

PATTERNS OF ERRORS IN THE SWEDISH OF POLISH LEARNERS: EVIDENCE FROM WRITTEN SWEDISH

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ABSTRACT. The author analyses the most typical errors in the Swedish of Polish learners. The analysis has been restricted to accounting for patterns which can be explained by negative interlingual interference. The errors have been divided into two groups: structural and lexico-semantic and supplied with numerous examples drawn from compositions and written exercises of various types of Polish learners. Errors in patterns of communicative competence are also dealt with. The analysis has been carried out in a traditional way and the emphasis has been put on its practical value.

0. INTRODUCTION

This analysis is premised on the assumption that in the process of mastering a foreign language, the patterns of the mother tongue may interfere in the acquisition of the foreign patterns. A learner nonreflectively seeks equivalents in the native language which results in the carrying over of native habits and proficiency into performance in the target language. Such a "carry over" seems to be the main source of errors, with the largest number of deviant forms occurring in those areas where the structures of the two languages differ the most.

In teaching Swedish to Polish learners one observes recurrent types of error, some of which may be assumed to be attributable to interference from Polish. This pilot analysis, performed in a traditional way, attempts to show the most typical deviations which can be explained by interlingual interference. However, no attempt is made to account for their linguistic and psychological origin in a more precise and systematic manner.

There is a pedagogical justification for this type of study. Although much has been published on errors in foreign language learning, the problem of errors in Swedish made by Polish learners has not yet been dealt with adequately. The present data, although restricted to errors caused by negative interlingual transfer, may form a basis for designing and improving teaching materials and strategies.

1. SOURCES OF ERRORS

Let us now discuss a number of notions pertaining to the problem of error-making mechanisms which have existed in the relevant literature for some time now.

The first to elucidate the workings of bilingual interference was Weinreich who defines interference as "those instances of 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" (Weinreich 1953:1). It may also seem appropriate at this point to introduce the notion of transfer. It refers to the hypothesis that learning of a certain item is either facilitated (positive transfer) or impeded (negative transfer) by the previous knowledge. According to Jakobovits (1970:192), the negative transfer effects are not only a function of structural differences between the mother tongue and the target language, but also of some other factors, linguistic and non-linguistic; thus the errors which result from the operation of transfer effects may either be of linguistic or non-linguistic origin. Those caused by linguistic factors fall into two groups: a) external errors originating from interlingual interference and b) internal errors occurring as a result of intralingual interference. The character of the latter group, however, is developmental and transitional, just like the subsequent linguistic systems that a learner constructs on his way to proficiency in a target language. These systems have been variously referred to as *idiosyncratic dialects* (Corder 1971), *approximative systems* (Nemser 1971) and *interlanguage* (Selinker 1969).

Until the late sixties error theory held that most errors were the result of interference caused by linguistic factors. A major part of linguistic research was devoted to comparing the mother tongue (L₁) and the target language (L₂), and to predicting difficulty based on the differentiation or similarity of the linguistic structures. What was overlooked then were the learner's errors which could not be explained as the result of the persistence of existing speech habits in L₂. Not until the development of psycholinguistics was more attention paid to the significance of nonlinguistic factors in the operation of transfer effects. Efficiency in the acquisition of a foreign language may depend on a number of characteristics of the learner: his motivation, intelligence or aptitude. Another factor which correlates significantly with learning outcomes is the learner's strategy. On the other hand, the teacher's instructional strategy may either facilitate or impede the task of acquiring the new skills. The teacher's failure to equip the learner with adequate organisation of knowledge may result in errors for which the learner is not to blame. Many linguists and psychologists claim that errors are necessary in a gradual acquisition of a foreign language and an inevitable consequence of it. Pit Corder (1967) regards the making of errors as a strategy the learner employs in the process of learning. Errors are no more than a way of testing the learner's hypotheses about the nature of the new language and reveal his present knowledge of it, that is his transitional competence (cf. Corder, op. cit.:166-167).

