenses, the transfer of the characteristics of Yoruba stative verbs and the imperfective of the French unmarked form,

as the learning problems of the Yoruba students in contact with the French tense and aspect system (Ajayi,1973:81).

The various studies in CA from different parts of the world have demonstrated that contrary to (Wardhaugh's 1970) appeal for "a period of quiescence" for the strong form of CA hypothesis, the strong hypothesis has not been laid to rest.

2.7.6 THE MODERATE VERSION

(Oller and Ziahosseiny 1970) tried to strike a compromise between the strong and weak versions of CA hypothesis by proposing a moderate form. According to them, the strong form is too strong and the weak form is too weak but that a moderate version, which centers on the nature of human learning, and not just on the contrast between two languages, has more explanatory power. The moderate version of CA hypothesis is based on the notion that whatever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one more systems, confusion may result. It is common to over-generalize to the extent that minimal differences are overlooked. At the same time, gross differences, because of their saliency are often more easily perceived and stored in memory. Greater differences do not always result in greater learning difficulty, (Olaofe in Banathy, 1969:8-9). Although this compromise looks like the answer to all the arguments between the weak and the strong hypothesis, it has not been very easy to make clear-cut distinctions between errors due to over-generalization (or intralingual factors) and those resulting from interlingual interference.

2.7.7 THE HYPOTHESIS FOLLOWED IN THIS STUDY

The present study believes in the predictive power of Contrastive Analysis, but at the same time does not lose sight of the facts stated by the moderate hypothesis that:

i) The degree of differences in structures being contrasted are not necessarily a measure of difficulty;

ii) Wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result;

iii) It is common to over generalize to the extent that minimal differences are overlooked,

2.8 CHOMSKY AS A LINGUIST

Noam Chomsky, an American, is a man of many parts. He is a linguist, philosopher, cognitive scientist, logician, historian, political critic, etc (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). In this study however, we were concerned with his contributions to the study of language and linguistics. Chomsky is still arguably the most important figure in the study of linguistics. According to (Graham 1985:16) "He is important not only for his linguistic ideas but for his critique of earlier research in psychology of language and for his ideas about the relation between linguistics and psychology." Chomsky's ideas on language acquisition by children have many times been summarized as "innateness". He believes that the mind is cognitive, containing mental states, beliefs and doubts. According the Wikipedia encyclopedia of psycholinguistics, Chomsky holds the belief that "most of the important properties of language and mind are "innate" triggered by the experiential input of external environment. For Chomsky, all children are born with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD) programmed in their heads. This device, he claims, is responsible for the operation and development of innate structures for syntax capable of creatively organizing, cohering, adapting and combing words and phrases into intelligent utterances. He, thus, makes a distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance as what one knows about his language as opposed to the actual use of the language in concrete situation.

Chomsky's ideas have been called "mentalist" and "nativist," for he feels that nature is more important than nurture in language acquisition. He was first influenced in the context of the study of mind and behavior in general by the writings of the Spanish physician, Juan

Huarte, who pondered on the word "intelligence" to mean "engender or "generate" from its etymological roots. For Huarte, this word gives clue to the nature of the human mind. Chomsky cites Huarte's framework for its usefulness in discussing psychological theory and particularly the reference to the use of language as an index of human intelligence as what primarily distinguishes man from animal.

Another great influence on Chomsky is the rationalist theory of language. Chomsky credits the rationalist philosophy with bringing out the first really significant general theory of linguistic structure called "Universal Grammar", although he feels that rationalism failed in its inability to recognize and appreciate the abstractness of the structure that appears in the mind when utterances are spoken and understood or the time it takes and the intricate patterns those mental operations entail to express the meaning of those self-same utterances when produced. It is pertinent to reiterate that from Locke down to contemporary behaviorist learning theorists Skinner (1957), for instance, the human mind has been treated as tabula rasa, that is, containing no knowledge prior to experience by such mechanism as the association of ideas or the habitual connection of stimulus response. However, contrary to this notion, Chomsky hypothesized that human beings naturally have the innate capability for language and set out to prove it. He argued that since there was no empirical data on human beings, there are, therefore no justification for generalizing from the behavior of other animals as was done by Pavlov with dogs and or by Skinner with rats and pigeons. Chomsky then proposed structural linguistics based on an observable behavior and innateness as the basis of his theory. What ensued was that his postulations revolutionized the entire linguistic discipline.

2.9 GENERATIVE GRAMMAR

The term 'generative' refers to the theory of language that has been developed over the last thirty years or so by Chomsky and his followers. Generativism, in this sense, has been

enormously influential, not only in linguistics, but also in philosophy, psychology and other disciplines concerned with language. Generativism carries with it a commitment to the usefulness and feasibility of describing human language by means of generative grammar of one type or the other. The hypothesis of generative grammar is that language is a structure of the human mind. The goal of generative grammar is to make a complete model of this inner language (known as I – language).This model could be used to describe all human languages and predict whether the grammaticality of any given utterance (that is to predict whether the utterance would sound correct to native speakers of the language). Generativism is usually presented as having developed out of, and in reaction to, the previously dominated school of post Bloomfieldian American descriptivism: a particular version of structuralism. Up to a point, it is historically justifiable to see the origin of generativism within linguistics in this light. But as Chomsky himself came to realize later, there are many respects in which generativism constitutes a return to older and more traditional views about language. There are others in which generativism simply takes over, without due criticism of features of post Bloomfieldian structuralism, which have never been found much favor in the schools of linguistics.

All language systems enable their users to construct and understand indefinitely many utterances that have never been heard or read before, unlike animal communication systems which appear to be highly restricted with respect to the number of different signals that their users can send and receive. Human language systems are, therefore, productive in the sense that they allow for the construction and comprehension of indefinitely many utterances that have never previously occurred in the experience of any of their users. Chomsky drew the attention to the fact that human languages have the property of recursiveness – that the set of potential utterances in any language is quite literally infinity in number. (Carnie 2007:16) concurs by saying “syntax is a product of recursive and infinite system.” It thus follows that

from every grammatical sentence, one can find a longer one as further supported by (Yule 2002:107).

Example: 1. Mary helped Jane.

2. Mercy thought Mary helped Jane.

3. James said Mercy thought Mary helped Jane.

Represented on a tree diagram thus:

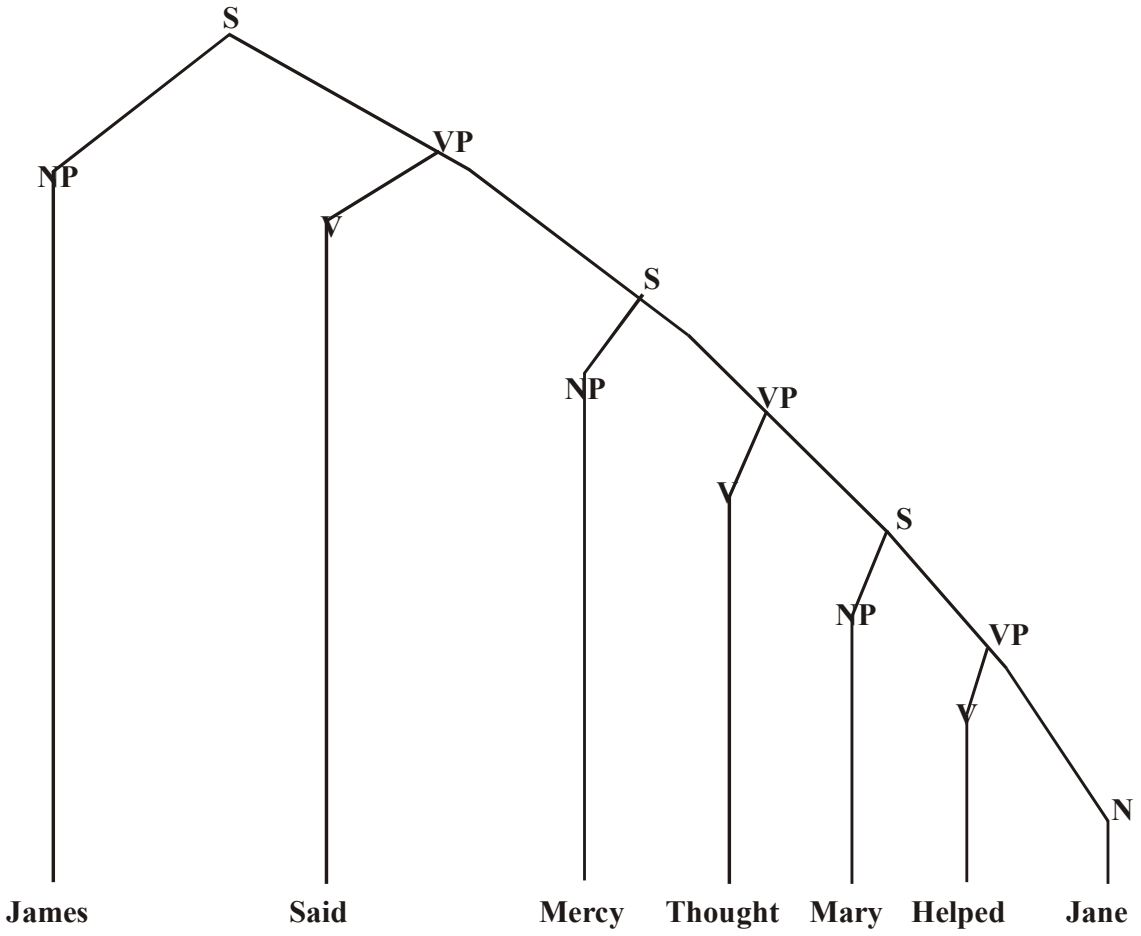


Fig.3: Showing a tree diagram of a recursive utterance.

2.10 TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR

TG also called TGG is a system of language analysis that recognizes the relationship among the various elements of a sentence and among the possible sentences of a language and uses a

process or rules (some of which are called transforms) to express this relationship. Noam Chomsky, who owed much to his former teacher, Z.S. Harris, developed this model first as a phrase structure grammar as contained in *Syntactic Structures* (1957) then modified in *Aspect of the theory of Syntax* (1965). (Kess 1992: 105) says Chomsky turned linguistics from the prescientific stage of the collection and classification of interesting facts to focus on their construction and validation. Kess (ibid) opines that Chomsky claimed that the rigorous methods stressed by the structuralists were trivial, and perhaps leading to false conclusions. To him, structuralism and generatism clashed on three main points of subject matter, goal and methods. For structuralism, the subject matter was corpus, its goal was classification of elements in corpus, and the method was a set of discovery procedures. Generative grammar, on the other hand, took its subject matter as competence (the speaker's knowledge), its goal as the specification of rules underlying the construction of sentences (performance) and the method rested on evaluation procedure for the adequacy of grammar.

Transformational Grammar (TG) is concerned with the well formed grammatical sentences of a language. In fact, the theory of a Transformational Grammar (TG) is designed to distinguish between the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. A grammatical sentence is one which would be accepted as well-formed by native speakers of the language under consideration. TG deals with the well-formedness of a sentence syntactically, semantically and phonologically, (Ubahakwe and Sogbesan 2001:21 and Radford 1981, 1988).

Examples:

1. *We hate herself.

This sentence is syntactically well- formed but semantically unacceptable. It should rather be

We hate ourselves.

or

She hates herself.

2. * They welcome the visitor to the house back.

The meaning of this sentence can be understood, but it is syntactically ill-formed. It should rather be:

They welcome the visitor back to the house.

3. *Those who REbel are reBELS.
NP VP

This sentence is semantically and syntactically well formed but phonologically ill-formed. It should rather be:

Those who reBEL are REbels.
VP NP

(Radford 1988) specifically opines that "It is the native speaker's grammatical competence (his knowledge of the grammar of his language) which tells him that he cannot be referring to the asterisked sentences above as grammatical".

2.10.1 PHRASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR (or F) Rule

A phrase structure grammar is one that analyzes utterances in terms of its syntactic constituents, (Allen and Corder 1980:59; Atkinson, Kilby, and Roca 1982:213 – 228; Tomori 2004:67; Mansur 2009:17). It is the theory which tells us that a sentence (S) can consist of or be expanded as the sequence of NP + AUX + VP. The rule also tells us that NP can be expanded as Art + N and that VP can be expanded as V+NP. These expansions can be illustrated in tree form thus:

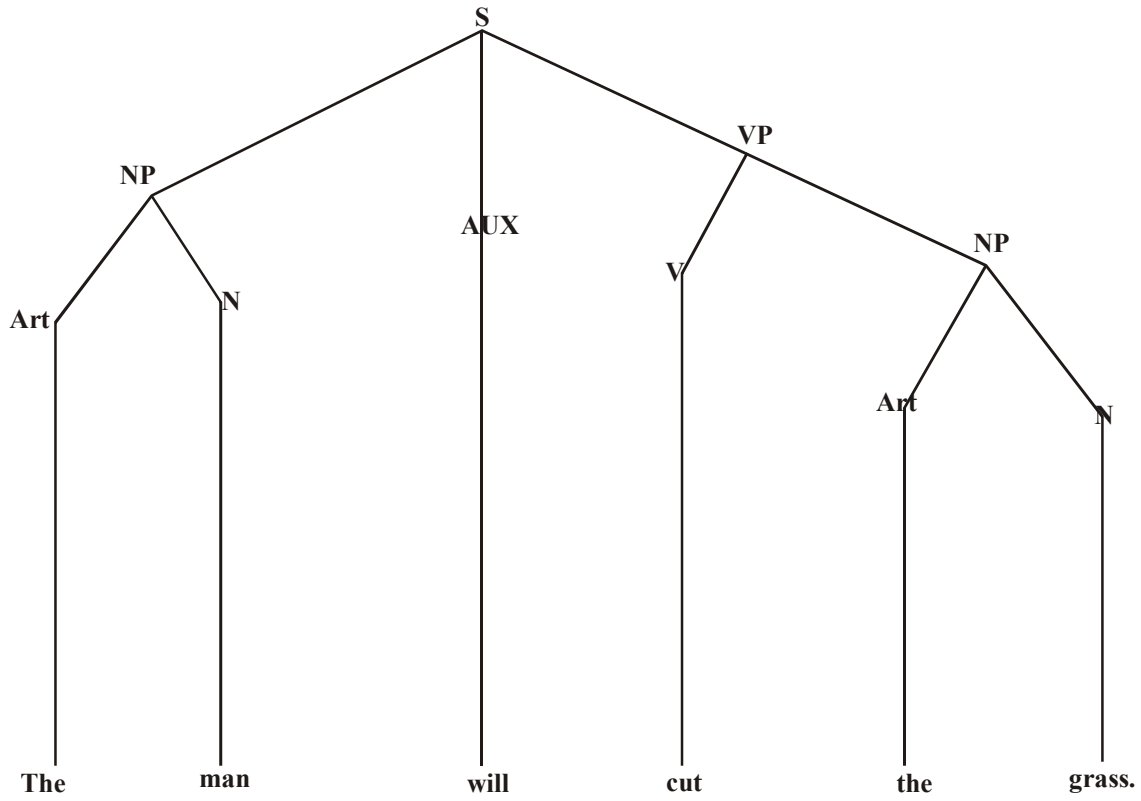


Fig.4: Showing a tree diagram of a simple sentence

In the *Syntactic Structures* (1957) Chomsky gave the following examples of rewrite rules:

S ⟶ NP + VP

VP ⟶ Vb + NP

NP ⟶ Det. +N

Det. ⟶ { the, a, this, that,…}

N ⟶ {man, boy, letter, car, policeman, thief,…}

AUX. ⟶ {will, can, might, would,…}

V ⟶ {post, repair, bake, arrest, buy,…}

The S symbol stands for a sentence. The arrow means 'expand' or rewrite X as Y (where X represents any element on the left of the arrow, and Y any element on the right). This means, in the case of the fist example, rewrite Sentence as NP + VP where NP means

noun phrase and VP means verb phrase. In the second example, it means rewrite NP as Det + N where Det. means a determiner, such as 'the', 'a', 'this', etc and N means a noun such as 'man', 'boy', 'letter', etc. And so it goes down the line. According to the rules of phrase structure grammar, therefore, the full derivation of 'A boy ate the food' is given by Chomsky as follows:

Sentence

NP + VP

Det. + N +VP

Det. + N + V + NP

A + boy +ate + NP

A + boy + ate + det. + N

A + boy + ate + the + N

A + boy + ate + the + food.

Each of the lines, which is known as ' a string', has been derived by one or the other of the **F** rules or instruction formulas given . Only one symbol of a string is rewritten in each step to derive the next. A string that cannot be further rewritten by applying **F** rules, or instruction formulas, is known as a terminal string.

A phrase structure can then be defined as a graph with the general name 'tree diagram.' The graph consists of a root nodes and other nodes connected by a line called branches. The branches must not cross each other and there must be a unique path from the last node on each branch to the root node. Chomsky enhances his discussion on PSG by saying that the notion of phrase structure is adequate for only a small proportion of a language, and that the rest should be derived by the application of rules of different type, called transformational rules, to the structures given by the phrase structure grammar. He argued that this model shows that sentences, which have superficial syntactic differences, can

be proved to have a common origin and should have a similar meaning, e.g. active sentences transformed to passive ones. To illustrate, the passive transformation is given in syntactic structure as follows:

AV-The boy will post the letter.

Art+NP1+Aux+V+art+NP2

PV – The letter will be posted by the boy.

Art+NP2+Aux+V+Prep+art+NP1

In the example above, 'The boy (NP) + will (Aux) + post (verb) +the letter' (VP), which is an active sentence is changed by the passive transformation into 'The letter(NP2+ will(AUX)+ be +posted(V)+ by + the(ART)+ boy(NP1)'.Allen and Corder (op.cit) state that transformational rules are quite different from phrase structure rules in that the rules of the latter develop a single symbol at a time. For instance, the single symbol **S** is rewritten as NP + VP, the single symbol VP is rewritten V + NP and so on. Transformational rules are different in that each rule operates on a whole structure, provided it can be analyzed in terms of the elements referred to on the left hand side of the rule. Phrase structure rules are very restricted in terms of the way they can operate, but transformational rules can perform a number of complex operations. They can also delete elements, as seen in the rule, which changes the underlying structure of 'The letter will be posted by the boy' into 'The letter will be posted'. Although sets such as these active and passive sentences appear to be very different on the surface (i.e. in such things as word order), a Transformational Grammar (TG) tries to show that the underlying structure (i.e. in their deeper relations to one another) the sentences are very similar. Transformational Grammar (TG) assigns a 'deep structure' to a 'surface structure' to show the relationship of such sentences.

2.10.2 EXTENDED THEORY

The extended theory is a modified version of the Standard Model. In this model, the deep structure is said to determine meaning. Therefore, when transformational rules apply to a structure, the meaning still remains.

Example: 1. Active: Aisha ate the food.

2. Passive: The food was eaten by Aisha.

In the standard theory, these sentences are seen to have the same meaning regardless of the fact that:

1 is an active sentence while 2 is in the passive.

Thus, the general consensus in the Standard Theory was that transformations were meaning preserving. This was a hypothesis put forward by J.J Katz and P.M. Postal hence it was subsequently called the Katz- Postal Hypothesis. This theory was however proved wrong through such examples:

3. Positive: Salmanu is an American.

4. Negative: Salmanu is not an American.

The positive sentence affirms Salmanu's American citizenship while the negative does not. Due to the flaw in theory, linguists revised it and came up with the Extended Standard Theory (EST) model. This theory tries to solve the problem of disparity in meaning between the deep structure and the surface structure of sentences. It distinguishes between syntax and semantics, and makes each autonomous. Following this argument, the meaning at the surface structure may not necessarily be equivalent to that at the deep structure. This study adopted this theory (EST) for meaning realization in the negative modality used in the data (Chapter Four).

2.10.3 REVISED EXTENDED STANDARD THEORY (REST)

A further development of TG came in the distinction between the deep and surface structures. In Standard Theory, meaning is said to be realized at deep structure. However, (Riemsdijk and Williams1986:83) in the following example show that meaning can be realized at the surface structure.

Active. Everyone in this room knows two languages.

Passive: Two languages are known by everyone in this room.

(Lamidi op.cit) observes that the active sentence implies that everyone is bilingual in any two languages. The passive, on the other hand, implies that everyone knows the same two languages. It follows that each pair cannot have the same deep structure. Thus, the passive sentence will have a deep structure that is different from its active counterpart. This decision according to (Lamidi ibid:50), is due to the fact that meaning is realized fully at the surface structure though such meaning is recoverable (can be realized) at the deep structure.

2.10.4 TRACE THEORY

This theory serves as an enhancement on the surface level structure. As observed in the extended model, semantic interpretation became the function of both the deep and surface structures as against the earlier assignment in the standard theory where semantics existed in the base component. In the trace theory, any link between the deep and semantic component was abolished, and it became the surface structure that determined how the meaning is interpreted (Kess 1992:114 and Mansur 2009:23). In analytic terms, the concept of trace is related to propositions that when transformational rules apply they leave gaps where the items moved from. In the words of (Lamidi op.cit 52), “A moved element leaves a gap at the extraction site. Such words are deposited at the landing site – a node which was formerly empty.” Examples are:

6 (a) Dauda sent a message.

(b) What did Dauda send?

7 (a) Henry will bring the book.

(b) Will Henry - bring the book?

Sentence '6a' is a declarative form having the transitive verb 'sent'. When the sentence is converted into the interrogative form, the verb moved to the end of the sentence while the object NP is deleted, leaving an empty position in front of the verb 'send '. This empty position is an example of trace. Sentence 7a is also declarative while 7b is a question derived from 7a through the movement of element (will) from its original position (extraction site) marked with dash.

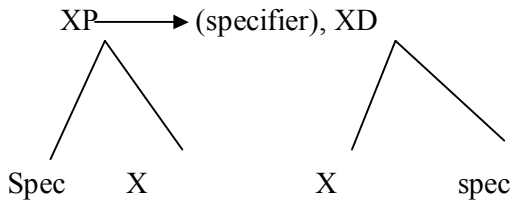
2.10.5 X-BAR THEORY

This is a component of linguistic theory which attempts to identify syntactic features presumably common to all the human languages that fit in a presupposed (1965) framework. It claims that among their phrasal categories, all these languages share certain structural similarities including one known as the X bar. The X-bar theory was first proposed by Chomsky in 1970 as an enhancement on phrase structure (PS) theory, which was observed to account for what is termed intermediate categories. The necessity of a device to cater for the intermediate categorical levels was initially conceived by Zellig Haris in 1951 through what he referred to as raised numbers. Jakendoff was also said to have made a similar proposal in 1977 through what he termed as 'prime numbers (Radford op.cit in Mansur 2009:25). All the three (raised numbers, x-bar and prime numbers) are variants of each other and different ways of saying the same thing.

An intermediate category is defined by (Radford 2004) as a category that is larger than N but smaller than NP. The NP, 'a man of the people,' can be analyzed corresponding to the three levels as: NP, intermediate category and N (Lexical Category). The NP, which is

referred to as full NP, contains the determiner 'a' and noun 'man'. The intermediate category, which is said to be smaller than the full NP, is 'man of the people'. In other words, 'man of the people ' is a single phrasal of expansion of the word 'man' while the full NP is its double phrasal expansion'(Radford, 2004 in Mansur 2009:25). The letter X is used to signify an arbitrary lexical category (part of speech), when analyzing specific utterance, specific categories are assigned. The X may become an N for noun, a V for verb, an A for adjective, or a P for preposition. The term X-bar is derived from the notion representing this structure. Certain structures are represented by $\bar{X}$. Because this is difficult to type set, it is often written as XD, using the prime symbol. There are three syntax assembly rules which form the basis of X-bar theory. These rules can be expressed as immediate dominance rules for natural languages.

