

外语教学与研究

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试论助词“も”的用法

徐惠鹏

も是日语中常见的一个助词。该词用法较多,含义较广。笔者根据多年的日语教学体会,总结、阐述如下,权当引玉之砖。

一. 作提示助词用

提示助词(有的称“系助词”或“副助词”)も接在体言、形式体言、助词、副词、用言、助动词的连用形、连体形后面,有以下多种用法。

(一)表示提示(或追提)某一事物,有时还暗示其它类似事物的存在。

这时も可以提示句中某些成分(主语、宾语、补语、状语等)作主题。相当于汉语的“也”、“还”。

1. 提示主语作主题,这时も顶替が。例如:

①わたしも日本語を勉強している。

/ 我也在学日语。

②彼も大学生である。

/ 他也是大学生。

③これはノートである。それもノートである。

/ 这是笔记本,那也是笔记本。

2. 提示宾语作主题。这时も代替を,或も与を重叠使用。

例如:

①父は英語も話せる。

/ 父亲也会说英语。

②ときには、映画をも見る。

/ 有时也看电影。

③あの工場は、大型、精密工作機械をも造ることができる。

/ 那个工厂也能制造大型精密机床。

3. 提示补语作主题。这时も一般与补格助词重叠使用(有时も可以顶替へ),将补语提示为主题,构成でも、にも、とも、(へ)も、からも、までも、よりも等形式。例如:

①あそこへは、電車でも行ける。

/ 乘电车也能去那里。

②ベッドの上にも本がある。

/ 床上也有书。

③電流は電子流とも言う。

/ 电流也叫电子流。

④北京(へ)もまだ行かない。

/ 北京也还没去。

⑤弟はお母さんからもお金をいただいたらしい。

/ 弟弟好象还从母亲那儿收到了钱。

⑥ここから学校までも歩くのか。

/ 从这里到学校也是走去吗?

⑦これは鉄よりも硬い金属である。

/ 这是比铁还硬的金属。

4. 提示状语作主题。例如:

①明日も雨が降るだろう!

/ 明天也会下雨吧!

②すこしも知らない。

/ 一点儿也不知道。

(二)表示兼提并论。即提示两个以上的类似事物,表示它们的情况相同或相似。

1. 表示两项事物同时发生或两者的性质一样。即用两个以上的も提示两个以上的类似事物。这时,一般用“Aも+谓语、Bも+谓语”的形式,其中的も相当于汉语的“又…又…”、“也…也…”、“既…又…”。例如:

①雨も降るし、風も吹く。

/ 又下雨,又刮风。

②このうちは庭もせまいし、日当たりもよくない。

/ 这所房子院子也窄、光线也不好。

③北京へも行きたいし、上海へも行きたい。

/ 既想去北京、又想去上海。

2. 表示两项或两项以上的事物处于同一状态或同一条件下。这时,一般用“AもBも+谓语”的形式,其中的も相当于汉语的“都”、“无论……还是……都……”。例如:

①障子も襖も開け放つ。

/ 拉窗和拉门都敞开着。

②男も女もみな働く。

/ 无论男的,还是女的都劳动。

③行きも、歸りも歩いた。

/ 无论去还是回来都是徒步走的。

④王さんも李さんも張さんもみんな北京大学の学生である。

/ 小王、小李、小张都是北大的学生。

3. 代表性地提示出成对的两个词,表示所有的范围。这时的も相当于汉语的“都”、“全”。例如:

①拍手と歓声があつちからも、こつちからも聞えてきた。

/ 到处都响起了掌声和欢呼声。

②これも、それもみんな私のせいだ。

/ 全部都是我的责任。

③田舎からいきなり大都会へきたのだから、東も西もわからなくなつてしまった。

/ 因为刚从乡下到大城市,所以连东南西北都分不清了。

4. 提示成对的不定词,与后面肯定的叙述相呼应,表示一切都是如此。这时的も相当于汉语的“一切”、“都”、“全部”。例如:

①家の仕事はなにもかもお母さんが一人でやつた。

/ 家务活儿一切都是母亲一个人干的。

②君の言うのは、どれもこれも皆間違いだ。

/ 你说的全都是错误的。

③この案には誰もかれも賛成するにちがいない。

/ 这个意见谁都会赞成。

④わが国の市場はどこもかしこも繁榮ぶりを示した。

/ 我国的市场到处都呈现出繁荣景象。

(三)表示全面肯定或全面否定。

1. 表示全面肯定。这时,も要接在疑问词或不定词的后面,与肯定式谓语相呼应。例如:

①その事はだれも知っている。

/ 那件事谁都知道。

②东西南北、どちらも山ばかりだ。

/ 东西南北,哪个方向都是山。

③直流の方向は何時も一定である。

/ 直流的方向任何时候都是固定不变的。

④そうしたいという者何人もいた。

/ 有许多人想那么干。

2. 表示全面否定。这时,も要接在疑问词或不定词的后面,与否定式谓语相呼应。例如:

①いま教室には誰もいない。

/ 现在教室里一个人也没有。

②私は明日はどこへも行かない。

/ 明天我哪儿也不去。

③日曜日に何もやらなかつた。

/ 星期天什么事也没做。

④彼は誰ともけんかしたことがなかつた。

/ 他从来也没有和谁打过架。

(四)表示程度——事物的程度和数量的程度。

1. 表示事物竟达到这样的程度。这时的も提示一个极端的或特殊的事例加以叙述,言外暗示其它也当然如此。它与“さえも”、“すらも”、“さすがの…も”的形式相同,即用夸张的语气来表示“甚至…也…”的语感,相当于汉语的“连…也(都)”、“甚至”、“即使…也…”,例如:

①そんなことは子供にもわかる。

/ 那样的事连小孩也懂。

②夜も明けない前からおきだして、仕事をする。

/ 甚至天还没亮就起来工作。

③一年日本語を勉強したのに、まだひらがなもよく読めない。

/ 学了一年日语,但连平假名也还读不好。

④わたしはタバコも吸わない。

/ 我甚至香烟也不抽。

⑤水を飲む元気もないほど疲れてしまった。

/ 累得连喝水的气力都没有了。

2. 表示数量的程度。

(1) 强调数量之多。这时も接在数词后面, 谓语是肯定词时, 表示很不寻常和超出预料的语气, 相当于汉语“竟”的意思。例如:

① 今日で十日も雨がふりつづいている。

/ 到今天为止, 雨竟连下了十天。

② うちから駅まで、歩いて三十分もかかる。

/ 从家到车站竟要走三十分钟。

③ そのアンテナは六十メートルもある。

/ 那根天线竟有六十多米。

④ 十年もの刑になるなんて。

/ 竟被判了十年徒刑。

⑤ 病気で五年間も寝たままです。

/ 因病卧床不起竟达五年之久。

⑥ 百万円も借金がある。

/ 负债竟达一百万日元之多。

(2) 强调数量之少。这时も接在数词后面, 与否定意义的词相呼应, 表示达到某种界限内的数量程度, 相当于汉语“还不…”、“还没…”的意思。例如:

① 弟はまが三つにもならない子供である。

/ 弟弟是个三岁还不到的小孩。

② 安いですよ。一つ百円もしないのだから。

/ 真便宜呀! 一个还不到一百日元。

③ 今年の予算はいくらものこつていない。

/ 今年的预算还没剩多少了。

④ 一時間もかからないうちに本を読んでしまった。

/ 还没用一小时的功夫就把书读完了。

(3) 表示大概的数量、程度。这时的も接在数词之后, 与表示疑问、推量的词相呼应。例如:

① それは二尺もあろうかという鯉だつたんだ。

/ 那是一条足有二尺来长的大鲤鱼呀!

② 百キロもあろうかと思われる石を持ち上げた。

/ 举起了约有一百公斤重的石头。

③ この上着、いま買えば五万円もするかね。

/ 这件上衣现在买的话, 说不定值五万日元呢。

(五) 表示强烈的否定。

1. も接在与“一”有关的数词后面, 与否定的谓语相呼应, 表示全面否定。相当于汉语“一…也没…”的意思。例如:

① このクラスには成績の悪い学生は一人もいない。

/ 这个班里一个成绩不好的学生也没有。

② 涙は一滴も出なかつた。

/ 眼泪一滴也没流出来。

③ 十数年来、一度も家へ歸つたことがない。

/ 十几年来一次也没回过家。

④その日はあいにくと、一銭も持つていながった。

/ 那天恰巧连一分钱也没带。

⑤あまり嬉しくて、一言もいえない。

/ 高兴得一句话也没说出来。

2. 用“动词连用形(サ变动词词干)+もしない”、“动词连用形+て(で)+も…ない”的形式，表示强烈否定。例如：

①あいさつが終ると、ふり返りもしないで行ってしまった。

/ 寒暄完了，连头也没回就走了。

②泣きもしない子の背をただいている。

/ 拍着一声也不哭的孩子的背。

③参加もしなかつたようである。

好象根本就没有参加

④こうなるとは田中に考えてもいながった。

/ 田中想都没有想到会弄成这个样子。

⑤敵を発見すると、彼は恐れもしないでとびかかっていた。

/ 当一发现敌人时，他毫不畏惧，立即扑了上去。

3. も接在部分程度副词后面，与否定的谓语相呼应，表示加强否定叙述的语气。例如：

①インクは少しも残っていない。

/ 墨水一点儿也没剩。

②しばらくも離れなかつた。

/ 一刻也没有离开过。

③そんなことはみじんも考えない。

/ 那种事丝毫也没想过。

④彼の話はちつともまちがっていない。

/ 他的话一点儿也没错。

4. 接在部分情态副词后面，与否定意义的词相呼应，表示强调否定。例如：

①彼女はびくりとも動かずに椅子にこしかけている。

/ 她一动也不动地坐在椅子上。

②これはうれしくもないことである。

/ 这是件并不令人高兴的事。

③昨夜、寝てから風はそよともしなかつた。

/ 昨晚睡下以后，连一点儿微风都没有。

④あの人はにこりともしないで澄ましている。

/ 他笑也不笑板着脸。

5. も接在形容词、形容动词连用形后面与否定意义的词相呼应，表示加强否定语气。通常以“形容词、形容动词连用形+もない”的形式出现。例如：

①ここには、静かでもない。

/ 这儿也不安静。

②ねだんは高くもない。

/ 价钱也不高。

③忙しくもないのに、なんで勉強しないんだ。

/ 一点儿也不忙，怎么不学习？

(六)表示说话人判断事物状态时的心情。这时も接在形容词连用形后面，谓语用肯定式，相当于汉语“真……”、“才……”的意思。例如：

①惜しくも敗れた。

/ 真可惜，失败了。

②運悪くも見つかってしまった。

/ 真倒霉，被发现了。

③辛くものがれた。

/ 好不容易才逃走了。

(七)表示事物的极限。

这时も接在形容词连用形后面，谓语用肯定式，表示事物最大或最小的限度，相当于汉语的“最”、“至”。例如：

①鈴木先生は少なくも七十才はあるだろう。

/ 铃木先生至少有七十岁了吧！

②彼ははやくも来月に歸ると思う。

/ 我想，他最快也得下个月才能回来。

③毎朝、おそくも六時に起きる。

/ 每天早晨最迟六点钟起床。

④この工事はおおくも一週間で終わるだろう。

/ 这项工程至多再有一个星期就能结束吧。

(八)、置于两个同一单词之间，表示首先肯定然后语意一转；或表示程度的夸张。

1. 表示首先肯定前项事物，然后语意一转，更突出后项。这时常用“体言+も+同一体言+だが”的形式，相当于汉语“固然也……但……”的意思。例如：

①飯も飯だが、まず机の上をかたづけなければならない。

/ 固然也想要吃饭，但首先要收拾桌上东西。

②資格も資格だが、実力が第一だ。

/ 资格固然也重要，但最重要的还是实力。

③子供も子供だが、おとながしかるだけではこまる。

/ 小孩固然也有错，但大人只管申斥还是解决不了问题。

2. 表示程度的夸张和语气的加强。例如：

①そんな事を言う彼も彼だ。

/ 他居然说出这样的话来。

②書きも書いたり、全部で千ページになる。

/ 可真写了不少呀，一共有一千页。

③泣きも泣いたり、一時間ぶつとおした。

/ 哭得好伤心，足有一个小时。

④飲みも飲んだり、一晩で二升もあけてしまった。

/ 喝呀喝呀，一个晚上竟喝了二升酒。

(九)表示无条件关系。

这时も的前后使用同一单词的肯定式和否定式,即用“……动词连体形+も+同一动词否定式(用ぬ)+も”的形式,含有“不管……都”的语气。例如:

①行くも行かぬも君の勝手だ。

/ (不管)去不去都随你的便。

②見るも見ぬも同じことだ。

/ (不管)看不看都一样。

③あの患者なら、看護するも看護せぬもたいしたことはない。

/ 那个病人,(不管)护理不护理都问题不大。

(十)表示提出某一事项,并引出对它的进一步说明。

1. 表示轻微的逆说。类似“……と言つても”的用法,相当于汉语“虽说……”的意思。例如:

①東京も西のはずれである。

/ 虽说是在东京,却也是西边的尽头了。

②平安朝も、もう末のころのことだ。

/ 虽说是在平安朝时期,但那已是末期的事了。

2. 表示递进。相当于汉语“并且”的意思。例如:

①東京も神田の生れですからね、ほんとうの江戸つ子ですよ。

/ 生在东京,并且又是生在神田区,所以是个道地的东京人。

②そのダイヤも三カラットはあるという大きなものである。

/ 提起那块宝石嘛,那还是一块足有三克拉重的大宝石。

(十一)表示笼统地提示某个范围内的一个事项,而让人去类推属于该范围内的其它类似事项。这时,も相当于汉语的“也”、“都”。例如:

①健康も昨年のようにすぐれず、起居飲食も以前のようにではなくなつた。

/ 健康状况也不如去年好,起居饮食也不如从前了。

②さいわい豊年にめぐりあえば、やつと新しい着物の一枚も作れるというわけだが、それも、きれは自分で作つたものである。

/ 若有幸碰上个好年成,总算也能做上件新衣,而且这布还得自己去纺织。

二、作接续助词用

(一)关于现代日语中的接续助词も的用法。

も在现代日语中作接续助词使用时,接在形容动词、形容动词型助动词的连用形中的后面,其具体用法主要有以下三种:

1. 表示假定条件的逆态接续。即表示即使在前项条件已经具备的情况下,也不受该条件的约束,仍然会发生后项所述的结果。相当于汉语“即使……也……”、“尽管……也……”的意思。例如:

①たとえ、それが正当でも、今すぐ変更する必要は認められない。

/ 即使那是合理的,现在也没有必要立即改变。

②日中は暖かでも、うっかりすると、風を引く。

/ 即使晌午暖和,一不注意也会感冒。

③雨が降りそうでも、行くことになつている。

/ 即使要下雨,也决定去。

④たとえ生活が裕福でも、贅沢をしてはいけない。

/ 尽管生活富裕,也不能浪费。

2. 表示既定条件的逆态接续。即表示虽然具备某一确定条件,但也发生后项所述情况。相当于汉语的“虽然……但是……”。例如:

①見たところは丈夫なようでも、本当はあまり丈夫ではない。

/ 虽然看上去好象很结实,但实际上并不太结实。

②人前では朗かでも、うちでは気むずかしい男でした。

/ (他)在人前虽然很开朗,但在家里却是个有脾气的人。

③海も今穏やかでも、午後になつたらどうなるかわからない。

/ 海面现在虽然很平静,但到下午不知会怎样。

④取り締まりは嚴重でも、網の目をくぐる者が少なくなかつた。

/ 管制虽然很严,但漏网的还是不少。

⑤常は女のようにも、いざとなれば勇敢な人でした。

/ 虽然平常象个女人似的,但一旦有事却是个勇敢的人。

⑥表向きはあんなにぜいたくでも、實は火の車だそうです。

/ 听说他表面虽然那样奢华,但实际上生活很艰苦。

3. 表示逆态恒常条件。即表示若具备某条件,则经常发生与该条件不顺应的结果。相当于汉语“即使…也…”、“无论…也…”的意思。例如:

①诚意のない者は一時頼もしそうでも、長続きがしない。

/ 没有诚意的人,即使一时好象很可信赖,但也不会长久。

②どんなに丈夫でも、永遠に使えないだろう。

/ 无论怎么结实,也不可能永久地使用。

(二)关于文语中接续助词も的用法

も在文语中作接续助词使用的时候,通常要接在用言的连体形后面,有以下两种用法。

1. 表示逆态接续。相当于汉语的“虽…但…”的意思。例如:

①十時ころに到るも、こがらしは猶止まず。

/ 至十时许,秋风犹未止。

②渴するも盗泉の水を飲まず。

/ 虽渴,但不饮盗泉水。

③内裏へ参らむと思しつるも出で立たれず。

/ 想到皇宫内去晋谒天皇,但又出不去。

2. 表示顺态接续。起单纯连接上下文的作用。例如:

生ては当に復來り歸るべし。死するも当に長く相思ふべし。

/ 生当复来归,死当长相思。

三、作终助词用

在文语中,も还可以作终助词使用。这时,も接在用言的终止形后面,一般用于句末。表示说话人的心情(咏叹、感叹等),也可看做是感叹助词,相当于口语中的“…よ”、“…なあ”等。例如:

①棄つらむ絹綿らはも。

/ 可能是扔的丝棉啊!