The operation of transfer effects results in errors in all subsystems of a language: phonological, grammatical and lexical. There is, however, more to the knowledge of a language than a pure set of restrictive rules. Language is a type of behaviour. The cultural and social setting make special demands on us involving not only the

possession of a code, i.e. a pattern of linguistic behaviour, but also knowing how to use it. Failure in choosing the appropriate code would bring about still another type of errors: errors of communicative competence.

2. THE ANALYSIS OF ERRORS

The present paper presents a pilot analysis of errors accountable for by interference between Polish and Swedish. One reservation, however, must be made at this point. Errors ascribed to interlingual interference may at times originate from a different factor or a complex of factors. In some cases both internal and external interference may overlap. It may also be a matter of some importance to know whether the learner is a speaker of any other foreign language. If he is, the possibility of interlingual interference from a language other than the primary one increases and its influence cannot be excluded from the analysed data. In the present analysis no such factors have been taken into account.

The examples of errors have been drawn from compositions and written exercises of various types of Polish learners at different stages of proficiency in Swedish. This implies that the selection of data excludes the evidence of phonological errors. Since the aim is to show the most recurrent deviations, the examination will be selective rather than exhaustive. Also, no effort will be made to categorize errors in terms of levels of acceptability.

The errors have been divided into two main groups: structural and lexico-semantic followed by a few examples of errors accountable for by glottopragmatic interference, i.e. errors in patterns of communicative competence. In the analysis, the learner's structures will be preceded by *, and the correct Swedish forms will be given in parentheses. They will then, if necessary, be contrasted with a corresponding Polish form to show how it influenced the choice of a Swedish element.

2.1. STRUCTURAL ERRORS

Structural errors constitute a large group which clearly exceeds lexico-semantic ones both quantitatively and qualitatively. They will therefore be divided into two subcategories according to whether they violate morphological rules or the rules of syntactic relations between elements. Errors will then be classified according to the various features they exhibit. It must be noted, however, that because of the difficulty in establishing the right criteria, ascribing an error to a particular category may at times prove a hard task. We shall note down all the cases where errors overlap. In a number of examples the same error will be treated twice.

2.1.1. *Morphological errors.*

2.1.1.1. Errors of word formation.

Both Swedish and Polish make use of prefixation and suffixation when forming new lexical items. Thus Polish learners have no problem other than that of identification and specification. Unlike Polish, however, Swedish is more economical in

terms of means of expression, its tendency being to convey more content with less form. The language shows an ever-increasing freedom in producing compounds, be it nominal, adjectival or verbal.

Polish, on the other hand, as a highly inflected language utilises juxtaposition and various syntactic structures. The attributive adjective modifying the head noun in Polish juxtaposed compounds may often be of derivational type, e.g. from a noun. The attempt to adjust Swedish to the mother tongue system can result in the following erroneous structures, all of which need a compound formation in Swedish:

- * Vi bor i ett *studenskt rum*. (*studentrum*).
Mieszkamy w *pokoju studenckim*.
- * Har den här radion *långa vågor*? (*långvågor*)
Czy to radio ma *fale długie*?
- * ...och alla satt på *läramas rum*. (*lärarrummet*)
... i wszyscy siedzieli w *pokoju nauczycielskim*.
- * Jag har *en skada av hörsel*. (*är hörselskadad*).
Mam *uszkodzony słuch*.
- * Att jag skall ha barn nu, jag måste köpa *barniga kläder*. (*barnkläder*).
..., muszę kupić *rzeczy dziecięce*.
- * Tre männen flog över Atlanten i en *luftig ballong* (*luftballong*)
Trzej mężczyźni przelecieli Atlantyk *balonem powietrznym*.

Apart from being erroneous, the result is at times amusing. While the derived adjective "barnig" does not exist in Swedish, "luftig" is a fully acceptable derivational adjective which means "airy and light". Thus the expressed meaning is somewhat different from that intended.