1. An X Phrase consist of an optional specifier and an X-bar, in any order:

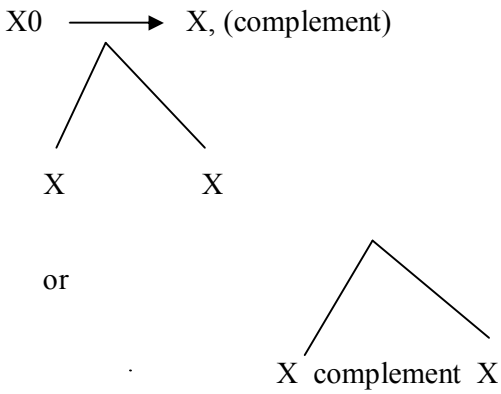


2. One kind of X-bar consist of an X-bar and an adjunct in either order:

   (XD ⟶ XD, adjunct)

   Not all XPs contain XDs with adjuncts, so the rewrite rule is 'optional'.

3. Another kind of X-bar consist of an X (the head of the phrase) and any number of complements (possibly zero in any order.



(a head first and a head final example showing on complement).

These rules could be combined to form a generic XP structure. Because the rules are recursive, there are infinite number of possible structures that could be generated including smaller trees that omit optional parts, structures with multiple complements and additional layers of XPs and XDs of various types

The simple noun phrase 'the cat' might be rendered thus:

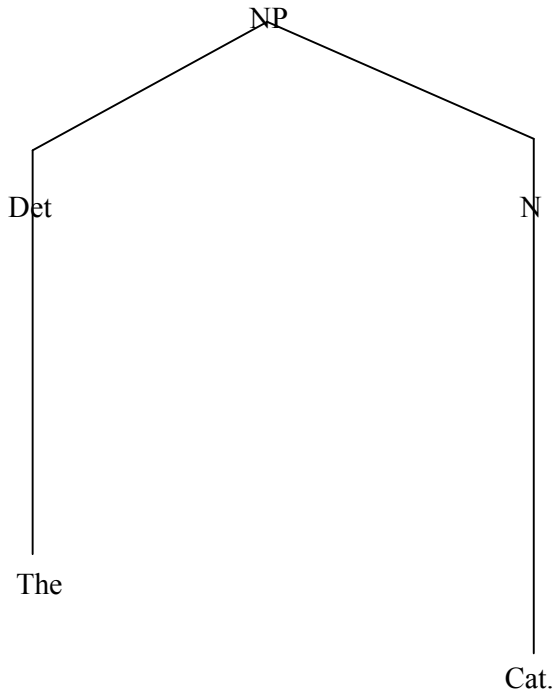


Fig.5: X –bar tree diagram(i)

The word ‘the’ is a determiner (specifically an article) which at first was believed to be a type of specifier for nouns. The head is the determiner (D) which projects into a determiner phrase (DP or De (P). The word ‘cat’ is the noun phrase (NP), (X-bar theory – Wikipedia).

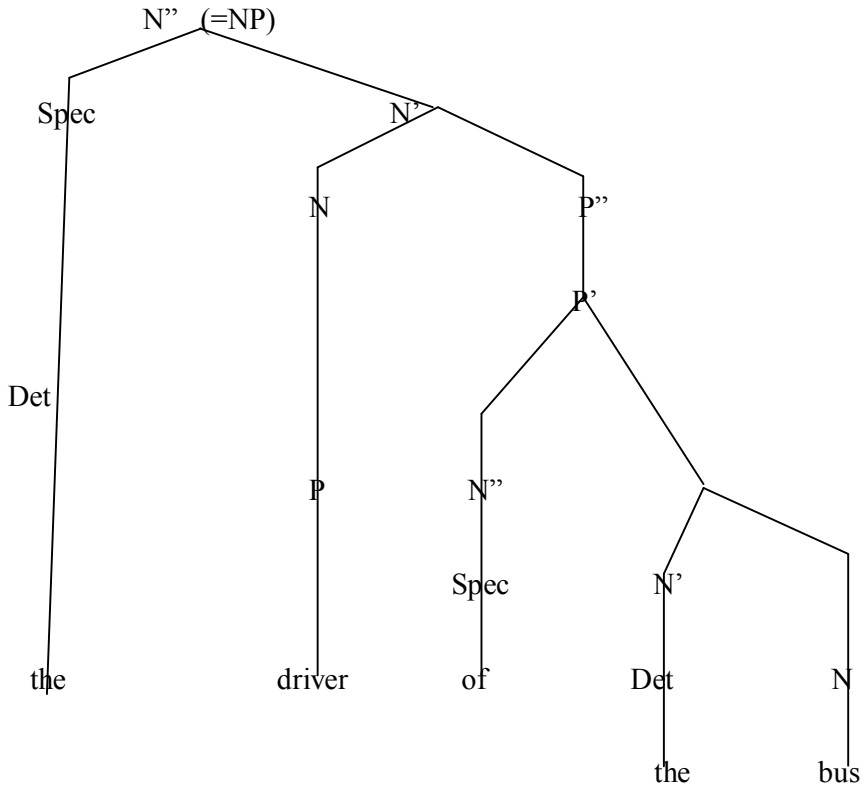


Fig.6: X-bar tree diagram (ii) the bus

The Noun in an NP can be pre-modified by a determiner, nominal, numeral or an adjective, and post-modified by prepositional phrases (complement and or adjunct) as above. The head of the phrase is N driver and P is its complement. This complement defines the head and without it the meaning of *driver* is incomplete. N is a lexical category that combines with P” to project to N’, an intermediate category. The spec of the phrase is a determiner and this combines with N’ to project to the phrasal category N”.

2.10.6 THE GOVERNMENT AND BINDING THEORY

This is a theory of syntax and a phrase structure grammar (as opposed to dependency grammar) in the tradition of TG developed principally by Chomsky in the 1980s. This theory is a radical revision of his earlier theories and was later revised in The Minimalist Program (1995) and several subsequent papers latest being Three factors in language design (2005). GB refers to two central sub theories of the theory; government, which is an abstract syntactic relation, and binders, which deals with the referents of pronouns, anaphors and referential expressions. GB was the first to be based on the principles and parameters model of language, which also underlies the later development of the Minimalist Program.

Government:

The main application of the government relation concerns the assignment of case. Government is defined as follows:

A governs B if and only if

.A is a governor and

.A m – commands B and

.no barrier intervenes between A and B.

Governors are head of the lexical categories (V, N, A, P) and tensed I(J).

A m – commands B if A does not dominate B and B does not dominate A and the first maximal projection of A dominates B. The maximal projection of a head X is XP. This means that for example, Am –commands B, but B does not m- command A.

Binding can be defined as:

An element A binds an element B if and only if Ac-commands B, and A and B co-refer.

Example:

John saw his mother.

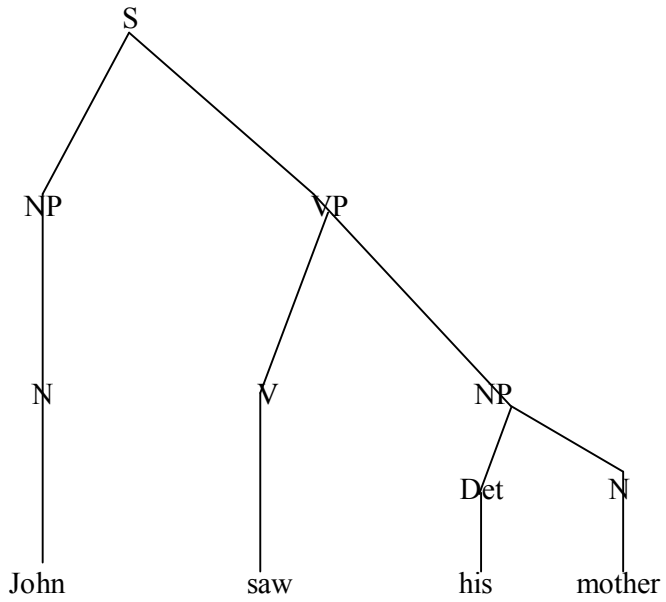


Fig.7: Govt. and Binding theory basic tree (1).

http//www.ironcreek.net/phpsyntaxtree/

The NP 'John' C- Commands 'his' because the first parent of NP, S contains 'his'. 'John' and 'his' are also co-referential (they refer to the same person), therefore 'John' binds 'his'.

On the other hand, in the ungrammatical sentence:

*'The mother of John likes himself', John does not C- Command 'himself', so they have no binding relationship despite the fact that they co refer.

The importance of binding is shown in the grammaticality of the following sentences:

1. *John saw him.
2. John saw himself.
3. * Himself saw John.
4. * John saw John.

(Haegeman 199) explains that Binding is used, along with particular binding principles, to explain the ungrammaticality of these statements. The applicable rules are called binding principles.

A, Binding principle B, and Binding principle C.

1. Principle A: an anaphor (reflexive or reciprocal, such as "himself or each other") must be bound in its governing category (roughly, the clause).

   Since 'himself' is not C-Command by 'John' in sentence (3), the principle A is violated.

2. Principle B: a pronoun must be free (i.e. not bound) within its governing category (roughly, the clause). In sentence (1) 'him) is bound by 'John' violating principle B.

3. Principle C: an R-expression must be free (i.e. not bound). R- expressions (e.g. " the dog" or "John") are referential expressions. Unlike pronouns and anaphora, they independently refer, i.e. pick out entities in the world.

In sentence (4), the first instance of 'John' binds the second, violating principle C.

2.10.7 THE MINIMALIST PROGRAM (MP)

The minimalist program consists of four recent essays that attempt to situate linguistic theory in the broader cognitive sciences. In these essays, the minimalist approach to linguistic theory is formulated and progressively developed. Building on the theory of principles and parameters and, in particular, on the principles of the economy of derivation and representation, the minimalist economy of derivation and representation, the minimalist framework takes universal grammar as providing a unique computational system, with derivation driven by this morphological properties, to which the syntactic variation of languages is also restricted. Within this theoretical framework, linguistic experiences are generated by optimally efficient derivations that must satisfy the conditions that hold on

interface levels, the only levels of linguistic representation. The interface levels provide instructions to two types of performance systems, articulatory – perceptional and conceptual intentional. All syntactic conditions, then, express the properties of the interface levels, reflecting in the interpretive requirements of language and keeping to very restricted conceptual resources.

2.11 DEEP AND SURFACE STRUCTURE

The concept of deep and surface structures of sentences was further developed in 1965 to show that a sentence has both a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep structure of a sentence is the underlying syntactic-semantic component of the sentence, and the surface structure is the form in which the sentence appears, phonologically or orthographically (Tomori: 2004:82). Chomsky argued that sentences had two forms, a deep structure, which has the propositional core of the sentence, and a surface form, which was the way it appeared as an actual utterance. The deep structure is an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented. The deep structure of an abstract sentence comprises a NP (Noun Phrase) plus a VP (Verb Phrase), the surface structure (a transformational kind) specifies all the transformations needed to turn it into an actual English. At the surface level, the grammar deals with how any given utterance is ultimately realized in grammatical elements and structure. At the deep structure, the grammar accounts for how semantic features are organized into networks, with the entry condition into any given network explicitly stated.

Two superficially distinct sentence structures would be, e.g.

a. Mark stole the book.

b. The book was stolen by Mark.

In the traditional terminology, the first is an active sentence and the second, a passive. The distinction between them is a difference in their surface structure, that is, the syntactic form they take as actual English sentences. The two sentences are very closely related, even identical, at some less 'superficial' level. The other 'underlying' level, where the basic components shared by the two sentences would be represented, is their deep structure. The deep structure is then an abstract level of structural organization in which all the elements determining structural interpretation are represented.

Transformations act on the deep structure and map elements there onto the surface structure, i.e. it changes the structure which occurs at the deep structure to what we find at the surface structure. When such happens, the structure at the deep structure may have its constituents slightly disorganized at the surface structure. From these we can deduce that the surface structure is the physical form (representation of structures) in which the structure finally appears after the application of transformation, (Atkinson and Roca 1982: 165-171); Tomori 2004:82, Yule 2002:102 and Lamidi 2000:43).

2.12 SUMMARY OF THE FUNCTIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONS

(Lamidi 2000:28-29) then sums up the functions of transformations by saying "Transformations perform four major functions on a linguistic structure."

i) They can delete formatives which had earlier occurred at the deep structure of a sentence. This is also called gapping.

Example:

1. Ali drove the car and Ali parked it.
2. Mercy cooked the food and Mercy ate it.
3. Peter killed the rat and Peter roasted it.

In the sentences above, since the words Ali, Mercy and Peter conjoined in the clauses refer to the same persons, the second are redundant. So they can be deleted through transformations to give us:

4. Ali drove the car and parked it.

5. Mercy cooked the food and ate it.

6. Peter killed the rat and roasted it.

ii) They can involve substitution. In this case, a word replaces another in the context of occurrence.

Example:

7a. Hellen helps Hellen.

b. Hellen helps herslf.

8a. Mustapha dislikes Mustapha.

b. Mustapha dislikes himself.

9a. Sarkiand Saka rule Sarki and Saka.

b. Sarki and Saka rule themselves.

If the names in each of these sentences in 7a, 8a, and 9a are co-referential, the substitution transformation can apply to replace the second occurrence with the proper pronoun as in 7b, 8b and 9b.

iii) They can insert new elements into a structure.

Example:

10a. Naomi is beautiful.

10b. Naomi is not beautiful.

11a. Sule can speak very well.

11b. Sule cannot speak very well.

12a. Alice is a lawyer.

12b. Alice is not a lawyer.

In 10b, 11b and 12b *not* and *cannot* which do not occur in10a, 11aand12a have been inserted through negative transformation.

iv) They can also move elements from one position to another in a sentence. This is to achieve syntactic effects. For instance, to change a declarative statement to a polar (Yes or No) question the auxiliary verb will be moved to the sentence initial position.

Example:

13a. Samson can dance *makosa*.

13b. Can Samson dance *makosa*?

14a. You should see me after school.

14b. Should I see you after school?

15a. Salamatu did her assignment last night.

15b. Did Salamatu do her assignment last night?

In (15b), we have both insertion and movement transformations as the auxiliary verb *do* was inserted after the subject (Salamatu) and *did* moved to sentence initial from the sentence medial position to the sentence initial position.

2.13 THE ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Voice is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways without change in the fact reported. It also concerns the emphasis that a speaker gives to the subject or object in a sentence (Quirk, et al 1980 and Bagwasi 2000). In English, there are two voices: the active and the passive. Generally, the active voice produces a more powerful sentence than the passive. An active construction immediately identifies the subject so that readers can quickly understand and visualize who is doing what and because of the clarity, active voice is almost always the best choice in documents that communicate information such as business letters and memos. It is important to note that only transitive

verbs can be either active or passive. This is because, while a transitive verb transfers action from a subject to an object, with intransitive verb, the action is limited to the subject. The active voice emphasizes that the subject is doing something, while the passive emphasizes that something is being done to the object by the subject. The passive voice construction requires the use of the auxiliary verb 'to be' and its various forms (be, am, is, are, was, were, been, being). It is sometimes accompanied by the preposition - by (Bagwasi 2000: 19). (Leech 2002:345) says "The passive is ... a regular feature in formal, especially scientific written text." The passive voice is used when the receiver of the action is more important than the doer or the doer is unknown, unimportant, or perhaps too obvious to be worth mentioning .The passive voice can also be used to make other changes to a sentence's emphasis, including emphasizing a modifying adverb or even the performer of the action, e.g. PV - The breakthrough *was achieved* by Bulus and Evans, two researchers in the university's genetic engineering lab. Instead of:

AV- Bulus and Evans, two researchers in the University's genetic engineering lab achieved the breakthrough.

The passive voice is also sometimes used to conceal the performer of an action or the identity of a person responsible for a mistake. It is this use of the passive voice to evade responsibility that has been the subject of the greatest criticism. The passive is also often used in scientific writing because of the tone of detachment and impersonality that it helps to establish *(*htttp://en. wikipedia.org/wiki/English-passive- voice). The passive is generally used when the main interest of the speaker or writer is on the object rather than on the active subject of the sentence. In general terms, one can say that a person uses the passive when he does not wish to consider the agent important or does not wish to call attention to the agent. (Microsoft 2009) puts it that "A passive construction is frequently used when the subject of a sentence is obvious or unimportant", e.g. PV - George *was arrested* after his finger prints

were discovered on the knife. In this sentence, the subject is unstated. A reader though will have no problem assuming that the police arrested George and discovered his finger prints. In this sentence, the receiver of the action, (George) is more significant than the actor (the police), so a passive construction places emphasis on the proper person. If the role of the police officer was of crucial importance, the sentence would be more forceful if stated in the active voice:

AV-The police arrested George after he discovered his finger prints on the knife. (Chomsky 1957) opines that the active - passive transformation involves a change from the kernel sentence into the passive. In other words, the transformation involves some structural changes. That is, it involves some re- arrangement of the constituents of the sentence in such a way that the derived sentence will be grammatical. He was of the view that the concept of the 'kernel sentence' was central in the early theory of TG and that the kernel consists of simple, declarative and active sentences, and all other sentences can be described as transforms. He handled the active -passive relationship by saying that 'if S, is a grammatical sentence of the form - NP1 +AUX+be+NP2, then the corresponding string of NP2+AUX+be+V+by+NP1 is also grammatical.

Example:

(A V) Ayuba sent a gift to me.

NP1 + VP + art + NP2 + prep + NP3

(PV)A gift *was sent* to me by Ayuba.

Art +NP2+AUX+ VP+ prep+NP3+ by + NP1

This example shows the re-arrangement of the constituent of the active sentence into the passive. The subject' Ayuba', which occupies a headword position in the (AV), comes last in the (PV) while the direct object now occupies the headword position.

2.14 THEORETECAL FRAMEWORK

The study adopted the transformational grammar as presented by (Chomsky 1957, Kess 1992, Lamidi 2000 and Radford 1988). The TG as presented by Chomsky is used to account for the actual analysis of the active – passive transformation of the two languages under consideration. Chomsky handled the active – passive transformation relationship by saying that "if S is a grammatical sentence of the form NP + Aux. +V + NP2, then the corresponding string of the form NP2 + Aux. +be + en + V +by +NP1 is also a grammatical sentence" (Tomori 2004:73).

Specifically, the Extended Standard Theory (EST) which gives further distinction between the deep structure and surface structure is adopted for meaning realization from the active and passive sentences. In the Standard Theory (ST) meaning is said to be realized at the deep structure (Riemsdijk, Williams 1986:83 and Lamidi op.cit.46), while in the Extended Standard Theory (EST) meaning is realized at both the surface (passive sentence) and deep structure (active sentence) (Cowper 1992:9, Lamidi, op.cit. 50). For example:

a) Positive: Alice is a tall girl.

b) Negative: Alice is not a tall girl.

A comparison of the two sentences shows that they are not identical in meaning. While the positive confirms the height of Alice, the negative one does not. In the words of (Lamid ibid: 47)

> *EST tries to solve the problem of disparity in meaning between the deep structure and surface structures of sentences. It distinguishes between syntax and semantics, and makes each autonomous. The autonomy of syntax in EST means that we should be able to explain the structure of a language without any reference to meaning.*

The idea behind the EST theory is the meaning at the surface structure may not necessarily be equivalent to that at the deep structure. This theory is adopted for this study because in it,

meaning is realized at the surface structure, though such meaning is recoverable at the deep structure unlike the Standard Theory where meaning is realized at the deep structure. The theory also deals with active – passive transformation and needs to show that they are related according to (Chomsky 1957, Brown and Miller 1982, Allerton 1979, Kess 2003 and Tomori 2004). By a relationship between active and passive construction, we mean that the same lexical items occur in the two constructions. Thus, passive sentences in English are those transformations of active transitive verb sentences in which the direct object becomes the subject of the passive sentence, and its subject the object of a 'by' prepositional phrase. For example:

a) Declarative

AV: The cat Hated dog.

Art+NP1+Ved+art+NP2

PV: The dog *was hated* by the cat.

b) Interrogative

AV: Did the cat hate the dog?

Int. + art + NP1 + V + ART, + NP2

PV: *Wasn't* the dog hated by the cat?

Int. + art. + NP2 + V + by + art. + NP1

c) Negative

AV: The cat didn't hate the dog.

Art. + NP1 + Neg. + V + art. + NP2

PV: The dog *was not hated* by the cat.

Art. + NP2 + aux. + Neg. + Ved + by + NP1.

Transformational Grammar then is the type of grammar that seeks to explain the rules governing structural changes and formation of utterances as (Allen and Buren 1971) opine:

"A grammatical transformation, Ts, operates on a given string with a given constituent structure and coverts it to a new string with a new derived constituent." (Tomori 2004:66) explains further by saying: "A given string means a string of grammatically acceptable morphemes e.g. "John saw the boy", with the structure – subject + verb + object. Converted into the passive form it becomes a new string: "The boy was seen by John".

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides information on a wide range of methodological issues. Specifically, it answers questions on the study population, the research tools, the population sample, the method of data collection, the sources of data, the analytical procedures and the problems encountered in the study.

3.1 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The researcher's attention was focused on Biu and Hawul LGAs where the majority of Bura speakers are found. The data came from the performance of three hundred (300) SS111 Bura learners of English, the 2010/11 set who were randomly sampled from six out of twelve secondary schools in these local government areas. Of the six secondary schools sampled, three were public or government owned while the other three were privately owned. From each school type, one hundred and fifty (150) students were selected as respondents. These students are in their final year in secondary school and as such must have at least six years uninterrupted studies. This being the case, it was assumed that they were best suited for the study, as it was felt that they should have attained a significant level of competence and control of English active – passive transformation appropriate to their level. It is expected that the difficulties in the active – passive transformation of these students will be minimal, as they have improved if not overcome most mother tongue interference challenges over the years of studying English.

3.2 RESEARCH TOOLS

Three major instruments were used to collect data for this study. They are test, interview and observation.

3.2.1 TEST

The data were selected active and passive sentences, which were contrasted in English and Bura for the purpose of establishing the syntactic characteristics of the active – passive transformation in English and Bura. There was also a test of forty-five (45) items, which the students transformed from active into passive voice in the simple present, present continuous, present perfect, simple past, past continuous, past perfect, simple future, future continuous and future perfect tenses in the three modalities (declarative, interrogative and negative).i.e. five (5) sentences each in the simple present , present continuous, present perfect, simple past, past continuous, past perfect , simple future, future continuous and future perfect tenses; giving a total of one hundred and thirty – five (135) responses.

3.2.2 OBSERVATION

Observation is a direct means of studying the overt behavior of people. It entails an observer recording what actually happens while it is happening. In this research, the researcher observed students taking notes and also teachers' methods of teaching.