②冬ごもり春さり来れば、あしひきの山にも野にも鶯鳴くも。

/ 因到了春天,满山遍野都可以听到黄莺的叫声啊!

③そを読めば、愁ひ知るといふ書焚けるいにしへ人の心よろしも。

/ 古人焚去读则知愁之书，其心诚善。

④病のごと、思郷の心湧く日なり。目にあをぞらの煙かなしも。

/ 思乡之情涌来之日，若似罹病。望青空之烟亦感忧伤！

综上所述，可知も通常作提示助词，接续助词、终助词使用。其中作提示助词使用时用法较多内涵较深。此外与も有关的惯用型也不少，限于篇幅这里不再赘述。以上内容挂漏不当之处恳请同行不吝赐教。

主要参考书目

金田一春彦：学研国語大辞典

新村出：広辞苑

文化庁：外国人のための基本語用例辞典

湯沢幸吉郎：口语法精説

高橋太郎：“も”によるとりたて形の记述的研究

曾我松男：系助词“も”の構造についての一考察

On the Contrastive Analysis in Linguistic Teaching

Liang Weixiang

As early as in the 1930s, some of the American language specialists and linguists began to apply the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. According to Contrastive Analysis, they regarded "structure" with its basic sentence patterns as the starting point of language learning and identified the structure of language and grammar. The language was taught through intensive drilling of its basic sentence patterns until the learner formed the "habit" of using the new language and "forgot" his mother tongue. This practice later developed into the theory of contrastive Analysis.

According to the principles, the practice of intensive drilling, using basic sentence patterns so as to form a habit of language usage, became known as Contrastive Analysis, which was at its height in the 1960s and began to decline in the 1970s. Contrastive Analysis has both a psychological aspect and a linguistic aspect with the former based on learning by experience theory and the intensive drilling technique.

Lado (1957) among the earliest in favour of the theory, According to contrastive Analysis he pointed out that the best teaching materials are those based on a scientific description of the foreign language when compared with the native language and that teachers who study such comparisons will be able to identify learning difficulties more easily and thus be able to teach more effectively. The learner's native language can be compared with the second language he is trying to learn, and from the differences that emerge from this comparison and analysis one can predict the language items that will cause both difficulty and the errors that the learner will tend to make, especially the likely problems of interference. As a result intensive techniques such as repetition and drills can be used to overcome the interference and establish the necessary new habits. The strong form of Contrastive Analysis even states that the prime cause or even the sole cause of difficulty and errors in foreign language learning is interference, coming from the learner's native language, and therefore all second language errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between the target language and the learner's first language. I present the paper to discuss limitations of Contrastive Analysis in error prediction and explanation, and try to get at the root of problems connected with both behavioural and social language study.

1. There is no absolute precise relationship between the differences of the languages and the errors the learner's make.

Within the behaviourist framework of Contrastive Analysis, second language learning consists above all in overcoming the difficulties caused by the differences between the first and second language systems. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult (Lado, 1957). In other words, the greater the difference between the two languages, the more difficult it would be to learn the new language, and the more errors the learners would make. The correctness of this statement is debatable that it has confused the two different areas — linguistics and psychology. Difference derives from the linguistic description

of the language whereas "difficulty" is connected with the psychological and mental process of learning. Therefore, the level of learning difficulty cannot be inferred directly from the degree of linguistic difference between the two languages. The fact that a structure or sound has no equivalent in the learner's mother tongue does not necessarily mean that it will be more difficult to learn because of that. On the contrary, such an item may be easier to learn than one that is only slightly different from a corresponding item in the native language, for it is often very slight differences that produce confusion and interference. It can also be assumed that the clear distinction between two languages is easier to recognize and remember, and that the rules of the learner's native language and target language are so far apart that it prevents him from going back to his native language to find similar rules that he can use.