2.1.1.2. Errors in the inflectional system.

There is a diversity of opinion as to what should be included under this head. If we assume that the inflectional categories represent regular and systematic sets of oppositions, their role being to cumulate grammatical functions, then the categories to be treated here will be: nominal, such as definiteness, gender, person and case, and verbal including tense, aspect and mood.

a) n o m i n a l c a t e g o r i e s

Polish nouns inflect for number, case and gender, which to some extent is correlative in Swedish. What Polish lacks in this respect is a separate grammatical category of definiteness and indefiniteness, rendered in Swedish as 'species', which comprises articles, definite and indefinite forms of nouns and modifying adjectives respectively. As Szwedek has pointed out in his numerous articles, Polish has at its command different means to express definiteness, with indefinite and demonstrative pronouns as the most likely candidates for discharging the function of articles (cf. Szwedek 1974 and 1975). The erroneous examples given below constitute a highly

representative group of errors resulting from the overuse of corresponding pronouns in Swedish by Polish learners.

- * Jag var på väg till en bio men visste inte var var *denna bio*. Jag frågade *någon pojke* som visade mig *denna bio*. Sedan tittade jag där på en film i en timme men jag tyckte inte om *den filmen*.
(.....var *bion* var. ...frågade *en pojke* ...mig *bion*. om *filmen*.)
..... gdzie było *to kino*. Zapytałem *jakiegoś chłopca*.... pokazał mi *to kino*. ...nie podobał mi się *ten film*.
- * Jag känner *någon flicka* i huset var jag bor. *Denna flickan* är mycket vackert.
(..... en flicka.....Flickan.....)
Znam *jedną dziewczynę**Ta dziewczyna*.....
- *jag träffade en dam. *Den här damen* var mycket gammal.
(..... Damen/Hon)
.....spotkałam *jedną panią*. *Ta pani*

Another common error is the omission of articles where, by Polish standards, the distinction definite/indefinite is not regarded as significant.

- * Vi gifte oss i *kyrka*. (*en kyrka/kyrkan*)
- * *De* var mycket *vanliga*, *bjöd* på *cigarett* ... och frågade om *fru*. (...*en cigarett/cigaretter*... om *frun/min fru*)
- * *Han* *bets* av *hund* när han gick till affären (*en hund/hunden*)
- * Har du en hund eller en katt? – *Hund*, ja, men inte *katt*. (*En hund* har jag, men *ingen katt*)

Omission, together with the wrong choice of nouns forms, is an area where errors abound. However, they may result more from the complexity of the problem in Swedish than from interlingual interference.

The system of designating gender in nouns differs in both languages to an extent which precludes interference with the possible exception of the initial stage of learning. In Polish all nouns, animate or inanimate, can be referred to as 'he', 'she' or 'it', according to the grammatical gender. The noun 'książka' = 'book' is feminine and, consequently, referred to as 'she'. Hence the error in Swedish:

- * Har du en bok? – Ja, det har jag. *Hon* är tjock. (*Den*...)

The use of pronouns is an area of recurrent errors. In Polish the reflexive 'się' = 'self' may refer to all three persons in both numbers. The Swedish corresponding 'sig' is limited to the third person singular and plural only, with alternative particles to go with other persons. In the following erroneous structures Polish learners have extended the use of Swedish 'sig' to all persons. It may also be pertinent to add that this type of error is prone at all levels of proficiency, even with learners who have gained an ample command of the language.

- * ..., på morgonen jag tvättar *sig*, målar *sig* och kammar *sig* och sedan äter en frukost (...*mig*..*mig*..*mig*..)
- * Du tror väl inte att vi ska förklara *sig*. (...*oss*..)