3.2.3 INTERVIEW

Interviewing is a technique used for collecting information in a face-to-face contact. It gives a valid and reliable information of verbal responses from the respondents. There are four main types of interview;

i. Structured interview

ii. Unstructured interview,

iii. Non-directive depth interview

iv. Focused interview

In this study, the unstructured interview was used. Students were interviewed concerning the use of English active – passive transformation. We sort to discover whether they read novels, listen to the radio and or television.

3.3 SAMPLE POPULATION

Sampling, according to (Osuala 1993:104), is taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe. There are two broad types of sampling: probability and non – probability or purposive sampling. Probability sampling is where each element in a population is chosen at random and has a known chance of selection. In non – probability sampling, the chance of selection for each element in a population is unknown. In this study, the probability sampling technique was adopted. The probability method of sampling has been classified under:

i) Simple random sampling;

ii) Stratified random sampling;

iii) Systemic sampling and

iv) Cluster or area sampling.

This study employed the cluster and simple random sampling techniques, which involve grouping the schools as private and public first, and then sampling the respondents within the clusters randomly. Although there are many private and public secondary schools found in the Bura speaking area, only six secondary schools were randomly sampled. The affected schools were three public and three private secondary schools. They were:

TABLE 3.1 SHOWING PUBLIC SCHOOLS SAMPLE POPULATION

S/NO	GROUP 'A' Public Schools	Total Respondents	Number Sampled
1.	GDSS Marama	241	50
2.	GSS Sakwa	242	50
3.	GSSS Biu	542	50
4.	Total	1,025	150

TABLE 3.2 SHOWING PRIVATE SCHOOLS SAMPLE POPULATION

S/NO	GROUP 'B' Private Schools	Total Respondents	Number Sampled
1.	Lajada High School	208	50
2.	Godiya GSS	187	50
3.	Victory College	176	50
4.	Total	571	150

3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The researcher first went to the principals of the sampled schools and disclosed his intension to them. He was subsequently directed to the heads of departments and class masters of SS111 with whom the modalities for selection and the conduct of the test were worked out. A random sampling technique of balloting was employed to select the fifty students from each school giving a total of three hundred (300) respondents.

3.5 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

As expected by the nature of this study, test was the main method employed for the collection of data as it was felt to be a very reliable source of gathering data for this purpose. This technique provided opportunity for every respondent to work at his/her own pace without any extraneous variable as well as permitting smooth distribution and collection of the test scripts. The test designed was student centered since the problems the research questions seek to answer are learner centered (purely on Bura speaking learners of English).

The researcher supervised the administration of the test in cooperation with some teachers of English in the sampled schools. However, to find out the similarities or differences that exist between English and Bura transformations, some English active - passive sentences were constructed and given to experts in Bura language who gave the Bura version.

3.6 SOURCES OF DATA

For the purpose of this study, our data was from two type of materials:

1. The Bura corpus.

   For effective analysis of the Bura active – passive transformation system, excerpts of sentences were obtained from expert users of the language. Also, being a native speaker of the language, some of the data were intuitively generated by the researcher.

2. The English corpus.

   The English active – passive transformation in:

   i. Wren, P.C. and Martin, H. (2003) *High School Grammar and Compositon*. Chand and Company;

   ii. Bagwasi, M. and Biakolo, E. (2002) *Common Mistakes Students Make and how to correct them*;

   iii. Oluikpe, B. O. et al (2000) *Intensive English* 3rd ed. Ibadan, Africana First Publisher Ltd;

   iv. Banjo, A. Adeniran, A. Akano, Onoga, U. (2009) *New Oxford English* New ed. University Press; these formed the main source for the English corpus.

3.7 ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

An eclectic analytical procedure was adopted for this study. First, Adeyanju's 1978 CA analytical procedure of:

i) Description of the two languages.

ii) Selection of elements to be contrasted.

iii) The contrast, prediction of areas of interference.

iv) The validation of the predictions through field work such as error analysis.

Then Chomsky's 1957 supposition that:

If S is a grammatical sentence of the form

NP1 + AUX + be + NP2 then the corresponding string of

NP2 + AUX + be + V + by +NP1 is also grammatical.

Finally Corder's 1965 Fault Analysis model which involves four interdependent stages, namely:

i) Recognition,

ii) Description,

iii) Explanation

iv) Correction of the errors.

In this study, the correction of error stage (the pedagogical implications) was done in Chapter Five under section 5.4.(Pedagogical Implications).

Finally, simple percentage was also used. The performance of the respondents on each of the test items was quantified and analyzed by showing the percentage of correct and wrong responses. In this study, percentages that fell below 50% were considered poor, suggesting that more than half of the respondents have difficulties transforming the active into the passive voice. To help the students improve on or overcome the difficulties, exhaustive remedial drill exercises and other measures to be employed by English teachers in alleviating the problems were discussed in chapter five under the sub section mentioned above.

3.8 THE PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED AND HOW THEY WERE SOLVED

All studies pose certain inevitable limitations, and this study is no exception. Two major limitations were identified. Firstly, the use of SS111 students of post primary schools in one state limits it to one geographical region and one linguistic group and hence makes it

impossible for the findings to be generalized. Secondly, the error analysis undertaken in this study was based on the written form because the researcher feels that lumping together written and spoken forms would be too broad in scope for an in depth study of this nature. We, however, argue that such shortcomings can effectively be used as starting points to future researchers along similar lines. So another researcher could work on the error analysis of the spoken form of active – passive transformations of two or more linguistic groups and subject them to the same analysis. .

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND THE INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data collected for the study. The analysis was carried out at two levels with a view to answer the questions posed in section 1.4 of Chapter One. To answer questions one and two, we did a contrastive analysis of English and Bura active–passive transformations. Then we did an error analysis of Bura SS111 students' performance in a 45 test item on active - passive transformations to answer questions three and four.

4.1.1 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND BURA ACTIVE – PASSIVE TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section, an attempt was made at highlighting the structural similarities and differences between Bura and English active - passive transformations. Some active sentences were transformed into the passive in English and Bura languages so as to contrast the passive transformation process in the two languages. The active voice sentences to be transformed into the passive were in the declarative, interrogative and negative modalities.

In a milieu like Nigeria where English is studied as a second language, there are bound to be divergences between L1 and L2. Such divergences are likely to be found when one takes a close look at the transformational characteristics of English active - passive transformations side by side those of L1(e.g. Bura) speakers. To this end, we examined samples from the present, past and future tense passives of English followed by the establishment of the Bura method of conveying the same information. It is assumed that

passive constructions which exist in English may or may not exist in Bura. After comparing each aspect of the active voice (AV) and the passive voice (PV) transform in English and Bura, then we identified the similarities and dissimilarities. By doing this, we were in a position to predict the difficulties to be encountered in learning the English active – passive transformations.

The characteristics of English passive were identified in the areas of:

a) The arrangement of elements.

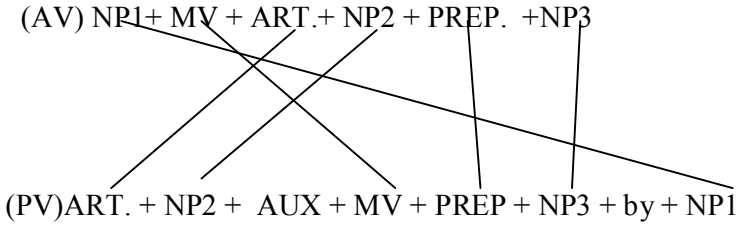
b) The transformation of object – noun/pronoun to subject- noun/pronoun.

c) The transformation of active to the passive forms; this include the auxiliary and main verbs.

4.1.1.1 THE DECLARATIVE

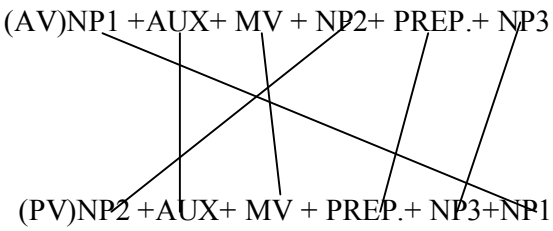
4.1.1.1.1 (SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE)

ENG.-He sends a book to her.



A book is sent to her by him.

BUR.- Tsa ana thlinga kakadu alari.



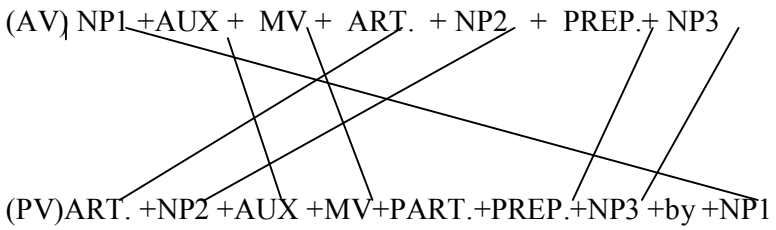
Kakadu ana thlingtadzi alari akilari .

TRANSLIT. –Book use to be sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book used to be sent to her by him.

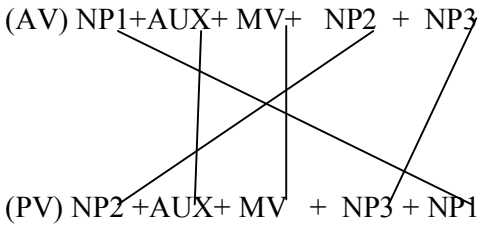
4.1.1.1.2 (PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE)

ENG.- He is sending a book to her.



A book is being sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa akwa thlinga kakadu alari.*



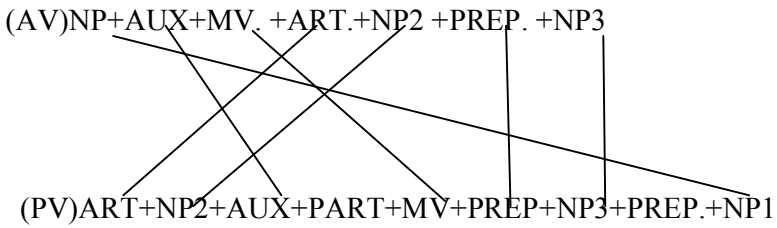
Kakadu akwa thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. - Book (is, was, are, were) being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book is being sent to her by him.

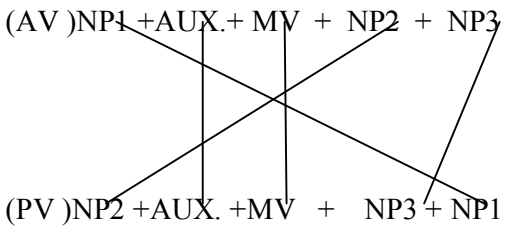
4.1.1.3 (PRESENT PERFECT TENSE)

ENG. He has sent a book to her.



A book has been sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa ku thlingta kakadu alari.*



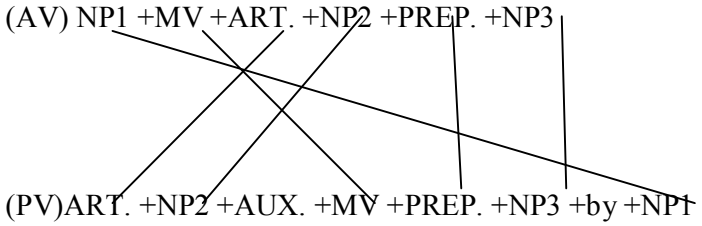
Kakadu ku thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. - Book (has, have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book has been sent to her by him.

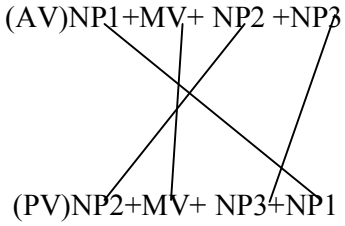
4.1.1.1.4 (SIMPLE PAST TENSE)

ENG.- He sent a book to her.



A book was sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa thlingta kakadu alari.*



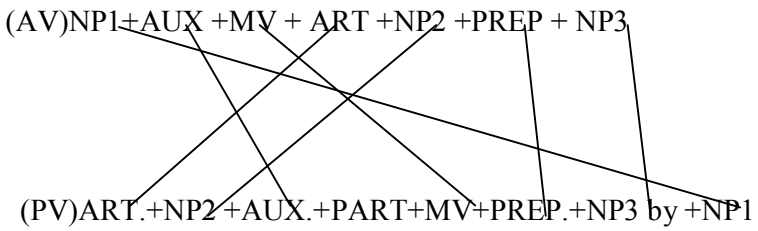
Kakadu ku thlingtadzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. - Book (has, have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book was sent to her by him.

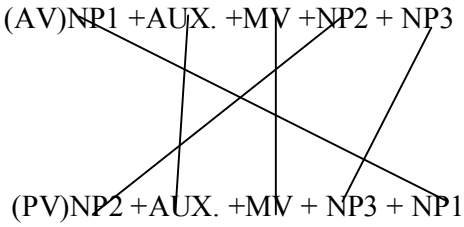
4.1.1.1.5 (PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE)

ENG.- He was sending a book to her.



A book was being sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa akwa thlinga kakadu alari.*



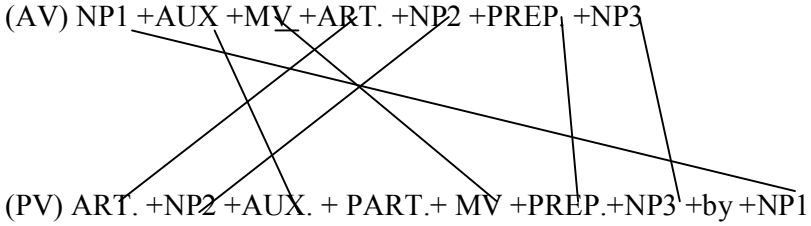
Kakadu akwa thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. -Book (is, was, are, were) being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book was being sent to her by him.

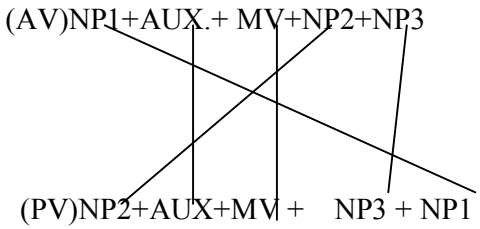
4.1.1.1.6 (PAST PERFECT TENSE)

ENG.- He had sent a book to her.



A book had been sent to her by him.

BUR. - *Tsa ku thingta kakadu alari*.



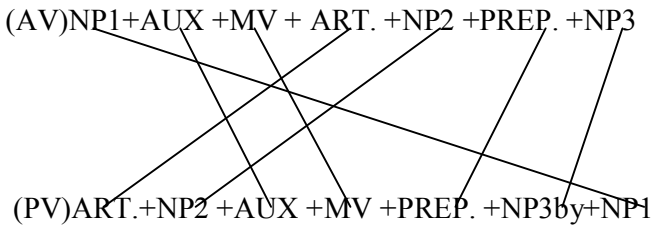
Kakadu ku thlingtadzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. - Book (has, have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book had been sent to her by him.

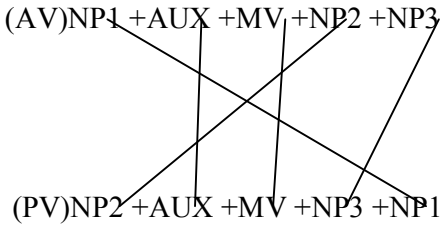
4.1.1.7 (SIMPLE FUTURE)

ENG.- He will send a book to her.



A book will be sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa asi thinga kakadu alari.*



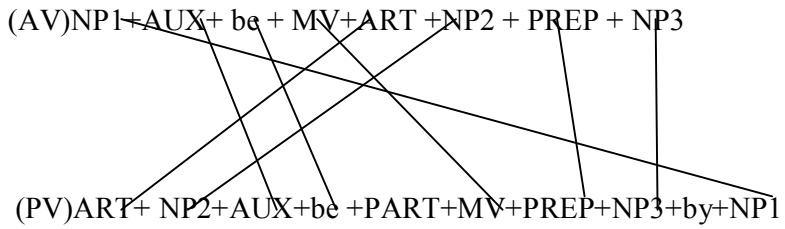
Kakadu asi thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. -Book will be sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT – A book will be sent to her by him.

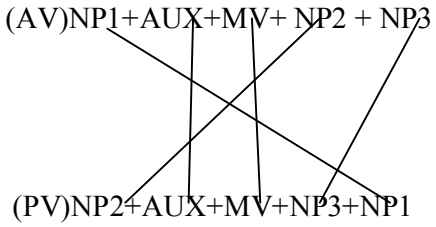
4.1.1.1.8 (FUTURE CONTINUOUS)

ENG. He will be sending a book to her.



A book will be being sent to her by him.

BUR.- Tsa asi dzi akwa thlinga kakadu alari.



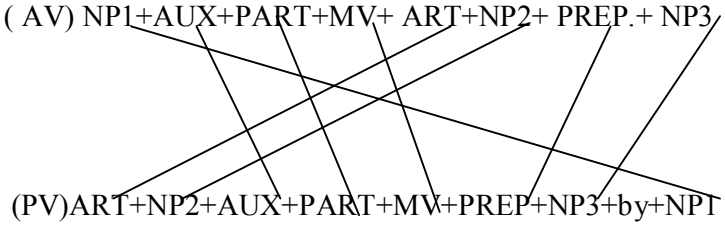
Kakadu asi dzi akwa thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT. - Book will always be sent to(him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book will be being sent to her by him.

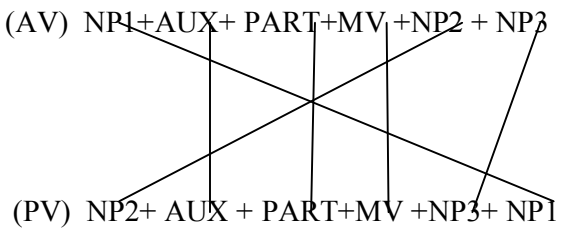
4.1.1.9 FUTURE PERFECT

ENG.- He will have sent a book to her .



A book will have been sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa asi kurta thingta kakadu alari.*



Kakadu asi kurta thlingtidzi alari akilari.

TRANSLIT.- Book will (have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it).

TRANSLAT. – A book will have been sent to her by him.

4.1.1.10 DISCUSSION

The diagrams above show that the structure of active – passive transformation (declarative) in English and Bura have the transformational properties, as proposed by (Chomsky 1957) that, "if S is a grammatical sentence of the form NP1 + AUX + be NP2 then the corresponding string of NP2 + AUX + be + V + by + NP1 is also grammatical".

a) The subject (NP1) takes the headword positions in the active sentences while the object (NP2) occupies the headword positions in the passive sentences.

b) The subject (NP1) is transposed to the final position in the passive sentences preceded by a preposition (by).

c) The main verbs (MV) in the active sentences change from the present, past and future continuous to the participle in the passives (PV) while the auxiliary verbs-am /is / are-changed to -was/were- in accordance with the new subjects of the transformed sentences.

From the Bura translation of the English passive sentences above, the following characteristics of Bura sentences are identified.

a) The passive voice in Bura is expressed by 'dzi' suffixed to the main verbs.

b) The indefinite articles (a, an) used in English are non-existent in Bura sentences (AV) or (PV).

c) In Bura, the tense marker 'akwa' stands for the English auxiliary verbs (is/are/was/were) while 'ku' represents (has/have/had).This implies that the Bura learner of English may face the difficulty of choice between the auxiliary verbs that agree with right subjects.

d) In the English sentences, the third person singular pronouns (him/her/it), which appear as indirect objects (NP3) in the active voice, and (he/she /it) as head word in the passive voice, are represented only by '*alari'* and '*tsa'* (respectively) in the Bura sentences. Consequently, the Bura learner of English may confuse these pronouns since they are non-existent in the Bura.

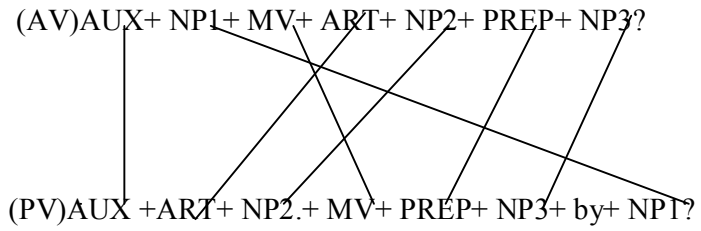
4.1.1.11 PREDICTED DIFFICULTIES IN THE DECLARATIVE

1. Bura learners may use the wrong tenses when transforming active into passive.
2. They may confuse the use of the auxiliaries.
3. They may confuse the use of the participles- being/been.

4.1.2. THE INTERROGATIVE

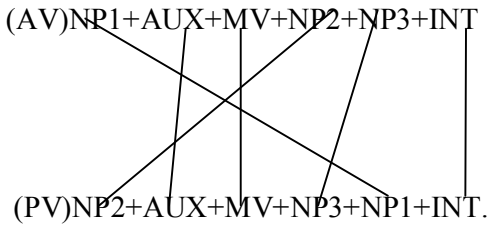
4.1.2.1 SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

ENG.- Does he send a book to her?



Is a book sent to her by him?

BUR.- Tsa ana thlinga kakadu alari ya.



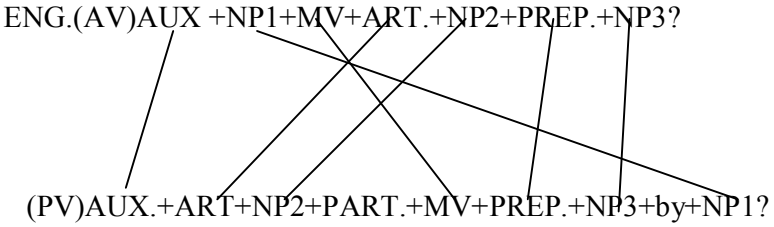
Kakadu ana thlingtidzi alari akila ya.

TRANSLIT –Book use to be sent to (him, he, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. Is a book sent to her by him?

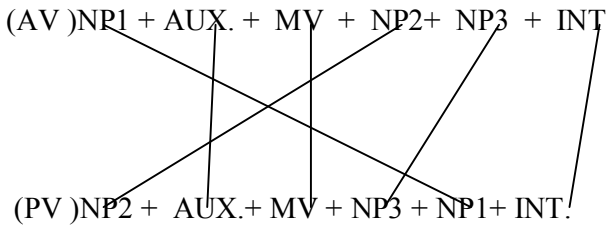
4.1.2.2. PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG.- Is he sending a book to her?



Is a book being sent to her by him?

BUR.- Tsa akwa thlinga kakadu alari ya



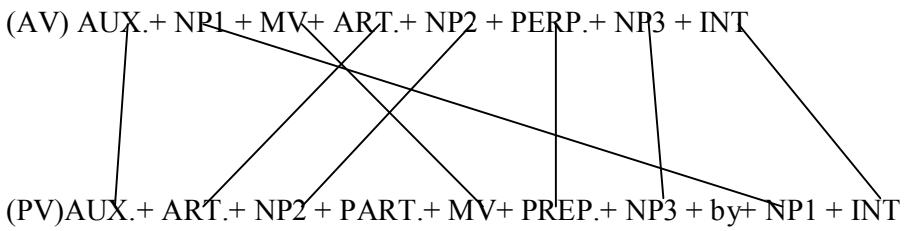
Kakadu akwa thlingtidzi alari akilari ya.

TRANSLIT. –Book is being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. – Is a book being sent to her by him?