Similarly, no adequate evidence can prove that there is a positive relation between difficulty and error. A second language learner may make errors when producing simple sentences and, on the other hand, a complicated sentence will put the learner on the alert and, hence, he produces fewer errors. Furthermore, practical research demonstrated that the items predicted to be difficult on the basis of a contrastive analysis did not in fact produce errors, and a sentence which contains several errors may have caused the learner no difficulties at all. This argument can be illustrated by the empirical studies done by Jacquelyn Schachter (1974). She compared the grammatical construction of restrictive, relative clauses in Persian, Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese with that in English. Based on various parameters provided by Contrastive Analysis, she predicted that the English construction would be easier for the native speakers of Persian and Arabic than for those of Chinese and Japanese, because Chinese and Japanese do not contain this construction while Persian and Arabic resemble English in the structure, and therefore fewer errors should be made by the speakers of Persian and Arabic.

According to Schachter, the Persian and Arabic speakers made far more errors because they felt easier using the familiar structure and used it almost as frequently as native English speakers, but they had not learned to use it accurately. For the Chinese and Japanese, however, the totally unfamiliar construction made them use it more carefully and sparingly, and use it only when they were sure about the accuracy. Thus, the central claim of Contrastive Analysis that linguistic differences between first and second languages would lead to errors as a result of learning difficulty should be questioned.

I. Language acquisition is not merely a process of habit-formation

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis regards learning a language as "forming a set of habits"; the old habits (i. e. the native language) are hard to break while the new habits (i. e. the second or foreign language) are hard to acquire. Therefore it is impossible to avoid the interference from the native language of the learner, which, in turn, is the main cause of errors. This behaviourist theory was once used to explain children's acquisition of their mother tongue. Skinner (1957) pointed out that the child imitates the sounds and patterns which he hears around him; people recognize the child's attempts as being similar to the adult models and reinforce the sounds by approval or some other desirable reaction; in order to obtain more of these rewards, the child repeats the sounds and patterns so that these become habits; and in this way the child's verbal behaviour is conditioned (or "shaped") until the habits coincide with the adult model.

Psycholinguistic studies, however, have revealed that children not only imitate adult speech but,

what is more important, create their own language, their own ways of speaking. A complicated mental mechanism is working behind their "verbal behaviour". when children are in the process of acquiring their first language, they have only limited exposure to the input from the people around them. but they are able to produce an indefinite number of new utterances of their own, some of which they have never heard before. If the child only "repeats" the sounds and patterns of the adults, and later he for she is able to speak simply because these sounds and patterns stick in his mind and have become "habits". it could be assumed that the language produced by the child should take exactly the same forms as those of the adults. However, this is not always the case. R. Brown (1965) and his research group studied the speech of two children and their mothers. and based on their detailed record. presented some of the model sentences spoken by the mothers and the imitation produced by the two children. The following are some examples:

Model utterance :	Children's imitation :
Fraser will not be happy.	fraser unhappy.
He's going out.	He go out.
That's an old-fashioned train.	Old time train.*
It's not the same dog as Pepper.	dog Pepper.

A careful observation would reveal that the children's imitation is not exactly the same as the model utterance; their sentences are shorter and some words are frequently missing from the imitation. However, it should be noted that the order of words is preserved. As it is known, the order of words in a sentence is an important grammatical signal, which is used to distinguish subject and object, imperative and interrogative constructions, etc. The fact that the children did not reverse or mix up the original order of the words, according to Brown, indicates that the model sentence is processed by the child as a total construction rather than as a list of words.

Another important fact which can also be observed from the comparisons between the children's imitation and the mothers' utterance is that in most cases words which are missing from the imitation are operational words such as auxiliary verbs, articles, prepositions and conjunctions. On the other hand, the words which are preserved are mostly substantial ones like nouns, verbs and adjectives. How could the children tell the differences of the functions between these two groups of words? One of the explanations given by Brown is that "children are able to make a communicative analysis of adult speech and so adapt in satisfactory way to their limitation of attention span." The study has proved that even when children are imitating the speech of adults, they are not adopting the "take-over" approach, but are actively processing the input and producing new utterances, which enables them to develop their language ability. This means that the child's language is not simply being shaped by external forces; it is being creatively constructed by the child as he interacts with those around him.