A similar case is that of the reflexive possessive pronoun 'swój' in Polish. It translates as a possessive pronoun in English and refers to any person appearing in subject position. In the third person singular and plural the pronoun cannot be replaced by 'his', 'her', or 'their', unless reference is to a person other than that of the subject of the sentence. Thus:

On idzie ze swoją żoną → He is going with *his* wife (his own)

On idzie z *jego* żoną → He is going with *his* wife (somebody else's)

This use corresponds to a similar dichotomy in Swedish: *sin, sitt, sina* vs. *hans, hennes, deras*. The problem arises when it comes to the grammatical persons other than the third. Unlike Swedish, which confines the reflexive possessive to the third persons only, Polish may use its pronouns interchangeably with the possessive pronouns even for the first and second persons, something that brings about faulty phrases as below:

* Jag har alltid *sina* böcker på en bokhylla (...*mina*...)

* Jag kunde inte känna igen *sin* röst på båndet (...*min*...)

* Jag ville att du visade mig *sina* samlingar (...*dina*...)

All interrogative pronouns in Polish may also serve as relative pronouns. There is no equivalent to the Swedish generally relating 'som' = 'that', and it is inconceivable for a Pole to have a preposition in final position. He is used to having the preposition preceding the appropriate case form of the interrogative/relative pronoun. In looking for a structure equivalent to that in the mother tongue, Polish learners replace the Swedish relative 'som' with the interrogative 'vilken' to correspond to the Polish relative 'który'. The structure thus derived is not in fact deviant in Swedish, but may, however, be regarded as clumsy and unnatural.

* Flickan *om vilken jag berättade* kan inte komma (*som jag berättade om*...)

* Han påminde mig om en skiva *om vilken jag glömde*... (*som jag hade glömt*...)

Polish has no equivalent for the Swedish indefinite 'man' = 'one', but the language possesses other means to express the relation. This should rather constitute the subject for lexical comparison except for one aspect. The genitive of 'man' – 'ens' = 'one's' in the sentences of Polish learners is subjected to replacement by a literal translation from Polish 'någons' = 'somebody's'.

* Man får inte skratta åt *någons* störning (...*ens*...)

* ...att man inte kan lita på *någons* löfte. (...*ens*...)

b) V e r b a l c a t e g o r i e s

A very important feature of Polish verbs is the existence of the opposite aspectual categories. A verb, in addition to its basic meaning, may contain the additional meaning of having a definite effect, reaching a definite limit or processing a definite amount of something. The multiplicity of verb forms in Polish counterbalances the limitations in the system of tenses. The present and the past are purely simple tenses, with only the future being a twofold type. In order to express complex temporal relations, Polish may also employ delimiting adverbs of time. Swedish, on the other

hand, is characterized by a great diversity of tenses, especially those to denote temporal relations in the past and the future, and by the lack of verbal aspect in the "Polish" sense. Errors in tense selection can be accounted for by the lack of a more extensive system of tenses in Polish. The structure arrived at are usually exact translations of Polish temporal expressions which are adequate to the situation.

- * När jag kom hem från scoutläger min hund var inte hemma. *Han dog.* (*Han hade dött*)
- * Vi bor här sedan 1965. (*...har bott...*)
- * Hur länge kör du bil? (*...har du kört...*)
- * Idag när jag kommer hem från svenska kursen *ska han redan måla* om ett rum. (*...ska han redan ha målat ett rum*)
- * Sedan gick vi hemma och mamma *har lagat* mat. Vi *har ätit* och *tittat* på TV. (*...lagade/hade lagat...ät...tittade...*)

Further, the infinitive in Polish ignores temporal relations – it can only occur in a present tense form. Consequently, Swedish 'det måste vara' = 'it must be' is considered correct by Polish learners both with regard to the present and to the past tense:

- * Det *måste* vara mycket svårt för henne när han lämnade henne. (*Det måste ha varit...*)
- * ...och alla tre frös ihjäl i grottan. Det *måste* vara mycket kallt så där högst uppe i Tatrabergen. (*...Det måste ha varit...*)

Indirect speech differs considerably in both languages. In Swedish, the choices of a particular tense in the main clause conditions its use in the subordinate clause. There is no such dependence in Polish – a tense of the main clause does not in any way influence that of the subordinate, which retains the tense of the direct speech. This rule applies also to reported questions and word order is of no consequence.