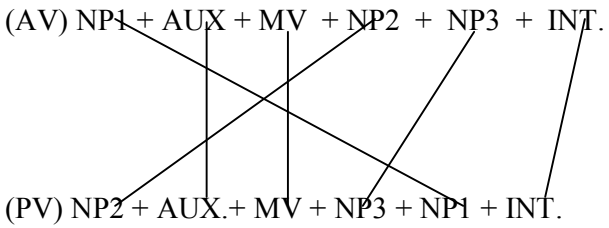
4.1.2.3 PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

ENG.- Has he sent a book to her?



Has a book been sent to her by him?

BUR.- *Tsa ku thlingta kakadu alari ya*.



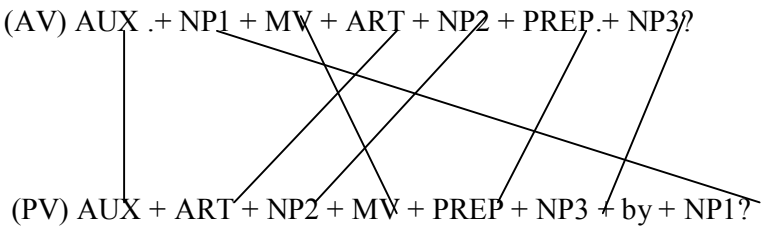
Kakadu ku thlingtidzi alari akilari ya.

TRANSLIT. –Book (has, have, had) been sent to her from him?

TRANSLAT. – Has a book been sent to her by him?

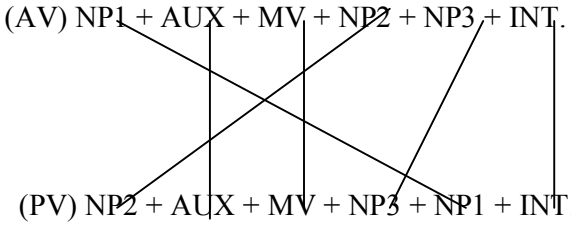
4.1.2.4 SIMPLE PAST TENSE

ENG.- Did he send a book to her?



Was a book sent to her by him?

BUR.- *Tsa ku thlinga kakadu alari ya.*



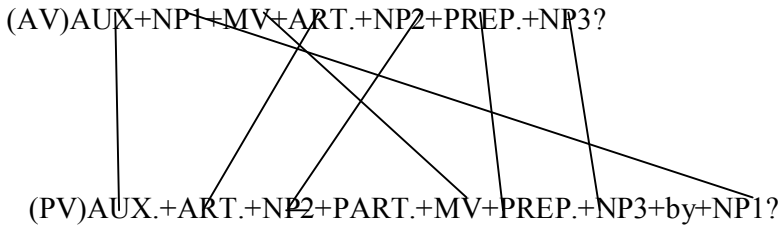
Kakadu kuthlingtadzi alari akilari ya.

TRANSLIT. –Book (has, have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. – Has a book been sent to her by him?

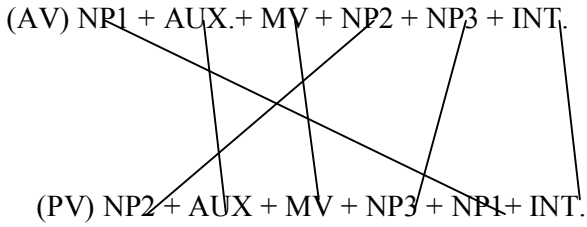
4.1.2.5 PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG. Was he sending a book to her?



Was a book being sent to her by him?

BUR.- *Tsa akwa thlinga kakadu alari ya.*



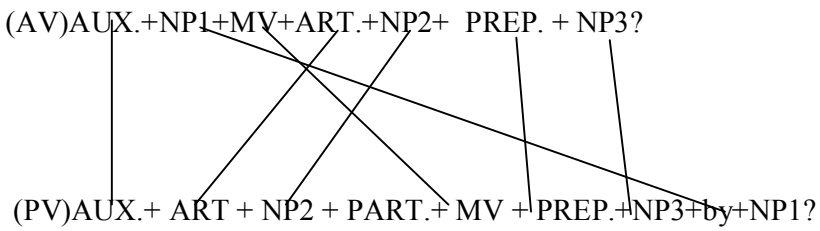
Kakadu akwa thlingtadzi alari akilari ya.

TRANSLIT. –Book (are, was, were)being sent to(him, her, it) from (him, her it)?

TRANSLAT. – Was a book being sent to her by him?

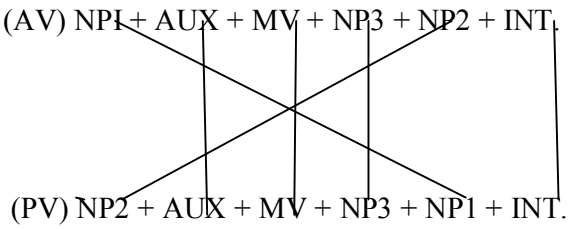
4.1.2.6 PAST PERFECT TENSE

ENG.- Had he sent a book to her?



Had a book been sent to her by him?

BUR.- Tsa ku kurta thlingta alari kakadu ya.



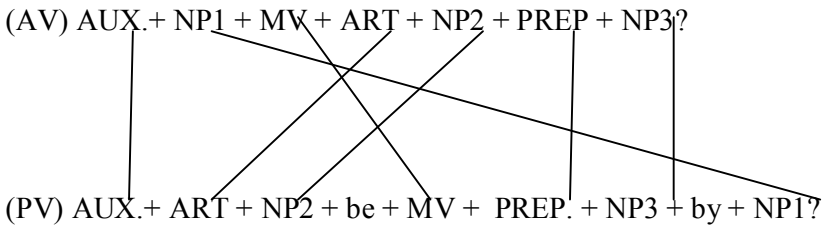
Kakadu kukurta thlingtadzi alari akilari ya.

TRANSLIT. –Book (has, have, had) been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. – Had a book been sent to her by him?

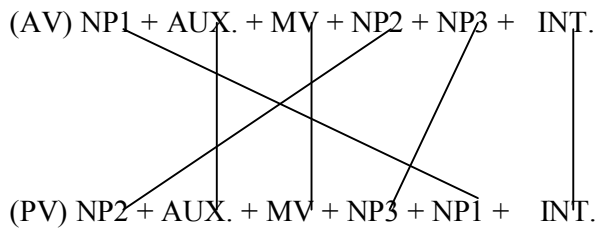
4.1.2.7 SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE

ENG.- Will he send a book to her?



Will a book be sent to her by him ?

BUR.- *Tsa asi thlinga kakadu alari ya.*



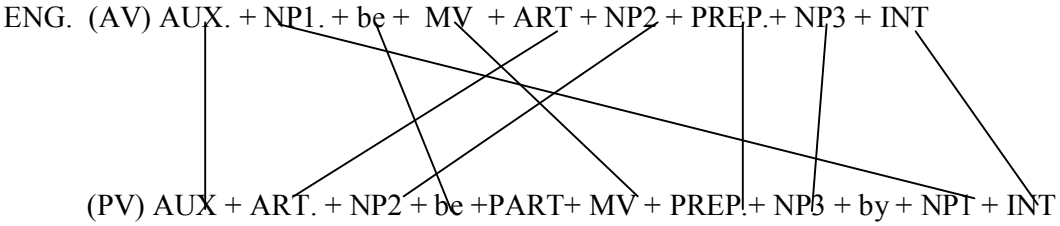
Kakadu asi thlingtadzi alari akilari ya?

TRANSLIT. -Book will be sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. – Will a book be sent to her by him?

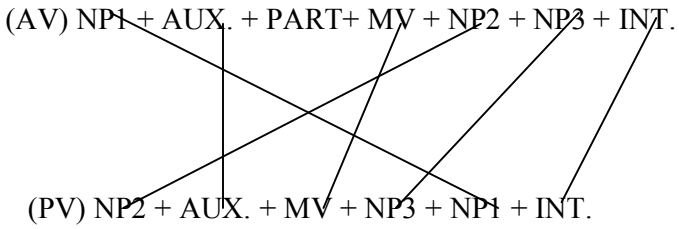
4.1.2.8 FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG. Will he be sending a book to her?



Will a book be being sent to her by him ?

BUR.- *Tsa asi ndzi akwa thlinga kakadu alari ya.*



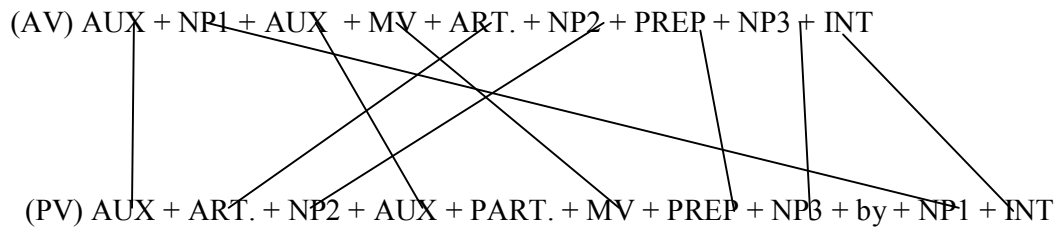
Kakadu asi ndzi akwa thlingtadzi alari akilari ya.

TRANS LIT. - Book will always be being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her it)?

TRANSLAT. – Will a book be being sent to her by him?

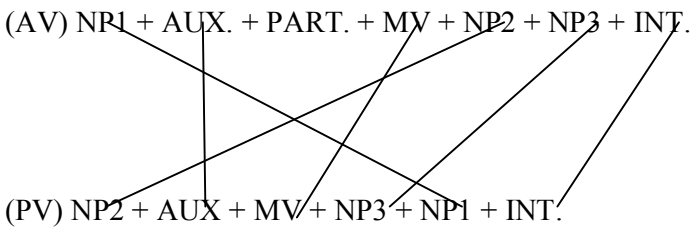
4.1.2.9 FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

ENG.- Will he have sent a book to her ?



Will a book have been sent to her by him?

BUR.- *Tsa asi kurta thingta kakadu alari ya*.



Kakadu asi kurta thingtadzi alari akilari ya.

TRANS LIT. -Book will have been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it)?

TRANSLAT. – Will a book have been sent to her by him?

4.1.2.10 DISCUSSION

The diagrams above show that the structure of active-passive (interrogative) transformations in English and Bura have the transformational properties, as proposed by Chomsky (1957) that "If S is a grammatical sentence of the form NP1 + AUX + be + NP2 then the corresponding string of NP2 + AUX + be + V + by + NP1 is also grammatical". The above illustrative examples are the characteristics of the English and Bura active passive (interrogative) transformations. In the English active voice (AV) sentences, the NP1 appeared at the headword positions after an auxiliary. The NP2 appeared in the fifth (and sixth) positions after an article while NP3 occupies the final positions before the interrogative

marker (?). In the passive sentences, NP2 comes at the headword positions.NP1 this time occupies the final positions while NP3 comes before it. Similarly, while the main verb (MV) appeared between the NP1 and NP2 in the active voice (AV) sentences, in the passive voice (PV), it appeared between NP2 and NP3. Meanwhile, the auxiliary and main verbs differ, depending on the tense being used. Thus, in the simple present(AV), the (AUX) is 'does' while the (MV) is 'send' which becomes 'is'(AUX.) and 'sent' in the (PV). In the present continuous (AV), the (AUX.) is 'is' while the (MV) is 'sending. 'In the (PV) the (AUX) remains 'is' to agree with the singular noun (NP2) while the (MV) is transposed to 'being + sent'.

The present perfect shows that while the (AUX.) 'has' is used in both the (AV) and (PV) sentences, the main verb changed from 'sent' in the (AV) to 'been + sent' in the (PV). The simple past shows that while 'did' is the (AUX) and 'send' the (MV) in the (AV) ,the (PV) has 'was' and 'sent'. In the same vein, the past continuous has 'was' as the (AUX) for both (AV) and(PV), the (MV) are 'sending' and 'being + sent' for the (AV) and (PV) respectively while the past perfect has 'had' as the (AUX) for both the (AV) and (PV) but the (MV) changes from 'sent' in the (AV) to 'being +sent' in the (PV) sentence .In the simple future tense, 'will' serves as the (AUX.) for both (AV) and (PV) while the (MV) changes from 'send' in the (AV) to 'be +sent' in the (PV).Similarly, the future continuous has 'will' as the (AUX.) for the (AV) and (PV) but the (MV) changes from 'be + sending' in the (AV) to 'being + sent' in the (PV).This applies to the future perfect which has 'will' as the (AUX.) for both the (AV) but the (MV) also changes from 'have + sent' in the (AV) to 'been + sent' in the (PV).

4.1.2.11 DISSIMILARITIES

From the Bura translation of the English passive sentences, the following characteristics are identifiable. In the passive transformations, there were the transposition of

NP1 and NP2 and the introduction of an interrogative marker *Ya,* which occupies the final position. However, the auxiliary verbs which occupied headword positions in the English passive transforms now come after the NP1 and NP2in both (AV) and (PV). Besides, the Bura auxiliary and main verbs do not express the same idea. For instance, the English passive –'Is a book being sent to me by him?' has the Bura version as *kakadu akwa thlingtadzi ali akilari ya*, which literary means 'Book is being sent to me from him?'

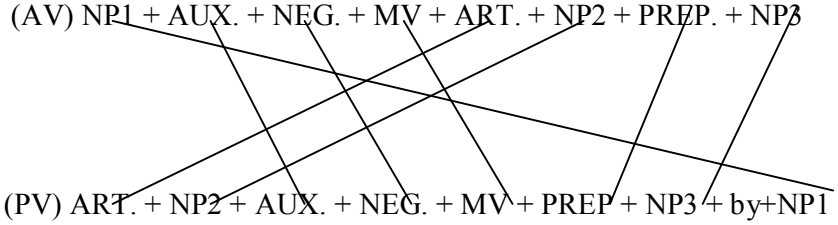
4.1.2.12 PREDICTIONS

1. Bura learners of English may make active sentences in attempting to transform the active into passive in the interrogative.
2. They will misapply the use of the auxiliaries.

4.1.3 THE NEGATIVE

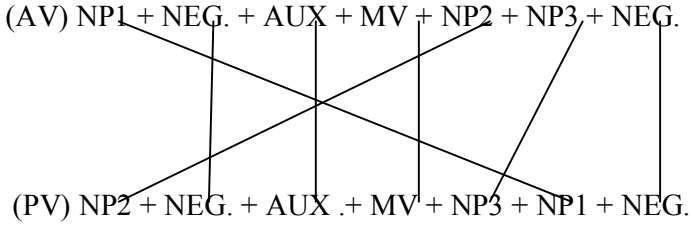
4.1.3.1 SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

ENG.- He does not send a book to her.



A book is not sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi ana thlinga alari kakadu wa*.



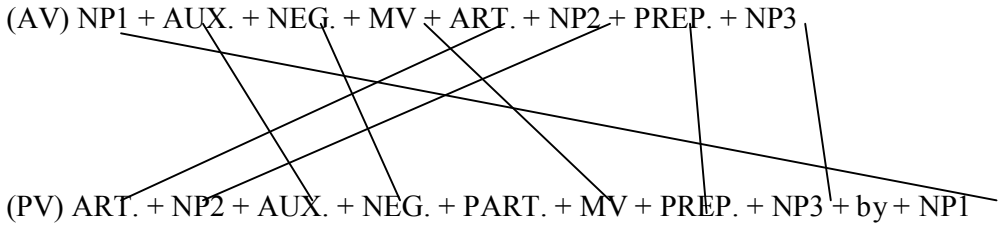
Kakadu adi ana thlingtidzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT. –Book not use to sent to(him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book is not sent to her by him.

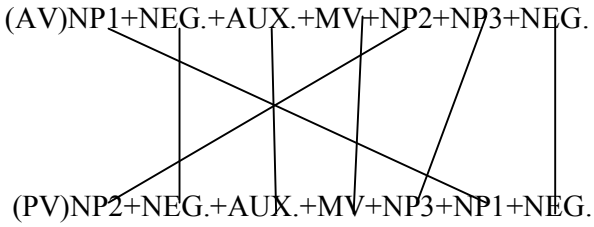
4.1.3.2 PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG.- He is not sending a book to her.



A book is not being sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi akwa thlinga kakadu alari wa*.



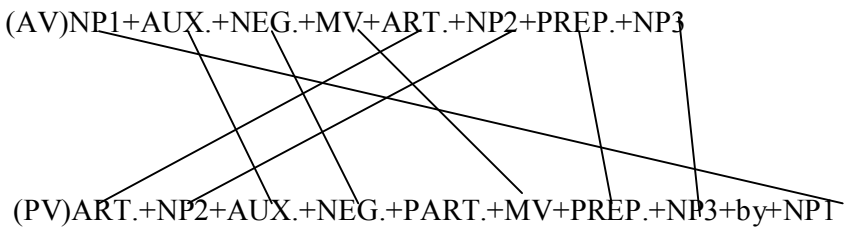
Kakadu adi akwa thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT.- Book not (is, was, are, were) being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book is not being sent to her by him.

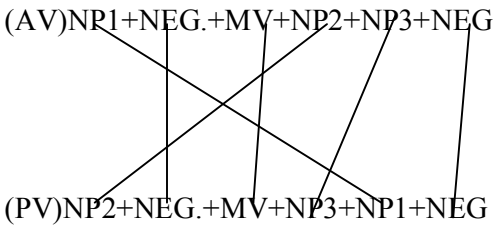
4.1.3.3 PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

ENG.- He has not sent a book to her.



A book has not been sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi thlingta kakadu alari wa*.



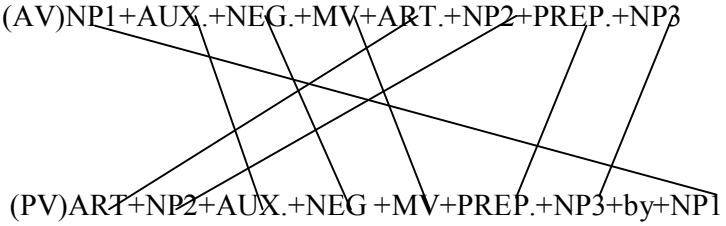
Kakadu adi thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT. –Book not sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book has not been sent to her by him.

4.1.3.4 SIMPLE PAST TENSE

ENG. He did not send a book to her.

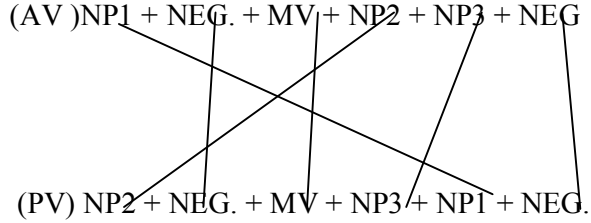


A book was not sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi thlingta alari kakadu wa.*

(AV)NP1 + NEG. + MV + NP2 + NP3 + NEG

.



(PV) NP2 + NEG. + MV + NP3 + NP1 + NEG.

Kakadu adi thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

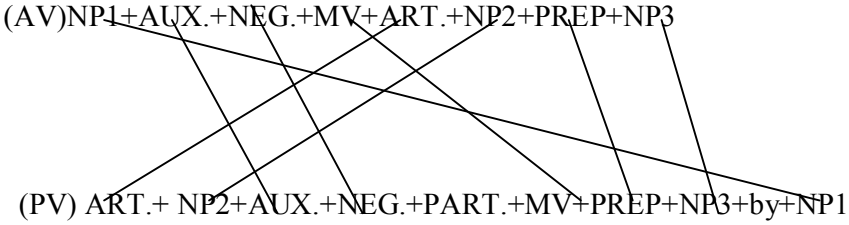
TRANSLIT.-Book not sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book was not sent to her by him.

4.1.3.5 PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG. He was not sending a book to her.

(AV)NP1+AUX.+NEG.+MV+ART.+NP2+PREP+NP3

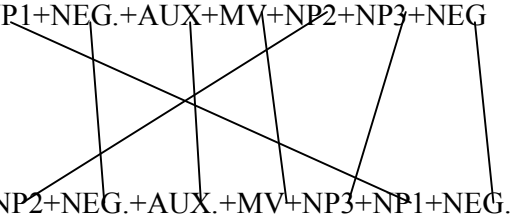


(PV) ART.+ NP2+AUX.+NEG.+PART.+MV+PREP+NP3+by+NP1

A book was not being sent to her by him.

BUR.- Tsa adi ndzi akwa thlinga alari kakadu wa.

(AV)NP1+NEG.+AUX+MV+NP2+NP3+NEG



(PV)NP2+NEG.+AUX.+MV+NP3+NP1+NEG.

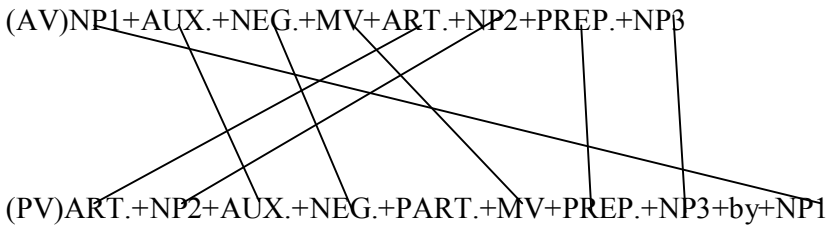
Kakadu adi akwa thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT.- Book not (is, are, was, were) sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book was not being sent to her by him.

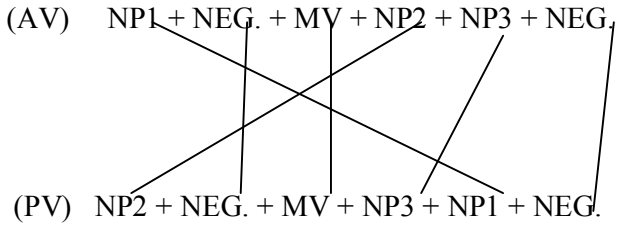
4.1.3.6 PAST PERFECT TENSE

ENG. He had not sent a book to her.



A book had not been sent to her by him.

BUR. *Tsa adi thlingta kakadu alari wa.*



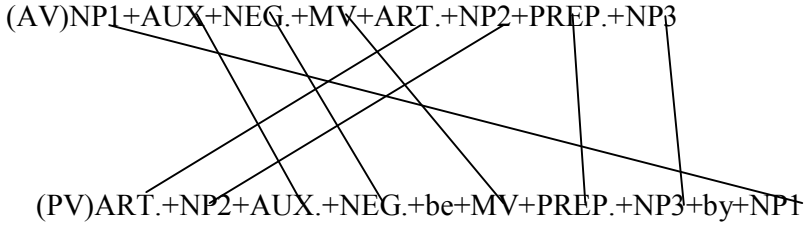
Kakadu adi thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT.- Book not sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A book had not been sent to her by him.

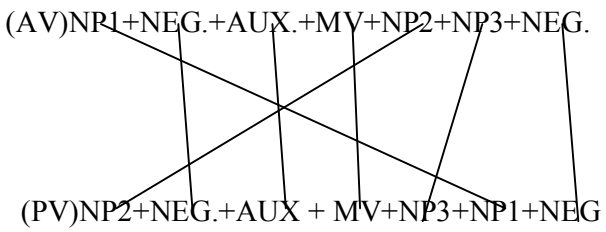
4.1.3.7 SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE

ENG. He will not send a letter to her.