Like children, second or foreign language learners also use their mental and psychological mecha-

nism to expand the rules and extract the abstract knowledge from concrete examples of the new language, instead of simply copying or parroting what they have heard or what they have been taught. " From this perspective, it is no longer surprising if Contrastive Analysis is limited in its power to predict errors. If learners are actively constructing a system for the second language, we would not expect all their incorrect notions about it to be a simple result of transferring rules from their first language. We would expect many of their incorrect notions to be explicable by direct reference to the target language itself." (Little—wood, 1986).

III. contrastive Analysis ignores the learners' differences and learning strategies

Language learning involves various psychological factors, and the errors made by the learners like a mirror, reflect different strategies in their acquiring the language. Based on their empirical study, Brook (1973) identified four causes of error, namely: (1) The learner does not know the structural pattern and so makes a random response; (2) The correct model has been insufficiently practised; (3) distortion may be induced by the first language; (4) the learner may follow a general rule which is not applicable in a particular instance. In order to communicate more efficiently or the rules from his mother tongue, overgeneralize the target language rules or drop redundancy by omitting certain elements from sentences. In many cases, however, these processes can not be separated and clearly distinguished from one another. They overlap and work together. By simplifying the language in these ways, the learner is trying to put the difficult elements of language data into certain categories and rules which he has already learned and is able to manage. This is especially obvious when the learner is in an urgent need to express himself but his language competence does not contain the necessary rules. Avoiding unfamiliar structures or usage is another strategy. When the learner is not sure about a certain structure, he is likely to seek the way out by using other structures or use it as little as possible. The result of Schachter's investigation presented in the previous part of this paper is an example: one of the reasons that the Chinese and Japanese students made fewer errors in using relative clauses was their avoidance of the structure.

The learning strategy of different learners is even reflected in transfer errors themselves. Littlewood (1986) quoted Barry Taylor's discovery that transfer errors are more frequent, with beginners than with intermediate students. This is because the beginners have less previous second language knowledge to depend on in making necessary hypotheses about rules, and might therefore be expected to make correspondingly more use of his native language. All this indicates that language learning is influenced by various factors both in psychology and linguistics. Any particular error may be the result of one factor on one occasion and another factor on another occasion. There is no uniformity in this area. In fact, it may well be part of the normal psychological reality of second language learning that all these processes work together and reinforce each other. It cannot be denied that Contrastive Analysis is comparatively more effective in locating some errors of interference, but many errors derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition and the mutual interference of items within the target language, which cannot be accounted for by the theory.

IV. contrastive Analysis ignores the social factors in language acquisition

Contrastive Analysis concerns only the linguistic area of language learning. However, more often than not, much of the communicative failure experienced by the learners of English is rooted in the

lack of social—linguistic competence. Even if all the language errors could be predicted and eradicated, what a learner says or the way he says it may still be inappropriate or even offensive in the target language culture. Different societies have different customs and manners, and the differences will inevitably find their ways into the language because it is a part of the society. A Chinese student may greet an acquaintance on the street. "Where are you going?" Greeting like this is perfectly normal and polite in Chinese society, but to a foreigner the student seems too nosy and impolite. Similarly, the typical Chinese greeting "Have you had meal yet?" between neighbours or friends sounds ridiculous in the western society. When someone knocks on the door, a Chinese student may ask "Who are you?" instead of "Who is it?" In the shop a salesgirl may ask "What do you want?" which sounds rather rude to the foreign customers, but "Can I help you?" is seldom used in Chinese in such a situation.

An Australian lady was very much embarrassed by some private questions when she was travelling in China, and she said after she returned. "In China I was asked at least one hundred times about my age. But in Australia and New Zealand I can hardly remember ever being asked such a question since I grew up."

This paper has discussed various limitations of Contrastive Analysis and analyzed the causes of the theoretical problems on the basis of linguistics, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. The claim by Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis that language differences will definitely lead to difficulties and errors lacks the support of adequate scientific evidence. Both theoretical argument and empirical observation presented in the paper demonstrate that there is no absolute correlation concerning these three factors.

Psychological and linguistic research of children's acquisition of their first language reveals the nature and process of language learning. The behaviourist doctrine stresses the role of transfer from the first language and the interference of the old habit with the acquisition of the new ones.

Contrastive Analysis fails to take into account the learners' differences and their learning strategies, as well as the important effects of cultural and social factors on language learning.

Therefore, Contrastive Analysis, based on language learners. It has overpredicted because it identifies difficulties that in fact do not arise, and it has underpredicted because learners make errors that cannot be explained on the basis of transfer between languages.