- * Doktor frågade hur jag *mår* och jag sa att jag *mår* bra. Doktor sa att jag *ska stanna* hemma men *behöver* inte ligga i sängen. (*...hur jag mådde...att jag mådde...att jag skulle stanna* hemma men att jag inte *behövde*...)
- * Han frågade om jag *ska* gå på bio med honom igår på kvällen (*...om jag skulle gå...*)
- * Han svarade till mig att han *vet* inte. (*...att han inte visste.*)

In Polish both time clauses and conditional clause I follow the pattern (when/if + future) + future, while in Swedish the pattern is (when/if + present) + future or present with future meaning. This is illustrated by the following sentence:

- * *Det ska säkert vara* en trevlig kväll när alla *ska träffas* för att äta julmiddag. (*Det blir säkert ... när alla träffas...*)

The conditional form of a Polish verb may be obtained by adding the conditional particle 'by' to the past tense form or by adding it to a conditional conjunction. This form occurs in both clauses and corresponds to the Swedish conditional 'skulle' = 'should/would'. However, only conditional II can be rendered with this structure.

The rendering of type III involves the additional use of time adverbs with delimiting function. The pattern of Polish influences the choice of forms in Swedish, particularly because the corresponding Swedish pattern is far more complex.

- * *Skulle jag ha tid så skulle jag gå till festen i fredags.*
(*Hade jag haft tid... skulle jag ha gått...*)
- * *Om jag skulle veta om hans sjukdom skulle jag gå till honom och laga mat* (Om jag hade vetat... skulle jag ha gått och lagat mat åt honom)

The passive voice also poses difficulty to Polish learners. Passive forms in Polish are most often expressed with 'być' = 'be' or 'zostać' = 'get, become' plus the passive participle of a perfective verb, which has its equivalent in Swedish. Sometimes the presence of the reflexive particle 'się' = 'self' with a verb may add a passive meaning to a Polish verbal phrase. In Swedish, on the other hand, the alternative passive construction is by adding the 's' ending to an active verb. The tendency with Polish learners is to substitute the 's' ending with a reflexive 'sig'. Here the examples:

- * *Här pratar sig bara polska. (...pratas...)*
- * *... men dörren plötsligt öppnade sig. (...öppnades...)*

2.1.2. Syntactic errors.

This group of errors includes deviations from the correct syntactic relations between the main elements, some of which have already been treated above in the section on tense. Our discussion will be restricted then to omissions, additions and word order.

a) o m i s s i o n o f a n e l e m e n t

Polish uses grammatical endings to modify a verb which is thus inflected for 3 persons and 2 numbers and that in practice implies that the exposition of a grammatical subject is in most cases redundant. This conditions the omission of a subject in Swedish in which in fact it is obligatory, whether factual or formal.

- * *Du kan komma när dig passar och simma hur länge du vill. (...när det passar dig...)*
- * *Nära stugar rinner en liten flod var vi simmar ofta när är varmt. (när det är varmt.)*
- * *Mig förefaller sig som om han aldrig varit en lärare. (Det förefaller mig...)*
- * *Det var lätt att säga honom men var inte lätt att göra. (... det var inte lätt att göra)*

With a succession of events in Polish, a personal pronoun may be put in front of the first verb, but is not to be repeated later on. This is a logical assumption for a Polish learner for whom the subject is given (obvious) as soon as it has been stated at the beginning of a sentence. Here is the evidence from Swedish:

- * *...på morgonen jag tvättar sig, målar sig och kammar sig och sedan äter en frukost. (...äter jag en frukost.)*

* Jag föddes 1959, när var 7 år gick i grundskolan, sedan i gymnasium (...när jag var.... gick jag...)