A letter will not be sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi asi thlinga wasika alari wa.*



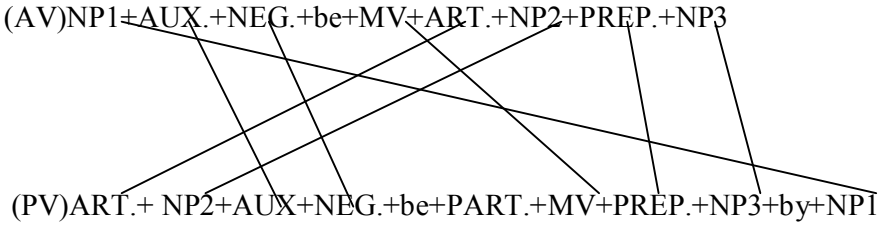
Wasika adi asi thingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT. – Letter not will sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A letter will not be sent to her by him.

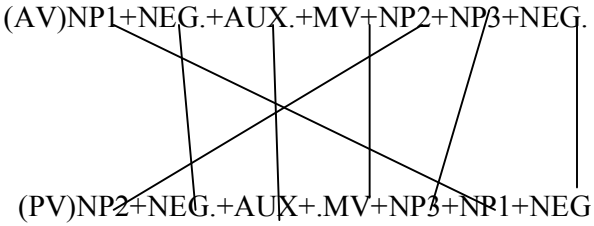
4.1.3.8 FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

ENG.- He will not be sending a letter to her.



A letter will not be being sent to her by him.

BUR.- *Tsa adi asi ndzi akwa thling wasika alari wa.*



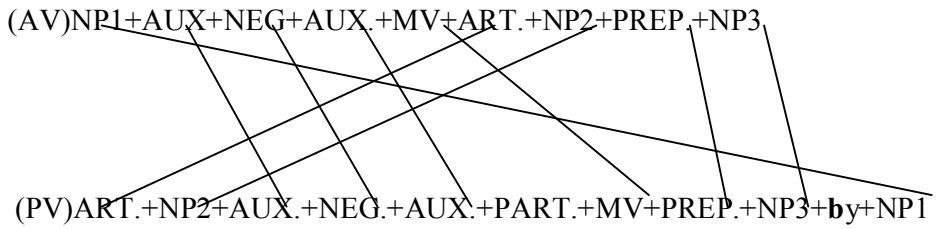
Wasika adi asi ndzi akwa thlingtadzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT. -Letter not will be being sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A letter will not be being sent to her by him.

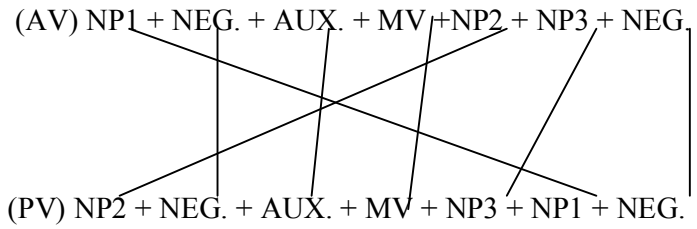
4.1.3.9 FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

ENG.- He will not have sent a letter to her.



A letter will not have been sent to her by him.

BUR.- Tsa adi asi thlinga alari wasika wa.



Wasika adi asi thlingtidzi alari akilari wa.

TRANSLIT. -Letter not will have been sent to (him, her, it) from (him, her, it) not.

TRANSLAT. – A letter will not have been sent to her by him.

4.1.3.10 DISCUSSION

The diagrams above show that the structure of active – passive transformation (negative) in English and Bura have the transformational properties as proposed by Chomsky (1957) that "If S is a grammatical sentence of the form NP1 + AUX + be + NP2 then the corresponding string of NP2 + AUX + be + V + by + NP1 is also grammatical.

From the above structures, the following characteristics of the English negative passive transformations are identifiable:

a) The transposition of the noun phrase (NP1, NP2, NP3) such that NP2, which occupy second to the last position in the active voice (AV) takes the head word position in the passive transformation while NP1 which hitherto occupy the head word positions in the active voice (AV) sentences takes the last positions in the passive voice (PV) sentences preceded by a preposition 'by'.

b) The negative marker (NEG) appears between the NP1 and NP2, right before the main verb (MV), a participle or an auxiliary as the case may be in the active and passive voice sentences.

c) The transformation of the main verb (MV) in the active voice (AV) to the verb (be + participle) in the passive voice (PV) and the choice of the auxiliary verb to fulfill the rule of concord in English.

4.1.3.11 DISSIMILARITIES

From the Bura transformation of the English negative active and passive voice sentences, the following characteristics are identified:

a) The use of the discontinuous morpheme 'adi … wa' as the negative marker (not – not) which is introduced after the headword and the last word position in both active voice (AV) and passive voice (PV) sentences, instead of coming after the auxiliaries as in English.

b) The absence of indefinite articles (a, an) in Bura and its presence in English may constitute a problem to the Bura learners of English.

c) the rule of concord in Bura is different from that of English. In Bura, the auxiliary verbs, *akwa, ana, ku, asi* are used with all persons, singular or plural. In English there is subject – verb agreement. A singular subject goes with a singular verb while a plural subject takes a plural verb.

4.1.3.12 PREDICTIONS

From the above characteristics, it can be predicted that a Bura learner of English passives may encounter some transformational problems such as:

a) Re-arrangement of the constituents of the passive sentences.

b) Violating the rule of concord.

c) Confusing active transformations with passive transformations.

d) Using active sentences instead of passive ones.

e) Not being able to use the verb inflections as in Bura there are no inflections.

f) Difficulty in choosing the correct English auxiliary verbs due to their multiple forms as Bura has only four forms:

   i) /akwa/ for“ am. is, are, was, were”

   ii) /ku/ for “has, have, had”

   iii) /asi/ for “will, shall ”

   iv) /ana/ for the habitual.

The phonological and orthographical similarities in oral and written forms (e.g. has/ have, been/ being, was/ were) of English passive transformations may also constitute a source of difficulty to Bura learners of English.

4.2 ERROR ANALYSIS OF BURA LEARNERS' ACTIVE–PASSIVE TRANSFORMATIONS

In this section, the results of Bura learners' performance in the test administered to them were analyzed and discussed. The results were discussed according to the following frame:

Frame i (items 1-15): Simple Present, Present Continuous and Present Perfect tense;

Frame ii (items 16-30): Simple Past, Past Continuous and Past Perfect tense;

Frame iii (items 31-45): Simple Future, Future Continuous and Future Perfect tense.

TABLE 4.2.1A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SS111 BURA LEARNERS' IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO PASSIVE VOICE IN THE SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE: GROUP 'A' PRIVATE SCHOOLSGROUP 'B' PUBLIC SCHOOLS

'A'						'B'			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
1.	Decl.	27	18	123	82	21	14	129	86
	Neg.	15	10	135	90	6	4	144	96
	Int.	27	18	123	82	9	6	141	94
2.	Decl.	24	16	126	84	12	8	138	92
	Neg.	21	14	129	86	9	6	141	94
	Int.	15	10	135	90	9	6	141	94
3.	Decl.	15	10	135	90	9	6	141	94
	Neg.	18	12	132	88	6	4	144	96
	Int.	18	12	132	88	6	4	144	96
4.	Decl.	24	16	126	84	12	8	138	92
	Neg.	15	10	135	90	12	8	138	92
	Int.	18	12	132	88	9	6	141	94
5.	Decl.	27	18	123	82	9	6	141	94
	Neg.	24	16	126	84	12	8	138	92
	Int.	27	18	123	82	15	10	135	90

The table above shows that majority of the respondents in both private and public schools have difficulties transforming the active into the passive using the simple present tense as less than 20% of the students transformed the active into the passive in the given modalities correctly. For instance, item 1 indicates that in the private schools, the TCR for the declarative, negative and interrogative modalities were 27 or 18%, 15 or 10% and 22 0r 18% while the TWR were 123 or 82%, 135 or 90% and 123 or 82% respectively. The result for the

public schools shows that the TCR were 21 or 14%, 6 or 4% and 9 or 6% while the TWR were 129 or 86%, 144 or 96% and 141 or 94%.

Item 2 has a TCR of 24 or 16%, 21 or 14% and 15 or 10% while the TWR were 126 or 84%, 129 or 86% and 135 or 90% for the private schools while the public schools results has a TCR of 12 or 8%, 9 or 6% and 9 or 6% and TWR were 138 or92%, 141 or 94% and 141 or 94% respectively. Item 3 has a TCR of 15 or 10%, 18 or 12% and 18 or 12% with a TWR of 135 or 90%, 132 or 88% and 132 or 88% for the private schools while the public schools' performance has a TCR of 9 or 6%, 6 or 4% and 6 or 4% and TWR of 141 or 94%, 144 or 96% and 144 or 96%.

Item 4 has a TCR of 24 or 16%, 15 or 10% and 18 or 12% and a TWR of 126 or 84%, 135 or 90% and 132 or 88% for the private schools, while the public schools' performance were a TCR of 12 or 8%, 12 or 8% and 9 or 6% and a TWR of 138 or 92%, 138 or 92% and 141 or 94%. The table also revealed that item 5 has a TCR of 27 or 18%, 24 or 16% and 27 or 18% and a TWR of 123 or 82%, 126 or 84% and 123 or 82% as the performance of the private schools while the public schools have a TCR of 9 or 6%, 12 or 8% and 15 or 10% and a TWR of 141 or 94%, 138 or 92% and 135 or 90 %. The private schools' average total correct response (ATCR) is 14%, while the average wrong response (ATWR) is 86%. Similarly the public schools' average total correct response (ATCR) is 7% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 93%.

TABLE 4.2.1 B SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS FROM CANDIDATES' CONSTRUCTIONS, THE CORRECT VERSIONS, THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
1.	Decl.	Children are being taken to school every day.	Their children are taken to school every day.	Omission and tense errors. The omission of the pronoun *their* and use of the present continuous instead the simple present tense.
	Neg.	They children are not taken to school every day.	Their children are not taken to school every day.	Error of malapropism. The wrong use of pronoun due to phonological similarities of *they*/*their*.
	Int.	Are their children <u>being taken</u> to school?	Are their children taken to school every day?	Tense error. The use of the present continuous instead of the simple present tense.
2.	Decl.	Lunch is eat late by Musa.	Lunch is eaten late by Musa.	Morph-syntactic error due to the omission of the tense marker (*en)* from the root word *eat* to make perfective *eaten.*
	Neg.	Lunch is not eat late by Musa.	Lunch is not eaten late by Musa.	Morph-syntactic error due to the omission of tense marker (*en)* from the root word *eat* to make perfective *eaten*.
	Int.	Is lunch being eating late by Musa?	Is lunch eaten late by Musa?	Tense and misspelling errors. The present continuous is (*…being eating…?)* instead of the present perfect (*Is…eaten…?)*

3.	Decl.	The car is clean every day.	The car is cleaned every day.	Morph-syntactic error due to the omission of the past tense marker (*ed)* from the root word *clean* to transform it to past tense *cleaned.*
	Neg.	The car is not clean every day.	The car is not cleaned every day.	Morph-syntactic error due to the omission of the past tense marker (*ed*) from the root word *clean* to transform it a past tense *cleaned.*
	Int.	Is the car clean every day?	Is the car cleaned every day?	Morph-syntactic error due to the omission of the past tense marker (*ed)* from the root word *clean* to transform it a past tense *cleaned*.
4.	Decl.	Our teeth is being brush every day.	Our teeth are brushed every day.	Concord, tense and morph-syntactic errors. There is no concord between *our* a plural subject and *is* a singular auxiliary verb. Also the omission of past tense marker *(ed)* to transform the verb *clean* a past *cleaned.*
	Neg.	Our teeth <u>is not brush</u> every day.	Our teeth are not brushed every day.	Concord, tense and morph-syntactic errors. The plural subject, *our teeth* cannot accept *is* a singular verb but *are*. Secondly, there is the omission of the past tense marker (*ed*) from the root word *brush* to transform it to *brushed*.

	Int.	Is our teeth brush every day?	Are our teeth brushed every day?	Concord, tense and morph-syntactic errors. *Is* a singular verb cannot agree with the plural subject *our teeth.* There is also the omission of the past tense marker (*ed*) from the root word brush to transform it to *brushed*.
5.	Decl.	Delicious food is cooks by Nancy.	Delicious food is cooked by Nancy.	Tense error. The present simple (*…is cooks…)* is used instead of past form (*…is cooked…).*
	Neg.	Delicious food is not being cook by Nancy.	Delicious food is not cooked by Nancy.	Tense and misspelling errors. *(…is not being cook…)* a present continuous tense is used instead of *(…is not cooked…)* past tense.
	Int.	Is delicious food cook by Nancy	Is delicious food cooked by Nancy?	Morph-syntactic and punctuation errors. The omission of the past the tense marker (ed) from the root word *cook* to form *cooked* and omission of the question mark (?).

The table 4.2.1 B above shows that SS III Bura learners of English committed tense, concord, lexical, misspelling, omission and punctuation errors in attempting to transform the active into the passive using the simple present tense.

TABLE 4.2.2 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO THE PASSIVE IN THE PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE.

'A'						'B'			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
6.	Decl.	21	14	129	86	12	8	138	92
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	6	4	144	96
	Int.	14	10	136	90	9	6	141	94
7.	Decl.	33	22	117	78	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	21	14	129	86	3	2	147	98
	Int.	14	10	136	90	6	4	144	96
8.	Decl.	24	16	126	84	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	33	22	117	67	6	4	144	96
	Int.	18	12	132	88	6	4	144	96
9.	Decl.	27	18	123	82	0	0	150	0
	Neg.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	0
	Int.	21	14	129	86	0	0	150	0
10.	Decl.	33	22	117	78	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	21	14	129	86	9	6	141	94
	Int.	27	18	123	82	9	6	141	94

From the table above, item 6 indicates that the TCR for the private schools were 21 or 14%, 9 or 6% and 14 or 10% while the TWR were 129 or 86%, 141 or 84% and 136 or 90% for transformation into the various modalities tested. The TCR for the public schools were 12 or 8%, 6 or 4%, and 9 or 6% while the TWR were 138 or 92%, 144 or 96% and 141 or 94%. The table also indicates that item 7 has a TCR of 33 or 22%, 21 or 14% and 14 or10% while the TWR were 117 or 78%, 129 or 86% and 136 or 90% compared with the public schools' performance which has a TCR of 6 or 4%, 3 or 2% and 6 or 4% and TWR of 144 or 96%, 147 or 98% and 144 or 96%. We can also deduce from the table that for item 8, the TCR and

TWR for the public schools were 24 or 16%2, 18 or 12%, and 126 or 84%, 117 or 67% and 132 or 88% respectively compared with the TCR and TWR of the public schools which were 6 or 4%, 6 or 4%, 6 or 4% and a TWR of 144 or 96%, 144 or 96% and 144 or 96%.

Item 9 records a TCR of 27 or 18%, 18 or12% and 21 or 14%; a TWR of 123 or 82%, 132 or 88% and 129 or86% for the private schools while the public schools TCR were 0 or 0%, for all the three modalities and a TWR of 150 or 100%, for all the three modalities. This shows that no respondent from the public schools transformed the active into the passive voice using the present continuous tense correctly.

The table above also, item 10 shows that the TCR for the private schools were 33 or 22%, 21 or 14% and 27 or 18% while the TWR were 117 or 78%, 129 or 86% and 123 or 82% compared with the public schools' TCR of 6 or 4%, 9 or 6% and 9 or 6% and a TWR of 144 or 96%, 141 or 94% and 141 or 94%. Most cases higher than the public schools, most respondents from both school types have difficulties in transforming the active into the passive voice using the present continuous tense. This shows that private schools' average total correct response (ATCR) is 55% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is only 15% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 85% suggesting that the majority of the respondents in the private schools failed the test. Similarly, the public schools' average total correct response (ATCR) is 47% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is only 4% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 96%. This equally shows that majority of the respondents failed the test. The table above specifically shows that no respondent from the public schools transformed the active into the passive voice using the present continuous tense correctly.

TABLE 4.2.2 B: SHOWING SAMPLES OF IDENTIFIED ERRORS IN CANDIDATES' CONSTRUCTIONS, THEIR DESCRIPTION AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
6.	Decl.	Tea is taken for breakfast by Aliyu.	Tea is being taken for breakfast by Aliyu.	Tense error. The present perfect tense *(…is taken…)* is used instead o the present continuous *(…is being taken…).*
	Neg.	Tea is not taken for breakfast by Aliyu.	Tea is not being taken for breakfast by Aliyu.	Tense error. The present perfect tense (*… is not taken…)* is used instead of the present continuous *(…is not being taken…).*
	Int.	Is tea for breakfast taken by Aliyu.	Is tea being taken for breakfast by Aliyu?	Tense and punctuation error. There is the use of the simple present (*Is tea…?)* instead of the present continuous *Is tea being taken?)* as well as the omission of the question mark.
7.	Decl.	The classroom is swept by us.	The classroom is being swept by us.	Tense error. The use of the simple present (*…is swept…)* instead of the present continuous (*…is being swept…).*
	Neg.	The classroom is not swept by us.	The classroom is not being swept by us.	Tense error. The use of the simple present (*…is not swept…)* instead of the present continuous (*is not being swept…).*
	Int.	Is the classroom swept by us.	Is the classroom being swept by us.	Tense and punctuation errors. There is the omission of the question mark (?) as well as the use of the simple present

				(*Is the classroom…?)* instead of the present continuous (*Is the classroom being…?)*.
8.	Decl.	*The flowers are watering by you.	The flowers are being watered by you.	Lexical error. There is the formal misselection of the correct phrase (*The flowers are watering…)* instead of (*The flowers are being watered…)*.
	Neg.	The flowers are not water by you.	The flowers are not being watered by you.	Tense, omission and morph-syntactic errors. There is the omission of the past tense marker (ed) from the root word *water* to form *watered* as well as the present participle *being*.
	Int.	Is the flowers being water by you	Are the flowers being watered by you?	Concord, tense and punctuation errors. The use of singular auxiliary verb (I*s the flowers…)* instead of the plural (*Are the flowers being…?)* to agree with the subject *(flowers),* and omission of the question mark.
9.	Decl.	The car is driven by Halima.	The car is being driven by Halima.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*The car is driven…)* instead of the present continuous (*The car is being driven…)*.
	Neg.	The car is not driven by Halima	The car is not being driven by Halima.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*The car is not driven…)* instead of the present continuous (*The car is not being driven…)*.
	Int.	Is the car being driving by	Is the car being	Tense error. The use of the

		Halima.	driven by Halima?	present continuous (*Is the car being driving…)* instead of the present perfect (*Is the car being driven…?)*.
10	Decl.	The keys have been collect by him.	The keys are being collected from him by me.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*The keys have been…)* instead of the present continuous tense (*The keys are being…)* and the omission of past tense marker (ed) from *collected*.
	Neg.	Keys are not been collected from him.	The keys are not being collected from him by me.	Omission and malapropism errors. The definite article, *the,* was omitted and confusion of *been* and *being* due to their phonological similarities in pronunciation.
	Int.	*Is the keys have collected from him?	Are the keys being collected from him by me?	Concord, lexical and tense errors. The use of (*is)* a singular auxiliary verb instead of *(are)* which agrees with the plural subject *keys* and the use of the perfective *(…have collected…)* instead of the continuous *(…being collected).*

The table 4.2.2. B above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners committed tense omission, punctuation, morph-syntactic and malapropism errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice using the present continuous tense.

TABLE 4.2.3 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO THE PASSIVE IN THE PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

		'A'				'B'			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
11.	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
12.	Decl.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
13.	Decl.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
14.	Decl.	21	14	129	86	3	2	147	98
	Neg.	14	10	136	90	3	2	147	98
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
15.	Decl.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100

The table above shows that both groups have difficulties in transforming the active voice into the passive voice using the present perfect tense as majority of the respondents failed the test. For instance, item 11 indicates that the private schools' TCR for the three modalities were 9 or 6%, 3 or 2% and 12 or 8% while the TWR were 131 or 94%, 147 or 98% and 138 or 92%. The public schools' TCR was 0%, in all the modalities while the TWR were 150 or 100%, for all the modalities. This shows that the public school respondents have greater difficulties in using this tense than the private schools. Item 12 has a TCR of 12 or 8%, 9 or 6% and 9 or 6% while the TWR were 138 or 92%, 141 or 94% and 141 or 94% for the private schools. On the other hand, the public schools TCR were 0 or 0%ll the modalities;

the TWR were 150 or 100% indicating that no respondent transformed this item correctly. The results equally suggest that the respondents the public schools have greater difficulties in transforming the active into the passive using the present perfect tense. In the same vein, item 13 shows that the private schools have a TCR of 12or 8 %, 9 or 6% and 9 or 6%; the TWR were 138 or 92%, 141 or 94% and 141 or 94%. The TCR and TWR of the public schools were the same as in item 12 above. This shows the degree of difficulties they encounter transforming the active into the passive using the present perfect tense.

Item 14 shows that the private schools' TCR were 21 or 14%, 14 or 10%, 9 or 6% and a TWR of 129 or 86%, 136 or 90% and 141 or 94% respectively. The public schools on the other hand have a TCR of 3 or 2%, 3 or 2%, 0 or 0%, 55% and a TWR of 147 or 98 %, 147 or 98% and 150 or 100%. The results show that all the respondents, regardless of their school background have problems in transforming the active into the passive voice using the present perfect tense.

The respondents' performance in item 15 was not any better as the results show the TCR of 18 or 12%, 12 or 8% (private schools') and 0 or 0% (public schools') were far less than the TWR of 132 or 88%, 138 or 92% and 138 or 92% for the private schools while the public schools have a TWR of 150 or 100%. The average total correct response (ATCR) for the private schools is 8% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 92%. Similarly, the average total correct response (ATCR) for the public schools is 0.3%, while the average total wrong responses (ATWR) is 99.7%. This shows the disparity between the performance of the private and public schools.