* Den här grönsaken är okänd i Polen och svårt att introducera. (...och den är svår...)

In the latter example even the copula has been omitted producing something that would sound quite natural if rendered in Polish.

Another word class often to be omitted is the preposition. A majority of Polish constructions in the genitive and dative do not require a preposition, since the language expresses these grammatical relations by case alone. Some of these constructions have their equivalents in non-prepositional phrases in Swedish. In other cases, the preposition in Swedish is necessary, but the influence of Polish produced the following omissions:

* ... och det var bara andra dagen resan. (...andra dagen på/av resan.)

... i to był dopiero drugi dzień podróży

* Några mina vänner och jag ska besöka Berlin. (Några av mina vänner...)

Kilku moich kolegów...

* Vi ska på åka på semester i slutet mars. (...i slutet av/på mars).

.....w końcu marca.

* Det var lätt att säga honom men var inte lätt att göra. (Det var lätt för honom att säga men det var inte lätt...)

Łatwo było mu mówić....

These errors can also fall into the category of collocational transfer and will be commented on therein.

The final position of prepositions in Swedish interrogatives is somewhat incomprehensible for a Polish learner who in his mother tongue is used to having the preposition precede the question word, or to have the question word in a particular case without a preposition. He therefore tends to omit the preposition in the final position, especially when it is considered to be of little informational value.

* ...men hela filmen var ingenting att skratta (...skratta åt)

* Och du bara tänker och tänker. Vad tänker du? (...tänker ...på?)

* Vad pratar du? (...pratar...om?)

b) addition of an element

The negation system in Polish is characterized by a double negation rule. The so-called negative polarity items, such as 'nigdy' = 'never', 'nic' = 'nothing' etc., require that the verb be negated. This conditions the choice of a double negation even in Swedish where no such rule is to be observed.

* Jag har inte trivts så bra i inget land som här. (...något annat...)

Nie czułem się tak dobrze w żadnym kraju jak tu.

* ...att jag kände inte varken honom eller hans familj. (...varken kände ... eller...)

... ..nie znałem ani jego, ani jego rodziny.

Further, the verbs of fearing in Polish are usually followed by a negated verb. In this case a redundant negation aims at adding a modal meaning of uncertainty and supposition. The erroneous structures in Swedish are usually like the one below:

- * Jag är rädd om han inte har gått. (...att han har gått.)
Obawiam się, czy nie poszedł.

c) errors of word order

Polish, with its relatively free word order, is ruled by a principle of informative value. The information of highest value is placed in final position, regardless of whether it is conveyed through subject or predicate. Word order in Polish may also be used to perceive and determine definiteness and indefiniteness as well as to diversify the stylistic value of a sentence. These characteristics are not in the least shared by Swedish, which is a rigid, position-bound language with word order playing an indispensable role in expressing pure grammatical differences.

The following is a selection of the numerous examples of violation of Swedish word order:

- * När jag kom hem från scoutläger min hund var inte hemma. (...var min hund...)
- * ...men plötsligt dörren öppnade sig. (...öppnades dörren)
- * I nationalparken man får inte bryta grenar av trädet. (...får man...)
- * Om jag sjunger en visa åt min son, han somnar. (... somnar han)
- * Att jag skall ha barn nu, jag måste köpa barniga kläder. (...måste jag...)
- * Han svarade till mig att han vet inte. (...han inte visste)
- * Jag var på väg till en bio men jag visste inte var var denna bio. (...var bion var.)

2.2. LEXICO-SEMANTIC ERRORS

Our culture conditions us to perceive the world in certain predetermined ways. The semantics of a particular item may differ not only in regard to its range, but also to its value. Moreover, while neutral by itself, a lexical item may take on all sorts of more complex shades of meaning once it has been put in a pattern. The errors in lexis can therefore be ascribed to the wrong selection of a lexical item in a certain pattern of a target language. These errors will be analyzed under two main headings: lexical misselection and collocational transfer.

2.2.1. Lexical misselection.

The category of nouns is especially prone to interference, errors stem from the lack of one-to-one correspondence. The following are typical examples. The semantic range of the names for parts of body differs in both languages: both 'reka' and 'noga' can in Polish generally denote the entire limb, while in Swedish the word refer only to part of it. Moreover, both items occur in different pattern of expression. For instance, in Polish one has a baby 'na ręku' → lit. 'on one's hand', in Swedish it is 'i armen' ('in the arm'). Similarly, after a long walk 'bola nogi' → lit. 'legs hurt', but in Swedish one 'har ont i fötter' ('has pain in feet').

- * Jag trampade på en glasbit och *glasbiten satte sig i mitt ben*. (...och fick den i foten.)
- * Hon *hade sitt barn på* händerna som skrek. (Hon *hade ett skrikande barn i armen*.)

Usage of some verbs in Swedish also creates certain difficulties. This is particularly true of auxiliary verbs which lack direct equivalents in Polish. They are often neglected and the outcome is the wrong selection of a verb. With other verbs there may be a difference in the range. For instance, in Swedish 'kunna' = 'can' denotes knowledge of a language, while Polish uses 'znać' = 'know'.

- * Kommer du inte på tid så *ska jag vara* mycket arg. (...*blir jag*...)
- * Jag *vet* engelska ganska bra. (...*kan*...)
- * Vi *ska se* när kan komma. (...*får se*...)

Furthermore, Polish does not observe the distinction 'litet – få' = 'little – few', 'bra – väl – rätt' = 'good – well – right', nor does it differentiate between adverbs indicating locality and movement.

- * På möte vare *lite* människor. (...*få*...)
- * Jag *vet* engelska ganska *bra*. (...*väl*)
- * Om jag minns *bra*. (...*rätt*)
- * Kom *här* så ska jag berätta. (...*hit*...)
- * Jag går *där* varje dag. (...*dit*...)
- * Sedan gick vi *hemma*... (...*hem*...)

The Swedish demonstrative adverbs have an entirely different syntactic function. Since they occur in position where Polish employs interrogative/relative pronouns, learners will tend to carry over the Polish rule onto Swedish.

- * Om sommaren brukar vi åka på landet *var har* vi en stuga. (...*där vi har*...)
- * Jag tillbringade en termin i skolan *var jag* lärde mig mycket. (...*där*...)

2.2.2. Collocational transfer.

This type of error is easy to recognize. In most cases the learner makes a complete translation of phrases as idiomatic expressions, unconscious of the fact that the equivalent may also be characteristic of its language. Among errors of this kind, there is a fairly large group of prepositional phrases governed by different prepositions in the two languages. Here are some examples for this interference:

- * ...och alla satt och skrev *i tystnad*. (...*under tystnad*)
... i wszyscy siedzieli i pisali *w ciszy*.
- * Jag sa att jag ska fortsätta att arbeta *under villkor* att jag får mera pengar.
(...*på villkor*...)
...będe pracowała *pod warunkiem*, że...
- * Vi kunde inte prata med henne. Hon var *i dålig* humor. (...*på dåligt* humor)
...była *w złym humorze*

Another group is non-prepositional phrases in Polish which condition the omission of a preposition in the equivalent Swedish structure. The errors have been listed under syntactic errors (p. 9).

Exact translations of Polish verb phrases belong to the same category of error:

* *Mig förfaller sig som... (Det förfaller mig som...)*

Mnie wydaje się, że...

* *Han är liten, han har bara 5 år. (... , han är bara 5 år)*

On jest mały, ma tylko 5 lat.

* *Hur lång tid går brevet från Polen (...tar det för ett brev att komma från Polen?)*

Jak długo idzie list z Polski?