TABLE 4.2.3 B: SHOWING SAMPLES FROM CANDIDATES' CONSTRUCTIONS, THE CORRECT VERSIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

tem	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
11.	Decl.	The dog is being taken away by the shopkeeper.	The dog has been taken away by the shopkeeper.	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*...is being taken...)* instead of the present perfect (*...has been taken...)*.
	Neg.	The dog is not being taken away by the shopkeeper.	The dog has not been taken away by the shopkeeper.	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*...is not being taken...)* instead of the present perfect (*...has not been taken...).*
	Int.	Is the dog being taken away by the shopkeeper?	Has the dog been taken away by the shopkeeper?	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*Is the dog being taken...?)* instead of the present perfect (*Has the dog been taken...?)*.
12.	Decl.	The test is being written by Maryam and Shatu.	The test has been written by Maryam and Shatu.	Tense error. The use of the auxiliary *(...is being)* instead of the present perfect *(...has been written...).*
	Neg.	The test has not being written by Maryam and Shatu.	The test has not been written by Maryam and Shatu.	Tense and malapropism errors. The use of auxiliary (*being)* instead of *(been)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Was the test being written by Maryam and Shatu?	Has the test been written by Maryam and Shatu?	Tense error. The use of the past continuous (*Was the test being written...?)* instead of the present perfect (*Has the test been*

				written…?).
13.	Decl.	The place was shown to him by us.	The place has been shown to him by us.	Tense error. The use of the past perfect (*The place was shown…)* instead of the present perfect (*The place has been shown…).*
	Neg.	The place was not shown to him by us.	The place has not been shown to him by us.	Tense error. The use of the past perfect (*The place was not shown…)* instead of the present perfect (*The place has not been shown…).*
	Int.	Was the place being shown to him by us?	Has the place been shown to him by us?	Tense error. The use of the past continuous (*Was the place being shown…?)* instead of the present perfect (*Has the place been shown…?).*
14.	Decl.	Another goal has being scored by them.	Another goal has been scored by them.	Malapropism errors. The use of present participle (*…being…)* instead of the past participle (*…been…)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	Another goal has not being scored by them.	Another goal has not been scored by them.	Malapropism errors. The use of the present participle *(…being…)* instead of the past participle *(…been…)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Has another goal being scored?	Has another goal been scored?	Malapropism errors. The use of the present participle (*…being…)* instead of the past participle (*…been…)*

				due to their phonological similarities.
15.	Decl.	*An award have being won by my friend.	An award has been won by my friend.	Concord and malapropism errors. There is no concord between *an* a singular article and *have,* a plural auxiliary. Similarly, there is the use of *being* instead of been. In both cases the misuse could be due to the phonological similarities between the auxiliaries *has* and *have; being* and *been.* This could also be attributed to MT interference as in Bura, the auxiliaries *has* and *have* are represented by *ku*.
	Neg.	An award was not won by my friend.	An award has not been won by my friend.	Tense error. The use of the past (*...was not won...)* instead of the present perfect (*...has not been won...)*.
	Int.	Has an award being won by my friend?	Has an award been won by my friend?	Malapropism error. Misuse of the present participle *(being)* instead of the past participle (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.

The table above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, concord and malapropism errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice using the present perfect tense.

TABLE 4.2.4 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSE (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSE (TWR) OF SS III BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO PASSIVE IN THE SIMPLE PAST TENSE.

"A"						"B"			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWN**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
16.	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
17	Decl.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	14	10	136	90	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
18.	Decl.	36	24	114	76	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	27	18	123	82	6	4	144	96
	Int.	21	14	129	86	3	2	147	98
19	Decl.	42	28	108	72	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	30	20	120	80	6	4	144	96
	Int.	27	18	123	82	0	0	150	100
20	Decl.	27	18	123	82	3	2	147	98
	Neg.	24	16	126	84	6	4	144	96
	Int.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100

Table 4.2.4ashows that of the 150 candidates from the private schools that attempted item 16, only 9 or 6% of them got the correct transformations while the majority of 141 or 94% could not. The results show that the candidates from the public schools' performance of 0% TCR and 150% TWR respectively, were worse as none of them transformed the given structures correctly. Item 17 has a TCR of 18 or 12%, 14 or 10% , 12 or 8%and a TWR of 132 or 88%, 136 or 90%, 138 or 92% as the performance of private school candidates while none of candidates from the public schools transformed any of the given structures correctly.

Item 18 shows that the TCR for private schools were 36 or 24%, 27 or 18%, 21 or 14% while the TWR were 114 or 76%, 123 or 82% and 129 or 86%. This gives an average total correct response (ATCR) of 14% and an average total wrong response (ATWR) of 86%.

The public schools' performance on this item shows a TCR of 6 or 4%, 6 or 4%, 3 or 2% and TWR of 144 or 96%, 144 or 96% and 147 or 98%. Although the majority of the candidates have difficulties transforming the given structures from active into passive voice in the simple past tense, their performance in this item is relatively better compared to those of item 16 and 17 above.

Item 19 indicates that the TCR for the private schools were 42 or 28%, 30 or 20%, 27 or 18%, while the TWR were 108 or 72%, 120 or 80% and 123 or 82% compared to that of the public schools which were 6 or 4%, 6 or 4% and 0 or 0%(TCR) and 144 or 96%, 144 or 96% and 150% or 100% (TWR) respectively. This proves that the majority of the candidates from both school types have difficulties transforming the active into the passive using the simple past tense.

Item 20 indicates that the private schools have a TCR of 27 or 18%, 24 or 16%, 18 or 12% and a TWR of 123 or 82%, 126 or 84% and 132 or 88% compared to the public schools which have a TCR of 3 or 2%, 6 or 4%, 0 or 0% and a TWR of 147 or 98%, 144 or 96% and 150 or 100%.

In summary, the number of candidates that transformed the given structures from the active voice into the passive voice using the simple past tense in both groups were an average of 14% for the private schools and only 2% from the public schools indicating that majority of the respondents, an average of 86% from the private schools and 98% from the public schools had difficulties with transforming the active into the passive using this tense.

TABLE 4.2.4 B: SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS OF CANDIDATES' CONSTRUCTIONS, THE CORRECT VERSIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
16.	Decl.	The men are being taken to the farm by Umar.	The men were taken to the farm by Umar.	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*...are being taken...)* instead of the simple past (*...were taken...).* This could be attributed to MT interference as in Bura both auxiliaries (*are)* and (*were)* are represented by *akwa.*
	Neg.	The men are not being taken to the farm by Umar.	The men were not taken to the farm by Umar.	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*... are not being taken...)* instead of the simple past (*...were not taken...).*
	Int.	Are the men being taken to the farm by Umar.	Were the men taken to the farm by Umar?	Tense and punctuation errors. The use of the present continuous (*Are the men being taken...)* instead of the past tense (*Were the men taken...?)* and also the omission of the question mark (*?*).
17.	Decl.	The thieves are been drove away by Dalhatu.	The thieves were driven away by Dalhatu.	Tense and lexis errors. The use of the present form of the auxiliary (*The thieves are...)* instead of the past (*The thieves were...),* the use of the past form of the verb *(drove)* instead of the past perfect form *(were driven)* and general collocation problem.
	Neg.	*The thieves were not drive away by Dalhatu.	The thieves were not driven away by Dalhatu.	Tense error. The use of present simple (*...not drive...)* instead of the past perfect *(...not driven).*
	Int.	Is the thieves being drive away	Were the thieves driven away by Dalhatu?	Tense and concord errors. The use of the singular auxiliary (*Is the*

		by Dalhatu?		*thieves…?)* Is a singular auxiliary cannot agree with thieves a plural subject. Rather it should be *(were the thieves…?).* Also *…being drive…* is a wrong expression.
18.	Decl.	The chicken is killed yesterday by her.	The chicken was killed yesterday by her.	Tense error. The use of present perfect (*The chicken is killed….)* instead of the past perfect (*The chicken was killed…).* This could be attributed to MT interference as in Bura, the auxiliaries *is* and *was* are both represented by *akwa*.
	Neg.	The chicken was not being killed yesterday by her.	The chicken was not killed yesterday by her.	Tense error. The use of the past continuous (*The chicken was not being killed…)* instead of the simple past (*The chicken was not killed…).*
	Int.	Is the chicken killed yesterday by her.	Was the chicken killed yesterday by her?	Tense and punctuation errors. The use of a present auxiliary *(is)* instead of the past *(was)* and the omission of the question mark (*?*).
19.	Decl.	Her success in the examination is celebrated.	Her success in the examination was celebrated.	Tense error. The use of the present (*… is celebrated)* instead of the past (*…was celebrated).*
	Neg.	Her success in the examination is not celebrated.	Her success in the exam was not celebrated	Tense error. The use of the present (*…is not celebrated)* instead of the past (*…was not celebrated).*
	Int.	Is her success in examination celebrated	Was her success in the exam celebrated?	Tense and punctuation errors. The use of the present (*Is her success…)* instead of the past (*Was her success…)* and the omission of the question mark (*?*).
20.	Decl.	She is ordered out	She was ordered out of	Tense error. The use of the present

		of the hall by you.	the hall by you.	(*She is ordered…)* instead of the past (*She was ordered…)*.
	Neg.	She is not ordered out of the hall by you.	She was not ordered out of the hall by you.	Tense error. The use of the present (*She is not ordered…)* instead of the past (*She was not ordered…)*.
	Int.	Is she ordered out of the hall by you?	Was she ordered out of the hall by you?	Tense error. The use of the present (*Is she ordered…?)* instead of the past (*Was she ordered…?)*. This could be due to MT interference as the auxiliary verbs, *is* and *was* are represented by *akwa* which is used for all persons, singular or plural in Bura.

Table 4.2.4 B above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, concord, punctuation, and lexical errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice using the simple past tense.

TABLE 4.2.5 A: SHOWING THE TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO THE PASIVE IN PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE.

"A"						**"B"**			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
21	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
22	Decl.	18	12	132	88	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	14	10	136	90	3	2	147	98
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
23	Decl.	9	6	141	94	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	3	2	147	98
	Int.	9	6	141	94	3	2	147	98
24	Decl.	18	12	132	88	3	2	147	98

	Neg.	14	10	136	90	3	2	144	96
	Int.	14	10	136	90	3	2	147	98
25	Decl.	14	10	136	90	3	2	150	100
	Neg.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100

The table above shows that majority of the respondents in both groups have difficulties transforming the active into the passive in the past continuous tense as less than 20% of them the pass test. For instance, item 21 shows that the TRC and TWR for the private schools were 9 or 6% and 141 or 94% respectively while that of the public schools were 0 or 0% (TCR) and 150 or 100% (TWR). Item 22 indicates that the TCR for the private schools were 18 or 12%, 14 or 10%, 9 or 6% and the TWR were 132 or 88%, 136 or 90%, 141 or 94% while the private schools' TCR were 6 or 4%, 3 or 2%, 0 or 0%and TWR were 144 or 96%, 147 or 98% and 150 or 100%.

Item 23 indicates that the TCR for the private schools were 9 or 6% and TWR were 141 or 94% for all the modalities while the TCR for the public schools were 6 or 4%, 3 or 2%, 3 or 2% while the TWR were 144 or 96%, 147 or 98% and 147 or 98%. These prove that the candidates have difficulties transforming the active into the passive using this tense as less than 10% from both groups pass the test.

Item 24 equally proves the level of difficulties encountered by the respondents in transforming the active into the passive using the past continuous tense as the private schools have a TCR of only 18 or 12%, 14 or 10%, 14 or 10% while the public schools performed worse having a TCR of 3 or 2% in all the modalities. The respondents did not perform any better in item 25 as the results show that the highest TCR for both groups was 14 or 10%. The average total correct responses (ATCR) for the private schools is 8% and that of the public

schools is only 2%. This suggests that the average total wrong responses (ATWR) for the private and public schools are 92% and 98% respectively.

TABLE 4.2.5 B: SHOWING SAMPLE OF ERRORS IDENTIFIED, THE CORRECT VERSIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
21.	Decl.	The phone call is being make by Sule.	The phone call was being made by Sule.	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the present continuous (*...is being...)* instead of the past continuous (*…was being...)* and misspelling of *make* instead of *made*.
	Neg.	The phone call is not make by Sule.	The phone call was not being made by Sule.	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the present form of the auxiliary verb *is being* instead of the past continuous *was being* and *make* instead of *made.*
	Int.	Is the phone call making by Sule?	Was the phone call being made by Sule	Tense and lexical errors. The present form of the auxiliary (*is)* instead of the past continuous (*…was being...)* in addition to collocation problem.
22.	Decl.	The drama were being organize by us.	A drama was being organized by us.	Concord and tense errors. *Drama* a singular cannot agree with *were,* a plural auxiliary verb. Also the omission of the past tense marker (d) to make organize plural.
	Neg.	A drama was not being organize by us.	A drama was not being organized by	Tense error due to the omission of the past tense

			us.	marker (d).
	Int.	Was a drama been organize by us?	Was a drama being watched by them?	Tense and malapropism errors due to the mix up of the past participle (*been)* and the present participle *(being)* which are phonologically alike and the omission of the past tense marker (d).
23.	Decl.	Football match were watched by them.	Football match was being watched by them.	Tense and concord errors. The use of the past perfect (*...were watched...)* instead of the past continuous tense (*...was being watched...)* and the wrong auxiliary *were* for *was*.
	Neg.	Football match is not watch by them.	Football match was not being watched by them.	Tense error. The use of the present (*...is not...)* in place of past continuous (*...was not being...)* and the omission of the past tense marker (d).
	Int.	Is football watched by them?	Was football match being watched by them?	Tense error. The use of present (*Is football...?)* instead of past continuous tense (*Was football...?)*.
24.	Decl.	A lecture was delivered by Alice.	A lecture was being delivered by Alice.	Tense error. The use of the simple past (*...was delivered...)* instead of the past continuous tense (*...was being delivered...)*.
	Neg.	A lecture was not delivered by Alice.	A lecture was not being delivered by	Tense error. The use of the simple past (*...was not*

			Alice.	*delivered…)* instead of the past continuous tense (*…was not being delivered…)*.
	Int.	Was a lecture delivered by Alice?	Was a lecture being delivered by Alice?	Tense error. The use of the simple past (*Was a lecture delivered…?)* instead of the past continuous tense (*Was a lecturer being delivered…)*.
25.	Decl.	The grass was cutted by the student.	The grass was being cut by the student.	Tense and morph-syntactic errors due to over generalization.
	Neg.	The grass has not being cutted by the student.	The grass was not being cut by the student.	Tense and morph - syntactic errors due to over generalization.
	Int.	Is the grass being cutted by the student?	Was the grass being cut by the students?	Tense and morph-syntactic errors due to over generalization.

Table 4.2.5 B above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, concord, lexical, misspelling, malapropism, morph-syntactic and punctuation errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice using the past continuous tense.

TABLE 4.2.6 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO PASSIVE IN THE PAST PERFECT TENSE.

"A"						**"B"**			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
26	Decl.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100

27	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	0	0	150	100	0	0	150	100
28	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
	Int.	6	4	144	96	0	0	150	100
29	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	3	2	147	98
	Int.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
30	Decl.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Int.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100

The table above shows that all the TCR scores in both groups were below 15% indicating that all the respondents have difficulties in transforming the active into the passive voice using the past perfect tense. Specifically, item 26 indicates that the TCR for the private schools were 12 or 8%, 9 or 6%, 12 or 8% and TWR were 138 or 92%, 141 or 94% and 138 or 92% compared to the public schools' TCR of 0 or 0% and TWR of 150%. Item 27 shows that the private schools have a TCR of 9 or 6%, 9 or 6% and 0or 0% and a TWR of 141 or 94%, 150 or 100% respectively compared to that of the public schools' TCR of 0% and a TWR of 150% for all the modalities attempted.

Items 28 and 30with a TCR of 0 or 0% and a TWR of 150 or 100% score for all the modalities show that none of the respondents from the public schools transformed the active to the passive using this tense correctly. The private schools' TCR which range between 3 or 2% and 12 or 8% and TWR of 147 or 98% and 138 or 92% still prove the poor performance of the candidates. Item 29 equally shows the TCR of 3 or 2% and 9 or 6% and TWR of 147 or 98% and 141 or 94% range for the private schools while the TCR of the public schools range between 0 or 0% and 3 or 2% and TWR of 150 or 100% and 147 or 98%. These give

an average total correct response (ATCR) of 5% and average total wrong response (ATWR) of 95% for the private schools while those of the public schools was 0. 1% (ATCR) and 99.9% (ATWR). All results prove that the candidates have great difficulty in transforming the active into the passive voice.

TABLE 4.2.6 B: SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS IDENTIFIED, THE CORRECT VERSION OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
26	Decl.	The examination have being written by me.	The examination had been written by me.	Concord, malapropism and tense errors. (*Examination)*, a singular subject cannot agree with (*have)* a plural auxiliary verb. Being and been wee mixed up due to their phonetic relatedness.
	Neg.	The examination have not being written by me.	The examination had not been written by me.	Concord, malapropism and tense errors. (*Examination)*, a singular subject cannot agree with (*have)* a plural auxiliary verb. Also the confusion of the participles (*being)* and (*been)* due to their phonological similarity.
	Int.	Was the examination written by me?	Had the examination been written by me?	Tense error. The use of the simple past (*Was the examination written…?)* instead of the past perfect tense (*Had the examination been written…?)*.
27.	Decl.	All the food is eated by us.	All the food had been written by us.	Morph-syntactic and tense errors. The use of the present auxiliary '*is'* instead of the

				past perfect tense '*had been'* and misspelling error '*eated'* instead of *'eaten'* due to transfer of learning and over generalization.
	Neg.	All the food is not eaten by us.	All the food had not been eaten by us.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*...is not eaten...)* instead of the past perfect tense (*...had not eaten...)*.
	Int.	Is all the food eaten by us.	Had all the food been eaten by us.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*Is... eaten...?)* instead of the past perfect tense (*Had... been eaten...?)*.
28.	Decl.	The answer have being worked out by them.	The answer had been worked out by them.	Concord and tense errors. There is no concord between (*have)* a plural auxiliary with (*answer)* a singular. Also, the auxiliaries (*being)* and (*been)* are confused.
	Neg.	The answer have not being worked out by them.	The answer had not been worked out by them.	Concord, malapropism and tense errors. There is no concord between '*have'* a plural auxiliary with '*answer'* being singular. Also, the participles *being'* and *'been'* are confused.
	Int.	Have the answer being worked out by them?	Had the answer been worked out by them?	Concord, malapropism and tense errors. There is no concord between '*have'* a plural auxiliary with '*answer'* being singular.

				Also, the auxiliaries *'being'* and *'been'* are confused.
29.	Decl.	Your parents hadbeing remembered by you.	Your parents had been remembered by you.	Malapropism error. The use of (*being)* in place of (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	Your parents had not being remembered by you.	Your parents had not been remembered by you.	Malapropism error. The use of (*being)* in place of (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Is your parents remembered by you?	Had your parents been remembered by you?	Tense and concord errors. There is no concord between '*is'* a singular auxiliary verb with '*parents'* a plural subject. Also the use of the present (*is… remembered)* instead of past perfect (.,.*had been remembered)*.
30.	Decl.	The car is driven once by Haruna.	The car had been driven once by Haruna.	Tense errors. The use of the present (*…is driven…)* instead of the past perfect tense (*…had been driven…).*
	Neg.	The car had not driven once by Haruna.	The car had not been driven once by Haruna.	Omission error. The participle (*been)* was omitted.
	Int.	Is the car being driven once by Haruna?	Had the car been driven once by Haruna?	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*Is …being driven…?)* instead of the past perfect tense (H*ad… been driven…?).*

Table 4.2.6 B ạbove shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, concord, malapropism, morph-syntactic, and omission errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice in the past perfect tense.

TABLE 4.2.7A: SHOWING THE TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO THE PASSIVE IN THE FUTURE SIMPLE TENSE.

"A"						"B"			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
31	Decl.	30	20	120	80	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	30	20	120	80	0	0	150	100
	Int.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
32	Decl.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
	Int.	6	4	144	96	0	0	150	100
33	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	12	8	138	92	3	2	147	98
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
34	Decl.	14	10	136	90	3	2	147	98
	Neg.	6	4	144	96	3	2	147	98
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
35	Decl.	24	16	126	84	6	4	144	96
	Neg.	27	18	123	82	6	4	144	96
	Int.	14	10	136	90	0	0	150	100

The table above shows that none of the percentage scores in both groups was up to 50% indicating that majority of the respondents have difficulties in transforming the active into the passive in the simple future tense. However, the results show that the performances of the private schools were better compared to that of the public schools. For instance, while

the TCR of the private schools range between 9 or 6% and 30 or20%, with a TWR of 141 or 94% and 120 or 80% the public schools range between TCR of 0 or 0% and 6 or 4% with a TWR of 150 or 100% and 144 or 96%. The average total correct responses (ATCR) for the private schools is 11% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 89%. Similarly, the public schools' average total correct response (ATCR) is only 1% and the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 99%.

TABLE 4.2.7: B SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS IDENTIFIED, THE CORRECT VERSIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS, AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
31	Decl.	The book is being bring here by them.	The book will be brought here by them.	Tense, lexis and misspelling errors. *(…is being bring…)* is a wrong construction due to the misspelling of '*brought'*. Besides, '*bring'* is present instead of the future (*…will be brought)*. A developmental stage error.
	Neg.	The book is not being bring by them.	The book will not be brought here by them.	Tense, lexis and misspelling errors. *(…is not being bring)* is a wrong expression due to the misspelling of '*brought'*. Besides, '*bring'* is present instead of the future (*…will not be brought)*.
	Int.	Is the book being bring by them?	Will the book be brought here by them?	Tense, lexis and misspelling errors. (*Is the book being bring)* is a wrong expression due to the misspelling of '*brought'*. Besides, '*bring'* is present instead of the future (*...will the book be*

				brought…?)
32.	Decl.	The animals are being taking to the zoo by us.	The animals will be taken to the zoo by us.	Tense, morph-syntactic and misspelling errors. The use of the future continuous (*…are being taking)* instead of the simple future (*…will be taken…)*. Besides, '*taking'* is a misspelling due to phonological similarity with '*taken*.'
	Neg.	The animals are not being taking to the zoo by us.	The animals will not be taken to the zoo by us.	Tense, morph-syntactic and misspelling errors. The use of the future continuous (*…are not being taking)* instead of the simple future (*…will not be taken)'* .Besides, '*taking'* is a misspelling due to phonological similarity with '*taken*.'
	Int.	Is the animals being taking to the zoo by us?	Will the animals be taken to the zoo by us?	Concord, tense, morph - syntactic and misspelling errors. '*Is'* a singular auxiliary verb cannot agree with '*animals'* a plural subject. The use of the future continuous *(Is the animals being taking…?)* instead of the simple future (*Will animals be taken…?).* Besides, '*taking'* is a misspelling due to phonological similarity with '*taken*'.

33.	Decl.	The reply will be send by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza.	Their reply will be sent in by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza.	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the definite article '*the'* instead of the pronoun '*their'* and the use of simple tense (*…send)* instead of (*…sent)* due their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	The reply is not send in by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza.	Their reply will not be sent in by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza.	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the definite article '*the'* instead of the pronoun '*their'* and the use of simple tense (*…is not send)* instead of (*…will not be sent…)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Had the reply being send in by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza?	Will their reply be sent in by Nonye, Bashir and Hamza?	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the definite article '*the'* instead of the pronoun '*their'* and the use of past tense (*Had the reply being send…?)* instead of the future tense (*Will their reply be sent…?).*
34.	Decl.	The debt is being pay by the woman.	The debt will be paid by the woman.	Misspelling, tense, omission errors. The present continuous tense (*…is being…)* is used instead of the simple future tense (*…will be…).* Also (*paid)* is misspelled as (*pay).*
	Neg.	The debt is not being pay by the woman.	The debt will not be paid by the woman.	Misspelling, tense, omission errors. The present continuous tense (*… is not*

				being…) is used instead of the simple future tense (*…will not be…).* Also (*paid)* is misspelled as (*pay)*.
	Int.	Had the debt being payed by the woman?	Will the debt be paid by the woman?	Tense, morph-syntactic and misspelling error. There was the use of past tense '*had'* instead of the future '*will'*. Also, '*paid'* was spelt as '*payed'* due to their phonological similarities. A developmental stage error.
35.	Decl.	Our plight have being considered by government.	Our plight will be considered by the government.	Tense, and misspelling errors. The use of the present perfect '*have been'* instead of the simple future '*will be'* though '*being'* was used instead of '*been'* due to their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	Our plight is not been considered by government.	Our plight will not be considered by the government.	Lexical, and tense errors. There is the use of the present tense (… *is not been*…) instead of the simple future (…*will not be*….). Besides, the participle *been* is in appropriately used.
	Int.	Is our plight considered by government.	Will our plight be considered by the government?	Tense, omission and punctuation errors. The present tense is used instead of the future tense. Also, the definite article (*the)* and the question mark were omitted.