* *Viken tid åker tåget? (...går...)*

O której jedzie pociąg?

* *Nära stugan rinner en liten flod... (...går... ...)*

Nieopodal domku płynie rzeczka.

Noun phrases may also undergo a similar transfer. Here is just one example of a general tendency:

Man får inte skratta åt någons fysisk störning (...handikapp)

Nie wolno śmiać się z czyjejs fizycznej ułomności.

2.3. ERRORS OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

It is now generally recognised that knowledge of a language entails knowledge of forms (the code) and rules of use. This cumulative knowledge has been termed communicative competence. Patterns of language behaviour seldom resemble each other in two different languages. This is also the area most likely to be subject to interlingual interference.

The Polish way of answering *yes/no* questions differs considerably from that of the Swedish. In Polish the verb of the question is usually repeated in the answer with no possibility of its being replaced by an auxiliary. The use of *yes/no* answers before the verb is optional. Ellipsis is still another method to be found in colloquial speech. Thus the question: *Czy lubisz muzykę klasyczną?* – ‘Do you like classical music?’ may be answered:

<i>Tak, lubię</i>	or	<i>Lubię</i>	or	<i>(Muzykę)klasyczną? – tak</i>
<i>Yes, I like</i>		<i>I like</i>		<i>Classical(music)? – yes</i>

The following erroneous examples illustrate the problem in question:

* *Arbetar du där? – Ja, jag arbetar där (Ja, det gör jag)*

* *Har du en hund eller en katt – Hund, ja, men inte katt. (En hund har jag men ingen katt)*

* *Tycker hon inte om det? – Nej, tycker inte. (Nej, det gör hon inte)*

Responding to negative questions and statements in Polish has no equivalence in Swedish. If the negative condition is to be confirmed, Polish does not feel the need to have an initial 'no', the negation being already included in the question. Thus, to receive a confirmative answer an initial 'yes' is required, no matter whether the question was in the negative or in the positive. For instance,

Czy nie będzie ciebie w domu dziś wieczorem?
Will you not be at home tonight?

is confirmed by:

Tak, nie będę
Yes, I will not

However, if the negative question is to be negated, the answer is preceded by 'no' followed by the opposition of the verb.

Czy nie będzie ciebie w domu dziś wieczorem? – Nie, będę.
No, I will

The examples taken from learners' works are as follows:

- * *Träffades ni aldrig förut? – Nej, vi träffades förut (Jo, det gjorde vi)*
- * *Man kan inte göra så... – Ja, ja, man kan inte. (Nej, det kan man inte)*
- * *Var du inte hemma då? – Ja, jag var inte hemma. (Nej, det var jag inte)*

Further, there is a difference in use in the area of evaluations. To make an evaluating statement, Polish requires the present tense, describing things as they are. Swedish, on the other hand, utilizes the past tense to express the same assessment, although the underlying meaning is in the present. Thus, appreciation of a good meal, expressed in the course of enjoying it, would in Swedish be: *Det var gott* = It was good. The habit of using the past tense to evaluate something which is still in progress seems illogical to Polish learners. As a result numerous errors appear both in speech and writing.

- * *Det är roligt att se dig igen. (Det var roligt...)*
- * *Tänk att du kommer ihåg. Det är fint. (Det var fint.)*

3. CONCLUSION

By way of conclusion, it is hoped that even though this analysis may have not succeeded in dispelling all the doubts surrounding the nature of interlingual interference, it has at least helped to clarify the origin of errors in the process of learning Swedish by speakers of Polish.

We also believe that despite the present preoccupation of researchers with interlanguage, natural order of acquisition and other fashionable concepts, there is still room for error analyses of the traditional sort. They can no longer be ascribed

the predictive value in the sense of the strong contrastive linguistics hypothesis, yet they may turn out to be a tremendous practical aid in solving day to day classroom problems.

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