Table 4.2.7B above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense omission, lexical, morph-syntactic, misspelling, and malapropism errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into the passive voice in the simple future tense.

TABLE 4.2.8 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSES (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSES (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO THE PASSIVE IN THE FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE.

"A"						"B"			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
36	Decl.	14	10	136	90	6	4	144	98
	Neg.	14	10	136	90	3	2	147	98
	Int.	12	8	138	92	3	2	147	98
37	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Int.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
38	Decl.	30	20	120	80	3	2	147	98
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	3	2	147	98
	Int.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
39	Decl.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	3	2	147	98
	Int.	6	4	144	94	3	2	147	98
40	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	18	12	132	88	0	0	150	100
	Int.	12	8	138	92	0	0	150	100

Table 4.2.8A shows that none of the percentage scores in both groups was up to 50% indicating that majority of the respondents have difficulties in transforming the active voice into the passive using the future continuous tense. The table however indicates that comparatively, the private schools whose TCR range between 6 or 4% and 30 or 20% performed better than the public schools whose TCR range between 0 or 0% and 6 or 4%.

Specifically, the average total correct response (ATCR) for the private schools is 9% and the average total wrong response is 91%. Similarly, the average total correct response (ATCR) for the public schools is only 1% while the average total wrong response (ATWR) is 99%.

TABLE 4.2.8 B: SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS IDENTIFIED, THE CORRECT VERSIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
36.	Decl.	The car will be washed by me.	The car will be being washed by me.	Tense errors. The simple future tense (*...will be...)* instead of the future continuous (*...will be being...)* was used.
	Neg.	The car will not be washed by me.	The car will not be being washed by me.	Tense errors. The simple future (*...will not be...)* instead of the future continuous (*...will not be being...)* was used.
	Int.	Will the car be washed by me?	Will the car be being washed by me?	Tense errors. The simple future (*Will the car be washed...?)* instead of the future continuous (*will the car be being washed...).*
37	Decl.	The thief will be caught by the police.	The thief will be being caught by the police.	Tense errors. The simple future (*...will be caught...)* instead of the future continuous tense (*...will be being caught...)* was used.
	Neg.	The thief is not caught by the police.	The thief will not be being caught by the police.	Tense error. The present perfect (*...is not caught...)* instead of the future continuous (*...will not be being caught...)* was used.
	Int.	Was the thief catch by the	Will the thief be being caught by	Tense and misspelling errors. The use of the past instead of

		police?	the police?	the future tense. Also the present form of the verb (*catch)* should be (*caught).* A developmental stage error.
38	Decl.	The examination is been written by the student.	The examination will be being written by the students.	Tense and malapropism errors. The use of the present perfect (*…is …written…)* instead of the future continuous tense (*…will be being written…)*. Also the use of past participle (*been)* instead of the present (*being).*
	Neg	The examination is not been written by the student.	The examination will not be being written by the students.	Tense and malapropism errors. The use of the present (*… is not… written…)* instead of the future continuous tense (*…will not be …written…)*. Also the use of past participle *been* present *being.*
	Int.	Is examination being write by student.	Will the examination be being written by the student?	Tense and punctuation. The use of the present auxiliary (I*s examination…)* instead of the future (*Will the examination…?)* There is also the use of the present form of the verb *(write)* instead of the perfect *(written)*. There is also the omission of the question mark (?)
39	Decl.	The farm is been weeding by the gardener..	The farm will be being weeded by the gardener.	Tense and malapropism errors. The present (*Is…)* instead of the future continuous (*…will be being…)* is used. Also the past participle (*been)* instead of the

				present (*being)* is used.
	Neg.	The farm is not been weeded by the gardener.	The farm will not be being weeded by the gardener.	Tense and malapropism errors. The present (*...is not...)* instead of the future continuous (*...will not be being...)* is used. Also the past participle (*been)* instead of the present (*being)* is used.
	Int.	Is the farm weeded by the gardener?	Will the farm be being weeded by the gardener?	Tense error. The present (*Is the farm…?)* instead of the future continuous (*Will the farm…?)* was used.
40.	Decl.	Pounded yam will be eating by Mr Yusuf.	Pounded yam will be being eaten by Mr. Yusuf.	Tense, morph - syntactic and phonological errors. The use of simple future instead of the future continuous. Also the use of (*eating)* instead of (*eaten)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	Pounded yam will not be eating by Mr Yusuf.	Pounded yam will not be being eaten by Mr. Yusuf.	Tense, morph-syntactic and phonological errors. The use of simple future instead of the future continuous. Also the use of (*eating)* instead of (*eaten)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Will pounded yam be being eating by Mr Yusuf?	Will pounded yam be being eaten by Mr. Yusuf?	Tense, morph-syntactic and phonological errors. The use of simple future (*Will pounded yam be being eating…?)* instead of the future continuous (*Will pounded yam be being eaten…?)*. Also the use of

				(*eating)* instead of (*eaten)* due to their phonological similarities.

Table 4.2.8 B shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, omission, malapropism, morpho-syntactic, and misspelling errors in their attempt to transform the active voice into passive voice in the future continuous tense.

TABLE 4.2.9 A: SHOWING TOTAL CORRECT RESPONSE (TCR) AND TOTAL WRONG RESPONSE (TWR) OF SSIII BURA LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TRANSFORMING THE ACTIVE INTO PASSIVE IN THE FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

		"A"				"B"			
Item	**Modality**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**	**TCR**	**%**	**TWR**	**%**
41	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	6	4	144	96	0	0	150	100
	Int.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
42	Decl.	14	10	136	90	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
43	Decl.	6	4	144	96	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	0	0	150	100	0	0	150	100
	Int.	0	0	150	100	0	0	150	100
44	Decl.	14	10	136	90	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Int.	3	2	147	98	0	0	150	100
45	Decl.	9	6	141	94	0	0	150	100
	Neg.	6	4	144	96	0	0	150	100
	Int.	0	0	150	100	0	0	150	100

The table above covers test items 40 – 45. The items tested the respondents' ability in transforming the active voice into the passive voice using the future perfect tense. The analysis shows that none of the respondents from the public schools got the correct

transformations in all the items as they recorded a TCR of 0 or 0% and a TWR of 150 or 100%. The respondents from the private schools however had a TCR of between 0% and 14 or 10%, a TWR of between 150 or 100% and 136 or 90%. This gives a total correct responses (ATCR) of 0% and average total wrong responses (ATWR) of 100% for the public schools and 4% average total correct responses (ATCR) and 96% average total wrong responses (ATWR) for the private schools. These performances still prove that students from both schools have difficulties in transforming the active into the passive voice.

TABLE 4.2.9 B: SHOWING SAMPLE ERRORS IDENTIFIED, THE CORRECT VERSIONS OF THE CONSTRUCTIONS AND THE ERROR TYPOLOGIES.

Item	Modality	Recognition	Description	Explanation
41.	Decl.	The assignment will be completed by you.	The assignment will have been completed by you.	Tense error. The use of the simple future (*...will be completed...)* instead of the future perfect tense (*...will have been completed...)*.
	Neg.	The assignment will not be completed by you.	The assignment will not have been completed by you.	Tense error. The use of the simple future (*...will not be completed...)* instead of the future perfect tense (*...will not have been completed...)*.
	Int.	Is the assignment being completed by you?	Will the assignment have been completed by you?	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*Is the assignment being...?)* instead of the future perfect tense (*Will the assignment have been...?)*.
42.	Decl.	The job is done by him.	The job will have been done by him.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*The job is done...)* instead of the

				future perfect tense (*The job will have been done…).*
	Neg.	The job is not done by him.	The job will not have been done by him.	Tense error. The use of the present perfect (*The job is not done…)* instead of the future perfect tense (*The job will not have been done…).*
	Int.	Will the job be done by him?	Will the job have been done by him?	Tense error. The use of the simple future (*Will the job be done…?)* instead of the future perfect tense (*Will the job have been done…?).*
43.	Decl.	The table have being cleared by us.	The table will have been cleared by us.	Tense malapropism and misspelling errors. The use of the present instead of the future perfect tense. Also wrong use of auxiliaries, (*have)* instead of (*has)* and (*being)* instead of (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Neg.	The table have not being cleared by us.	The table will not have been cleared by us.	Tense, malapropism and misspelling errors. The use of the present instead of the future perfect tense. Also wrong use of auxiliaries, (*have)* instead of (*has)* and (*being)* instead of (*been).*
	Int.	<u>Is the table being cleared</u> by us?	Will the table have been cleared by us?	Tense, malapropism and misspelling errors. The use of the present (*Is the table*

				being cleared…?) instead of the future perfect tense (*Will the table have been cleared…?).* In this expressions, there is also the confusion of the auxiliaries (*being)* instead of (*been)*.
44.	Decl.	The letter is been written by her.	The letter will have been written by her.	Tense error. The use of the present (*The letter is…)* instead of the future perfect tense (*The letter will have been…).*
	Neg.	The letter have not being written by her.	The letter will not have been written by her.	Tense, malapropism and misspelling errors. The use of the present instead of the future perfect tense. Also wrong use of auxiliaries, (*have)* instead of (*has)* and (*being)* instead of (*been)*.
	Int.	Is the letter being written by her?	Will the letter have been written by her?	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*Is the letter being…)* instead of the future perfect (*Will the letter have been…?)*.
45.	Decl.	The admission is being gotten by Sule.	The admission will have been gotten by Sule.	Tense error. The use of the present continuous (*The admission is being gotten…)* instead of the future perfect (*The admission will have been gotten…)*.
	Neg.	The admission have	The admission	Tense, malapropism and

		not being gotten by Sule.	will not have been gotten by Sule.	misspelling errors. The use of the present perfect instead of the future perfect tense. There is also confusion of the auxiliaries (*have)* and (*has)* as well as (*being)* and (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.
	Int.	Is the admission being gotten by Sule?	Will the admission have been gotten by Sule?	Tense, and misspelling errors. The use of the present continuous (*Is the letter being gotten…?)* instead of the future perfect tense (*Will the letter have been gotten…?)*. Also there is the confusion of auxiliaries, (*being)* and (*been)* due to their phonological similarities.

Table 4.2.9 B above shows that the sampled SSIII Bura learners of English committed tense, misspelling, and malapropism errors in their attempts to transform the active voice into the passive voice in the future perfect tense.

4.2.10 TOTAL AVERAGE OF CORRECT AND WRONG RESPONSES

The total average of the correct and wrong responses in tables 4.2.1 A to 4.2.9A above is as follows:

i) Private schools have an Average Total Correct Responses (ATCR) of 11% while the Average Total Wrong Responses is 89%.

ii) Public schools have an Average Total Correct Responses (ATCR) of only 3% while the Average Total Wrong Responses (ATWR) is 97%.

4.3 DISTRIBUTION OF ERRORS

In tables 4.2.1B to 4.2.9B, the data obtained from the simple random sampling were analyzed based on the four stages of EA as posited by Corder (1967) namely: Recognition, Description, Explanation and Correction. A total of two thousand, four hundred and four (2,404) grammatical errors were identified in this study

In our presentation of the data, we took into cognizance Corder's (1967, 1971); Edge's (1989); James' (1998) distinction between errors, mistakes and lapses or slips. Errors, to them, are everything mistakes or lapses are not. They are of significance; they reflect knowledge; not self correctable; and only learners of L2 make them. Mistakes on the other hand can be corrected by their agent if their deviance is pointed out to him or her; a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self correction, while lapses or slips of the tongue or pen or even fingers on a key board, can quickly be detected and self corrected by their author unaided. Most of the errors, about 0ne thousand, eight hundred and sixty five (1,865 or 78%) were found to be developmental structure errors while only five hundred and thirty nine (539 or 22%) could be attributed to interference errors. Developmental errors are faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language. Richards (1980) says, developmental errors "illustrate the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or textbook". To Richards (ibid) the paramount reason for developmental errors is a deficiency in the process of teaching. However, certain developmental errors may emanate as a result of the developmental stage of the learners as a result of their immaturity in the language. Interlingua errors on the other hand are those errors in the second language (L2) that emanate

from the first language (L1). In this case, elements of the L1 are transferred to English in the aspects of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

4.3.1 SAMPLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL STRUCTURE ERRORS IN THE DATA

1. Has the phone call being maked by Sule.(wrong)
2. Has the phone call been made by Sule?(correct)
3. The thieves were drove away by Dalhatu.(wrong)
4. The thieves were driven away by Dalhatu.(correct)
5. The thief has not being catch by the policeman.(wrong)
6. The thief has not been caught by the policeman.(correct)
7. The car was drived once by Haruna.(wrong)
8. The car was driven once by Haruna.(correct)
9. The debt has being payed by the woman.(wrong)
10. The debt has been paid by the woman.(correct)
11. Has the car being wash?(wrong)
12. Has the car been washed?(correct)
13. The thief was being catched.(wrong)
14. The thief was being caught.(correct)
15. All the food was eated by us.(wrong)
16. All the food was eaten by us.(correct)

Table 4.3.2, 4.3.3 and 4.3.4 below give details of the distribution of the category and percentage of all the grammatical errors.

TABLE 4.3.2 SHOWING A SUMMARY OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS ACROSS THE SIX CATEGORIES

Category	Frequency	Percentage
1. Tense Error	1215	50.5
2. Concord Error	554	23
3.Formal Errors of Lexis(including misspelling)	238	9.9
4. Morph-syntactic Errors	168	7.1
5. Punctuation	140	5.8
6. Omission	89	3.7
Total	**2404**	**100**

The two thousand, four hundred and four (2,404) grammatical errors identified in this study were classified into one thousand two hundred and fifteen 1215 or 50.5% tense grammatical errors, 554 or 23% concord grammatical errors, 238 0r 9.9% formal errors of lexis, 168 or 7.1% morph-syntactic errors, 140 or 5.8% punctuation errors and 89 or 3.7% omission errors.

The trend of errors shows that Tense Errors (TE), Concord Errors (CE), Formal Errors of Lexis (FEL) (including misspelling errors), Morph-syntactic Errors(MSE), Punctuation Errors (PE), Omission Errors were found to be common with the following frequency distribution of error counts per school type.

TABLE 4.3.3 A: SHOWING SUMMARY OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS RESPONDENTS

Category	Frequency	Percentage
1.Tense Errors	502	55
2. Concord Errors	182	20
3. Formal Errors of Lexis (including misspelling)	82	09

4. Morph-syntactic Errors	67	07
5. Punctuation	48	05
6. Omission	32	04
Total	**913**	**100**

TABLE 4.3.3 B: SHOWING SUMMARY GRAMMATICAL ERRORS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS RESPONDENTS.

Category	Frequency	Percentage
1. Tense Errors	713	48
2. Concord Errors	372	24
3. Formal Errors of Lexis (including misspelling)	156	11
4. Morph - syntactic Errors	101	07
5.Punctuation	092	06
6. Omission	057	04
Total	**1491**	**100**

4.4 DESCRIPTION OF ERRORS

4.4.1 Tense Errors:

What emerges from the error analyses and interpretation of the data is the fact that tense errors constituted the highest percentage of errors with 55% by the private and 48% by the public school respondents. Most of these errors were due to wrong use of one tense instead of the other.

Examples are:

1. Simple past instead of past continuous tense as in:
   a. A lecture was not delivered. (wrong)
   b. A lecture was not being delivered. (correct)
2. Simple present instead of past continuous tense as in:
   a. The phone call is being made. (wrong)

b. he phone call was being made. (correct)

3. Simple future instead of future perfect as in:

   a. The admission will be gotten. (wrong)

   b. The admission will have been gotten. (correct)

4. Present perfect instead of past perfect as in:

   a. *All the food is eaten. (wrong)

   b. All the food had been eaten. (correct)

4.4.2: CONCORD ERRORS:

Concord errors which constituted 20% and 24% of all the errors found in the data of respondents from both groups, were the second to the largest category of errors. Majority of the errors consisted of disagreement between the number of a subject and the number of the verb. For concord to be established, a singular subject must take a singular verb, while a plural subject takes a plural verb.

Instances in the data where this occurred include:

1. a. An award have been won by my friend. (wrong)

   b. An award has been won by my friend. (correct)

2. a. Our teeth is being brush every day. (wrong)

   b. Our teeth are being brushed every day. (correct)

3. a. * Is the animals being taking to the zoo? (wrong)

   b. Are the animals being taken to the zoo? (correct)

4. a. *The admission have not gotten by Sule.(wrong)

   b. The admission has not been gotten by Sule.(correct)

These errors revealed mainly the Bura learners inability to match the correct subject with the correct verb. It also revealed their inability to determine the subject of a sentence.

4.4.3: FORMAL ERRORS OF LEXIS (FEL)

There were formal errors of lexis, the most common being errors of malapropism; what Laufer (1992) calls synforms, Room (1979) calls confusibles and Phythian (1989) confusables. These are pairs (or triples) of words that look and sound alike, can have the same stress pattern, be of the same word class, have the same initial and have some morphemes in common. In this study, the constant inter change and misuse of *being* and *been*, *has* and *have, was* and *has* are cases in point.

The data show that this error type constitute 9% and 11% of the errors committed by respondents from the private and public schools respectively.

Examples:

1. a. An award have being won. (wrong)
   b. An award has been won. (correct)
2. a. Was the drama been organized? (wrong).
   b. Was the drama being organized? (correct).
3. a. The grass has being cutted. (wrong).
   b. The grass was being cut. (correct)
4. a. The book is being bring. (wrong).
   b. The book is being brought. (correct).

4.4.4 MORPH-SYNTACTIC ERRORS

The data in tables 4.3.1 and 4.3.2 show that the morph-syntactic category of error constitute 7% in both groups.

Examples:

1. a. Had the debt being payed by the woman?
   b. Had the debt been paid by the woman?
2. a. The thief was being catched

b. The thief was being caught.

3. a. All the food is eated by us.

b. All the food was eaten by us.

4. a. The phone call is not maked by Sule.

b. The phone call was not being made by Sule.

4.4.5 PUNCTUATION ERRORS

These were mechanical accuracy errors. In this study the result shows that this error type constitute 5% and 6% of the errors committed by the two groups. Specifically, capitalization errors had the highest appearance in this category then omission of full stop.

Examples are:

1. a. * football match are being watching by them (wrong).

b. Football match is being watched by them. (correct).

2. a. your parents are being remember by you (wrong)

b. Your parents are being remembered by you. (correct).

3. a. *drama is being organizing (wrong)

b. A drama is being organized. (correct)

4. a. is lunch been eaten by musa (wrong)

b. Is lunch being eaten by musa? (correct)

5. a. tea is been take by aliyu for breakfast (wrong)

b. Tea is being taken for breakfast by Aliyu. (correct)

4.4.6 OMISSION ERRORS

This category of error constitutes 4% of the errors committed by each group. Examples are;

1. a. ^Children are being taken to school every day. (wrong)

b. Their children are being taken to school every day. (correct)

2. a. She ^not order out of the hall. (wrong)

b. She <u>was</u> not ordered out of the hall. (correct)

3. a. ^Lecture was deliver. (wrong)

b. <u>A</u> lecture was delivered. (correct)

4. a. ^Grass has not being cutted. (wrong)

b. <u>The</u> grass was not being cut.(correct)

4.4.7 GENERAL TREND OF ERRORS

Generally, the trend of errors indicate that most sentences constructed by the respondents contain more than one error which James (op.cit:200) defines as "errors ascribed to more than one cause, which operate either simultaneously or cumulatively."

Examples are:

1. a. <u>is</u> the thieves being <u>drive</u> away (wrong)

b. Are the thieves being driven away?(correct)

In this expression, three errors were committed: concord, tense and punctuation.

2. a. *The flowers <u>was been watering</u> (wrong)

b. The flowers are being watered. (correct)

This sentence has concord, tense, phonological miscue and lexical errors, each reinforcing the other.

3. a. The table <u>have</u> not <u>being clear</u> (wrong)

b. The table has not been cleared. (correct)

The expression is faulty due to disagreement of the subject *table* and verb *have*, phonological miscue of *being* and *been* as well as the omission of the past tense morpheme (ed).

4. a. *The debt should being <u>pay</u> (wrong)

b. The debt will be paid. (correct)

This expression has a tense, omission and misspelling errors.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 INTRODUCTION

As it was pointed out earlier, this study focused on identifying the problems faced by Bura learners of English active - passive transformations and how to improve on such observed problems. A number of predictions were made on specific areas of difficulties to be encountered by the Bura learners of English active - passives transformation due mainly to the peculiarities of the features of English language and the inhibiting influence of the Bura language structure. A forty five test item to be transformed in three modalities (declarative, negative and interrogative) was then constructed based on the predicted areas of difficulties and administered to three hundred (300) Bura learners of English in SSIII; one hundred and fifty (150) each from both public and private secondary schools. The purpose of this was to validate or reject the predictions made.

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Following the theoretical contrastive and error analyses of active - passive transformations in English and Bura and the comparative analysis of the performances of SSIII Bura learners of English in both public and private schools on the test administered, the following were discovered.

a) The passive voice in Bura is expressed by *'dzi'* suffixed to the verb or any of its derivatives.

b) Bura learners of English use tenses wrongly.

c) They use the auxiliary verbs wrongly.

d) They confuse the use of the participles "being" and "been."

e) Their expressions exhibit both interlingua and intralingua morph-syntactic errors mostly caused by their developmental stage in learning English.

f) They violate the rule of subject – verb agreement (concord).

The findings also show that although both English and Bura have the active – passive transformational properties as proposed by Chomsky (1957), the characteristics of the English active - passive transformations and similar expressions in Bura are entirely different systems. For instance, the transformation of the English active sentence to the passive form involves:

i) The transposition of NP1 and NP2 or NP3.

ii) The choice of auxiliary to agree with the new subject of the sentence (NP) requires the application of the rule of concord that states that a singular subject takes a singular verb while a plural subject takes a plural verb.

iii) The transposition of NP2 or NP3 to the position of NP1 suggests that all direct and indirect objects in the active sentence moved to the subject position in passive must undergo obligatory transformation. Consequently, the objective pronouns (me, us, you, her, him, them) change respectively to (I, we, you, she, he, they). You, though remain invariable.

iv) The verb undergoes obligatory transformation in which the main verb itself changes, depending on the tense, for example, to participle e.g.is eating – is being eaten, was eating – was being eaten, were sending - were being sent etc.

v) The multiplicity and ever increasing forms of the auxiliaries (am, is, are, was, were, has, have, had) in English do not exist in Bura. To this effect, the Bura learners do not have much difficulty with the choice of auxiliaries to express Bura sentences. This is because the auxiliaries ‘akwa’, ‘ku’, ‘asi’, and ‘ana’ are fixed and used for all persons, which signifies that the rule of subject /verb agreement in Bura is different from that

of English. Compared to the English passive transformations, the study reveals that similar expressions in Bura are made in manner peculiar to the Bura language.

Furthermore, the active–passive transformation in this study involves three modalities–declarative, negative and interrogative. Between English and Bura however, several differences of rendition abound in relation to these modalities. In the negative modality, for instance, English transforms differ considerably from Bura equivalents in that where as in English the marker 'not' must be correctly positioned between the auxiliary and the main verb to ensure the grammatical correctness of the sentence in question, Bura uses the discontinuous morpheme 'not – not', one coming between the NP1 and the auxiliary and the other at the end of the sentence. In the interrogative modality, English is different from Bura because where as there is specific rule of conversion of the new auxiliaries and the new subjects of the passive sentences, Bura uses a change in the verb form to change from one sentence structure to another and a tone at the word final position instead of a question mark.

5.2 CONCLUSION:

In this study, a total of two thousand, four hundred and four grammatical errors were identified. Most of the errors were development structures caused by the developmental stage of the learners. The trend of errors shows that tense errors caused by wrong use of one tense instead of the other, concord errors due to subject - verb disagreement, formal errors of lexis (FEL) including misspellings, morph-syntactic errors, punctuation and omission errors were common. The study also shows that students from both school types - Private and Public had difficulties in transforming the active sentences into the passive voice. This suggests that school type has little or no effect on the students' performance. This however takes us back to the observations made in chapter two that:

The language ability of the child when he begins school is an important factor affecting his achievement in school in all subject areas. In Nigeria however, most children go

to school without any knowledge of English, which is the school language. Most of them, especially those in the public schools are hardly ever able to acquire the language of instruction and are thus left to grabble with the learning situation. The inadequacy and lack of proficiency in English language in the classroom situation is not with the learners alone, teachers also fall victim to the problem which Awobuluyi (1992) traces back to the point where they themselves learned the language. According to him, the teachers of English in our schools are nearly all L2 speakers who were themselves taught by other L2 speakers who, in turn have learned the language necessarily imperfectly from other L2 speakers of English. He adds that to make matters worse still, most of such teachers have no training in contrastive linguistics and therefore will be unable to understand and consequently devise effective pedagogical strategies for combating the mostly mother tongue (MT) induced errors that recur in their pupils' written and oral performances in the language.

In addition, having observed students taking notes, and their teachers' methods of teaching, we discovered that good or bad teaching affect students' performance in active – passive transformation. Also, from the interview conducted, it was discovered that poor reading culture as well as their lack of interest in reading novels, listening to English programmes on the radio and or television affect their performance in active – passive transformation.

Finally, in this research, the four questions asked in chapter one section 1.4 were answered.

1) The structural pattern of active – passive transformation in English and Bura is the same as proposed by Chomsky (1957) If 'S' is a grammatical sentence of the form NP1+AUX+be+NP2 then the corresponding string of NP2+AUX+be+V+by+NP1 is also grammatical.

2) The similarities of English and Bura active – passive transformation are:

i. there was the transposition of NP1 from headword to final positions in both English and Bura .

ii. In Bura, the passive voice is expressed by '*dzi'* suffixed to the main verb whereas in English the verb changes according to the new subject.

iii. The rule of concord Bura and English is different. In Bura, the auxiliary verbs *akwa*, *ana*, *ku* and *asi* are fixed and used with all persons, singular or plural while in English there is subject – verb agreement.

iv. Bura uses a discontinuous morpheme (*adi … wa)* for the English negative marker (*not)*.

v. Bura uses a tone (*ya)* for the English question mark *(?)*.

3) The grammatical errors that exist in Bura learners' transformations are:

i. Tense errors;

ii. Concord errors;

iii. Formal errors of lexis including misspelling;

iv. Morph-syntactic errors;

v. Punctuation errors;

vi. Omission errors.

Most errors (78%) were however found to be developmental errors. Only (22%) of the errors could be attributed to mother tongue interference

4) It is obvious from the study that there are structural differences in the active - passive transformation of Bura and English. These differences constitute sources of learning difficulties to Bura learners of English passive transformation. Consequently, the improper mastery of English active - passive transformation adds to the Bura learners' poor proficiency in English language. Therefore, unless there is a systematic programme of training and

intensive practice such as proposed in the pedagogical implications below, errors in the use of the English active - passive transformation may likely persist.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

It has since been pointed out that the present study is a pedagogical Error Analysis study that adopts a pedagogical perspective to the study of L2 learners' errors. It thus assesses the pedagogic benefits of Error Analysis for classroom practice not for Error Analysis theory construction. It is a study based on predicting the possible sources of errors (e.g. MT interference) as we are interested in proposing a remedial programme for pedagogical benefit of EA. From the analysis above, it was observed that most of the test items recorded a significant error margin as 97% of the respondents in public and 87% of the respondents in private schools fail the test. This error margin is considered high since majority of the respondents failed the test. It also indicates that the type of school (public or private) has little influence on the sampled Bura learners' ability to transform the English active into passive voice as students from both schools performed below average. This therefore calls for a whole class remediation in an attempt at getting the learners more acquainted with the use of the various modalities of English passive transformation.

5.4 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Below are recommendations on suggested curriculum materials and methods to be adopted by teachers to improve the performance of Bura learners of English active – passive transformations. For all errors identified, a need to device materials as well as the methodology for teaching the English active – passive transformation cannot be over emphasized. This will go a long way in exposing the learners to this aspect of English.

For all the identified difficulties revealed by the study, some sample substitution drill exercises were provided. The Free Online Dictionary defines drill as "Disciplined, repetitious exercise as a means of teaching and perfecting a skill or procedure." For Azikiwe (2007:187),

"Drill means practice and practice means repetition". The repetition and practice of the observed difficulties brings about the process of reinforcement which enables the learners adopt those experiences into his vocabulary. This approach is recommended by the behaviourist. To them, human being is an organism capable of a wide repertoire of behaviours. The occurrence of behaviour is dependent upon three crucial elements in learning: a stimulus; which serves to elicit behaviours, a response, triggered by a stimulus; and reinforcement, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in future, (Skinner, 1957; Brown, 1980). Going by that view, drills in correcting errors in active – passive transformation as an academic exercise serves as a response to either internal or external stimulus while errors thereof are treated as inappropriate response that require negative reinforcement so as to suppress their repetition.

The substitution drill exercises below are therefore suggested to be adopted in an attempt to help the learners improve on or overcome the difficulties they encounter in transforming active voice into the passive.

5.4.1 SUBSTITUTION DRILLS

i) Simple Present Tense in Active Voice (Declarative)

I You They We	Send	much money a book some books	to	her. tome. them.
She He	sends	a book some books	to	him. you. us.

ii) Simple Present in Passive Voice (Declarative)

A book Some books	is sent are sent	to her	by	me. you. them. us.

iii) Simple Present in Active Voice (Negative)

She He They You I We	does not do not	send a book some books	to	me. you. them. us. him.

iv) Simple Present in Passive Voice (Negative)

A book Some books	is are not sent	to her	by	me. you. them. him.

v) Simple Present in Active Voice (Interrogative)

Does	She he			me? you?
Do	I you ye they	send	a book some books	to them? us? him? her?

vi) Simple Present in Passive Voice **(I**nterrogative**)**

Is a book Are books	sent	to her	by	me? you**?** us? them?

vii) Present Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Declarative)

I	am	sending	a book some books	to them.
You They We	are	sending	a book some books	to them.
She He	is	sending	a book some books	to them**.**

ii) Present Continuous Tense Passive Voice (Declarative).

A book Some books	is are	being sent	her him me to you them us	by	me. you. them. us. him. her.

ix) Present Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

She He	has	sent	some money a book some cars	me. him. to them. you. us.
I You We They	have	sent	a letter some messages some bags	

x) Present Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative).

		tome		you.
		you		them.
A book	has been sent	her	by	him.
Some books	have been sent	him		us.
		us		her.

xi) Simple Past Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

I				him.
You				her.
We		some shoes		them.
She	sent	an orange	to	us.
He		a pencil		you.
They				

xii) Simple Past Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative).

		me		you.
Some shoes	Were sent to	you		him.
An orange	Was sent to	her	by	them.
A pencil		him		you.
		them		us.
		us		her.

xiii) Past Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

I He She	was sending	a bag some fruits	to	her. you. him.
They We You	were sending	an animal		them. us. me.

xiv) Past Continuous Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative).

A bag An animal	was being sent to	me you her		you. him. us.
Some fruits	were being sent to	him them us	by	her. them. me.

xv) Past Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

I You We They She He	had	sent	a letter some money some books an apple an orange	to	them. him. her. you. us.

xvi) Past Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative)

Some money			him		me.
A letter			her		them.
An orange	had been sent	to	Us	by	you.
An apple			Me		him.
Some books			you		us.

xvii) Simple Future Tense in Active Voice (Declarative)

John						
The laborers				his	boss	today.
We	will	speak	to	their	teacher	next week.
You				our	uncle	tonight.
						tomorrow.

xvii) Simple Future Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative).

His						tonight.
Their	teacher				John	next week.
Our	boss	will be	spoken to	by	the laborers	tomorrow.
	uncle				us	today.

xviii) Future Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

John The laborers We You	will be	Speaking to	their Our his	teacher uncle boss	today. tonight. next week. tomorrow.

xix) Future Continuous Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative).

Their Our His	boss teacher uncle	will be being	spoken to	by	the laborers. John. us. you.

xx) Future Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Declarative).

John The laborers We You	will have	spoken to	his our their your	boss uncle teacher	tonight. next week. today. tomorrow.

xxi) Future Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Declarative)

His Our Their Your	boss teacher uncle	will have	been	spoken to	by	John. the laborers. you. us.

xxii) Simple Present Tense in Active Voice (Interrogative)

Does	he she	send	a letter a book an apple some money some food	to	me you them her him us	?
Do	you I we they					

xxiii) Present Simple Tense in Passive Voice (Interrogative)

Is	a book a letter an apple	sent	to	you me her him them us	by	them? him? you? us? her? me?
Are	some food Some money					

xxiv) Present Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Interrogative)

Is	he she		Some food An apple		her me	
Are	they we you	sending	A letter Some water An orange	to	him them us	?

xxv) Present Continuous Tense in Passive Voice (Interrogative)

Is	a book an orange an apple	being sent	to	her them us	by	you? me? him?
Are	some books some money bundles of cloth			me you him		them? her? us?

xxvi) Present Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Interrogative)

Has	she he	received	the money some messages	from	them you	
Have	they you we the students	collected	a letter an apple some food		her him us	?

xxvii) Present Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Interrogative)

Has	a letter the money an apple	been received	from	you her us me	by	the students?
Have	some food some messages	been collected		them him		the boys?

xviii) Simple Present Tense in Active Voice (Negative)

He She	does	not	send	a letter an orange some money some food	to	me. them. Mr Segun. us. him.
They I We You	do					

xxix) Simple Present Tense in Passive Voice (Negative)

A letter An orange	is	not	sent	to	us Mr Segun me them her	by	you. him. her. us. them.
Some food Some money	are						

xxx) Present Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Negative)

I	am	not	buying	some food an apple a car	for	the children. them. him. her.
She He Mr John	is					
They We You	are					

xxxi) Present Continuous Tense in Passive Voice (Negative)

An apple A car	is	not	being	bought	for	the children me you them	by	her. Mr John. us. him.
Some food Some apples	are							

xxxii) Present Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Negative)

He She Mary	has	not	bought	some food an apple a car a book	for	me. him. them. you. the children.
I You We They	have					

xxxiii) Present Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Negative).

An apple A car A book	has	not	been	bought	for	the children	by	me. you. her.
Some apples	have							them. us. Mary.

xxxiv) Simple Past Tense in Active Voice (Negative)

He They We You I She	did	not	send	an orange a gift some mangoes some oranges	to	the boys. Mrs Ali. his wife. us. her. him.

xxxv) Simple Past Tense in Passive Voice (Negative)

An orange A gift	was	not	sent	to	the boys Mrs Ali	by	him. them.
Some mangoes Some books	were				his wife us her him		me. you. her.

xxxvi) Past Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Negative)

They Some parents	had	not	taken	their children	to	school. zoo. the market.

xxxvii) Past Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Negative).

Their children	had	not	been taken	to	the market the zoo school	by	them. some parents. me. you.

xxxviii) Simple Future Tense in Active Voice (Negative).

He She You They I	will	not	open	the door	for	them. us. the visitors. his friends.

xxxix) Simple Future Tense in Passive Voice (Negative).

The door	will	not	be opened	to	them us the visitors his friends	by	him. me. you. her.

xxxx) Future Continuous Tense in Active Voice (Negative).

The boys Some girls I You Mrs Hassan	will	not	be opening	the door the gate the classroom	to	the late comers. the guest. the visitors. The children.

xxxxi) Future Continuous Tense in Passive Voice (Negative).

The classroom The gate The door	will	not	be being	opened	to the visitors to the latecomers to the guest	by	me. you. the boys. some girls. Mrs Hassan.

xxxxii) Future Perfect Tense in Active Voice (Negative).

I You They We She He	will	not	have opened	the gate the Classroom the door	to	the guest. the visitors. the latecomers.

xxxxiii) Future Perfect Tense in Passive Voice (Negative).

The gate The classroom The door	will	not	have been	opened	to	the guest the latecomers the visitors	by	you. me. the boys. them.

5.5 RECOMMONDATIONS FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

The English language teacher who is the ultimate implementer of the planned language curriculum has more than a simple task before him. As an English language teacher, he should be knowledgeable in the various areas of difficulties faced by his students since most textbook writers write for universal consumption and do not take care of peculiar problems. The English language teacher should therefore design his lesson to give the students full participation through exercises. He should select and adopt the materials from recommended textbooks to suit the background and difficulty levels of his students. He should provide as much practice using drills based identified difficulties.

The teacher can use role playing and turn taking to dramatize and teach the active passive transformation to his students. For instance, some students can make utterances in the active voice while others reply them in the passive voice thus:

Declarative:

Student A. (AV) Musa plays football every day.

Student B. (PV) Football is played by Musa every day.

Student C. (AV) They are cooking food.

Student D. (PV) Food is being cooked by them.

Student E. (AV) We saw the goats yesterday.

Student F. (PV) The goats were seen yesterday by us.

Student G. (AV) Sule will score a goal at the match.

Student H. (PV) A goal will be scored by Sule at the match.

Negative:

Student A. (AV) Musa does not plays football every day.

Student B. (PV) Football is not played by Musa every day.

Student C. (AV) They are not cooking food.

Student D. (PV) Food is not being cooked by them.

Student E. (AV) We did not see some goats yesterday.

Student F. (PV) Some goats were not seen by us yesterday.

Student G. (AV) Sule will not score a goal at the match.

Student H. (PV) A goal will not be scored by Sule at the match.

Interrogative:

Student A. (AV) Does Musa play football every day?

Student B. (PV) is football played by Musa every day?

Student C. (AV) Are they cooking food?

Student D. (PV) Is food being cooked by them?

Student E. (AV) Did we see some goats yesterday?

Student F. (PV) Were some goats seen by us yesterday?

Student G. (AV) Will Sule score a goal at the match?

Student H. (PV) Will a goal be scored at the match by Sule?

Such games could be done using different tenses as well as different students given the opportunity to use the active or passive voices. In addition, the English language teacher should regularly introduce new innovations quite essential to the learners' deep

understanding of the target language. Such innovations could include listening to model conversations on tape recorders, VCDs and DVDs to correct the misspelling errors especially those due to faulty pronunciation, listening to and watching television broadcasts, guided discussions using the active – passive transformation and other structures. The English language teacher should not limit himself to the content and teaching materials prescribed in the course specifications. He should dynamic and innovative, always giving the learners the opportunity to be engaged in using the target language.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EMPLOYERS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS

English teachers in secondary schools should be given opportunities to attend seminars, workshops as well as be allowed to go for in – service training programmes to update their knowledge and to keep abreast with the latest trends in the teaching of English. This is because during these courses, they will be exposed to modern methods of teaching English grammar with particular reference to English active – passive transformation by professionals with sound background and up-to-date knowledge in linguistics. Secondly, over- crowded classrooms should be reduced to manageable sizes to enable teachers give their students enough and adequate practice exercises in English. This will aid the students in achieving the desired mastery of the language. Thirdly, hardworking teachers who aspire to improve the linguistic attainment of their students should be properly and promptly rewarded by way of promotion and giving of fringe benefits. These will go a long way in motivating and them to perform even better.

5.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The following are areas where further research work could be extensively carried out to complement this effort:

i) In chapter one, it was mentioned that Bura and allied tribes like Marghi, Kilba and others were of the same stalk but migrated to their present locations in southern Borno. A research into this linguistic family with a view to ascertain validity of this claim is necessary.

ii) Bura is one of the languages that are insufficiently studied. There should be further studies on topics like:

   a) Bura and English noun phrase.

   b) Bura and English verbal0 phrase.

   c) Bura and English adjectival phrase.

   d) The modification process in Bura and English.

   e) Noun pluralization in Bura.

   f) Bura and English adverbials.

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APPENDIX I

TEST

SECTION A

Kindly fill the blank spaces with the appropriate information:

Class…….

Languages spoken……..

Mother tongue……

SECTION B

Kindly change the following sentences from the active voice to the passive voice in the declarative, negative and interrogation modalities.

Example:

Declarative:	(Active):	Mary writes her assignment every weekend.
,,	(Passive):	Assignment is written by Mary every weekend.
Negative:	(Active):	Mary does not write her assignment every weekend.
,,	(Passive):	Assignment is not written by Mary every weekend.
Interrogative:	(Active):	Does Mary write here assignment every week?
,,	(Passive):	Is assignment written by Mary every week?

Now do the following as shown in the examples above.

1.	Declarative:	(Active):	They take their children to school every day.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	They do not take their children to school every day.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Do they take their children to school every day?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
2.	Declarative:	(Active):	Musa eats his lunch late.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Musa does not eat his lunch.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Does Musa eat his lunch late?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
3.	Declarative:	(Active):	You clean the car every day.

	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	You do not clean the car every day.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Do you clean the car every day?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
4.	Declarative:	(Active):	We brush our teeth always.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We do not brush our teeth always.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Do we brush our teeth always?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
5.	Declarative:	(Active):	Nancy cooks delicious food.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Nancy does not cook delicious food.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Does Nancy cook delicious food?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
6.	Declarative:	(Active):	Aliyu is taking tea for breakfast.
	„	(Passive):	
	Negative:	(Active):	Aliyu is not taking tea for breakfast.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Is Aliyu taking tea for breakfast?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
7.	Declarative:	(Active):	We are sweeping the classroom.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We are not sweeping the classroom.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Are we sweeping the classroom?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
8.	Declarative:	(Active):	You are watering the flowers.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	You are not watering the flowers.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Are you watering the flowers?

	,,	(Passive):	……..……
9.	Declarative:	(Active):	Halima is driving the car.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Halima is not driving the car.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Is Halima driving the car?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
10.	Declarative:	(Active):	I am collecting the keys from him.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	I am not collecting the keys from him.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Am I collecting the keys from him?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
11.	Declarative:	(Active):	The shopkeeper has taken the dog away.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The shopkeeper has not taken the dog away.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Has the shopkeeper taken the dog away?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
12.	Declarative:	(Active):	Maryam and Shatu have written the test.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Maryam and Shatu have not written the test.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Have Maryam and Shatu written the test?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
13.	Declarative:	(Active):	We have shown him the place.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We have not shown him the place.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Have we shown him the place?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
14.	Declarative:	(Active):	They have scored another goal.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	They have not scored another goal.

	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Have they scored another goal?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
15.	Declarative:	(Active):	My friends have won an award.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	My friends have not won any award.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Have my friends won any award?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
16.	Declarative:	(Active):	Umar took the men to the farm.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Umar did not take the men to the farm.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Did Umar take the men to the farm?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
17.	Declarative:	(Active):	Dalhatu drove the thieves away.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Dalhatu did not drive the thieves away.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Did Dalhatu drive the thieves away?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
18.	Declarative:	(Active):	She killed the chicken yesterday.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	She did not kill the chicken yesterday.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Did she kill the chicken yesterday?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
19.	Declarative:	(Active):	We celebrated her success in the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We did not celebrate her success in the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Did we celebrate her success in the examination?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
20.	Declarative:	(Active):	You ordered her out of the hall.

	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	You did not order her out of the hall.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Did you order her out of the hall?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
21.	Declarative:	(Active):	Sule was making a phone call.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Sule was not making a phone call.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Was Sule making a phone call?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
22.	Declarative:	(Active):	We were organizing a drama.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We were not organizing a drama.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Were we organizing a drama?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
23.	Declarative:	(Active):	They were watching football match.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	They were not watching football match.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Were they watching football match?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
24.	Declarative:	(Active):	Alice was delivering a lecture.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Alice was not delivering a lecture.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Was Alice delivering a lecture?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
25.	Declarative:	(Active):	The students were cutting the grass.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The students were not cutting the grass.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Were the students cutting grass?

	,,	(Passive):	……..……
26.	Declarative:	(Active):	I had written the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	I had not written the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Had I written the examination?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
27.	Declarative:	(Active):	We had eaten all the food.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We had not eaten all the food.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Had we eaten all the food?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
28.	Declarative:	(Active):	They had worked out the answer.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	They had not worked out the answer.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Had they worked out the answer?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
29.	Declarative:	(Active):	You had remembered your parents.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	You had not remembered your parents.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Had you remembered your parents?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
30.	Declarative:	(Active):	Haruna had driven the car once.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Haruna had not driven the car once.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Had Haruna driven the car once?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
31.	Declarative:	(Active):	They will bring the books here.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	They will not bring the books here.

	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will they bring the books here?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Declarative:	(Active):	We shall take the animal to the zoo.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We shall not take the animal to the zoo.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Shall we take the animal to the zoo?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
33.	Declarative:	(Active):	Nonye, Bashir and Hamza will send in their reply.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Nonye, Bashir and Hamza will not send in their reply.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will Nonye, Bashir and Hamza send in their reply?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
34.	Declarative:	(Active):	The woman will pay the debt.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The woman will not pay the debt.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will the woman pay the debt?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
35.	Declarative:	(Active):	The government will consider our plight.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The government will not consider our plight.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will the government consider our plight?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
36.	Declarative:	(Active):	I will be washing the car.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	I will not be washing the car.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will I be washing the car?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
37.	Declarative:	(Active):	The policeman will be catching the thief.

	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The policeman will not be catching the thief.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will the policeman be catching the thief?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
38.	Declarative:	(Active):	The student will be writing the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The student will not be writing the examination.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will the student be writing the examination?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
39.	Declarative:	(Active):	The gardener will be weeding the farm.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	The gardener will not be weeding the farm.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will the gardener be weeding the farm?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
40.	Declarative:	(Active):	Mr. Yusuf will be eating pounded yam.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Mr.Yusuf will not be eating pounded yam.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will Mr. Yusuf be eating pounded yam?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
41.	Declarative:	(Active):	You will have completed the assignment.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	You will not have completed the assignment.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will you have completed the assignment?
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
42.	Declarative:	(Active):	He will have done the job.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	He will not have done the job.
	,,	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will he have done the job?

	„	(Passive):	……..……
43.	Declarative:	(Active):	We shall have cleared the table.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	We shall not have cleared the table.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Shall we have cleared the table?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
44.	Declarative:	(Active):	She will have written the letter.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	She will not have written the letter.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will she have written the letter?
	„	(Passive):	……..……
45.	Declarative:	(Active):	Sule will have gotten the admission.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Negative:	(Active):	Sule will not have gotten the admission.
	„	(Passive):	……..……
	Interrogative:	(Active):	Will Sule have gotten the admission?
	„	(Passive):	……..……