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Mrs KARIMA ISSELNANE

Title

Analysis of Interlanguage in Algerian Brevet Papers in English: A Case Study of Learners in Tizi-Ouzou

Board of Examiners

Pr. HOCINE Nacera,	Professor, University of Annaba.	Chairwoman.
Pr. RICHE Bouteldja,	Professor, University of Tizi-Ouzou.	Supervisor.
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List of Symbols

Berber	Arabic	I.P.A		Berber	Arabic	I.P.A
Consonants :						
b	ب	/ b /		s	س	/ S /
c	ش					
č		/ t /		s	ص	/ S /
d	ذ / د	/ d /		t	ت	/ t /
d	ظ / ض	/ d /		t	ط	/ t /
f	ف	/ f /		ṭ		/ ts /
g		/ g /		w	و	/ w/
g		/ gʷ /		x	خ	/ x /
ğ	ج	/ dz /		x		/ xʷ /
h		/ h /		y	ي	/ j /
h	ح	/ h /		z	ز	/ z /
j		/ z /		z		/ Z /
k	ك	/ k /		ε	ع	
k		/ kʷ /		**vowels** :		
l	ل	/ l /		a		
m	م	/ m/		i		
n	ن	/ n /		u		
y	غ	/ R/		e		
y		/ Rʷ /		ā		
q	ق	/ q /		ī		
q		/ qʷ /		u		
r	ر	/ r /		ē		
r	ر	/ r /				

THE BERBER ALPHABET: CORRESPONDANCE WITH THE ARABIC
ALPBABET AND THE INTERNATIONAL
PHONETIC ALPHABET (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 21)

In my dissertation, I have adopted basically the list of symbols for the Kabyle alphabet found in Kamel Nait-Zerrad's book (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 21). I have also used from the same book the International Phonetic Alphabet to represent the Arabic transcription. Moreover, some specific phonemes are absent from it, so we have added them in the following notes.

To transcribe the Arabic corpus all the sentences are written between slashes / / followed by a word to word translation and then the equivalent translation in English between brackets ( ).

Notes about the Kabyle language

- Kabyle exploits the opposition of emphatic versus non-emphatic consonants elsewhere in its consonantal system. A consonant with a dot under it denotes an emphatic consonant. A consonant without a dot under it denotes a non-emphatic consonant. Eg : Izem = a lion. Izem = to spin dry.

- A consonant used with a zero on it denotes an aspirated consonant.

    Eg :Ikeri = Sheep.

- The consonants d- t- b- g -d are aspirated and short when they are stressed they become occlusive. Eg : Ixdem (He worked) – Ixddem (He works).

- The symbol letter for aspirated and occlusive consonants is the same.

- The consonant ɛ which is pharyngeal and the consonant h which is glottal are borrowed from the Arabic language. Eg : aɛəqqa = a seed.

    hnucced = to glide.

- d (د , ذ) and d (ض , ظ) are not distinctive in the above table. Thus, we add /D/ (ض) and / ð / (ذ). Eg: / aDu / = the wind. / ðagi/ = here.

- Long vowels are represented with a line on them Eg: a. u. i.

<u>Notes about the Arabic language</u>

- K and q are two distinctive consonants in Arabic and Kabyle. They represent the two following sounds / K/ and /q/ respectively.

  / K / is voiceless, velar, and plosive

  / q / is voiceless, uvular, and plosive. Eg: /Kalb/ = dog. /qalb/ = heart.

- / Ө / (ث) is not represented in the above table. Thus, we add it as note.

  / Ө / is voiceless, dental, and fricative. Eg: /Өimaar/ = fruit.

DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my husband,

My two children, my dear parents,

My brothers and sisters,

And my family-in- aw.

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I would like to express my thanks to the many people who have helped me along this long road. I am intellectually indebted to my teacher and supervisor Professor Riche Bouteldja, for taking time to talk to me, for his patience and critical eye. I greatly appreciate his understanding, constant help, and support. He has always believed in me and he has been guiding my academic career for many years.

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Abstract

This research is meant as a step in trying to understand how Algerian EFL learners construct interlanguage, which can be defined as a linguistic bridge between the learners' first language and the language they are learning. It aims at determining the types of errors that are most recurrent, and their origins. Moreover, the purpose of the study is to classify and then analyse the types of writing errors that Algerian middle school pupils still make after the implementation of the third school reform undertaken in 2003. This work strives to contribute to understanding the sources of errors that are involved in the mental processes of EFL learners with Kabyle or Arabic L1s. 200 middle school pupils have participated in this study. After four years of English learning in the middle school, their level is supposed to be pre-intermediate. To conduct our research, we have sought our data from interviews written by Algerian middle school pupils during the first Brevet Exam held in 2007. The 655 total errors analysed in this study are divided into two main categories: interlingual errors and intralingual errors. Interlingual errors include spelling, auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, lexical and semantic errors, prepositions, and adjectives. Intralingual errors include wrong verb form, nouns, state verb concord, and subject-verb agreement. It is assumed that the causes of these errors are the result of the following: Interference from Kabyle or Arabic, interference from French, overgeneralisation, simplification, wrong hypothesis making, pupils' inadequate knowledge regarding certain structures, the complexity of the English language, insufficient practice of grammatical rules, and the overwhelming pressure of the exam. The findings of this study indicate that first language interference still plays an important role in the learning process, since a major proportion of the errors are due to mother tongue interference. Furthermore, it reveals that the most important errors still made are those related to spelling, use of different auxiliaries and modal verbs, and wrong verb form. Suggestions are provided as to how to eliminate these errors in the second chapter.

General Introduction

The analysis of learners' errors has received significant attention and is considered the major concern in Second/Foreign Language acquisition research. This analysis is an important factor that contributes to the description and explanation of Foreign Language learning. During the last five decades, three distinct hypotheses have emerged, 'Contrastive Analysis', 'Error Analysis' and 'Interlanguage'. These hypotheses have been used by applied linguists in order to explore the causes of errors, the approach to error correction and to design instructional materials and strategies. Robert Lado in <u>Linguistics Across Cultures</u> (1957) developed the method of Contrastive Analysis. He states that the learner's first language would cause a problem in Foreign Language learning (FL learning). He argues that habits formed in the first language would 'interfere' with the target language habits. In addition to this, if Foreign Language learners were uncertain about aspects of grammar, such as structure and words, they would apply the rules of structure and words in the first language to that of the target language, which would result in errors. Lado's ideas support the Skinnerian behavioural theory of language.

In the same year (1957) Noam Chomsky expressed his views concerning Second Language learning in his book <u>Syntactic Structures</u>. Thus, the Error Analysis hypothesis can be attributed to the Chomskyan transformational-generative theory. Nevertheless, It was Pit Corder the initiator of Error Analysis. His article *'The Significance of Learner Error'* (1967) paved the way to Error Analysis in linguistic studies. He explains that analysing errors made by language learners would help language teachers to determine areas that need reinforcement in teaching.

In the 1980s and 1990s Linguists were very interested in errors coming from sources other than those mentioned above, such as acquisition order or developmental

sequence. Relying on both approaches, this research will be an analysis of errors made by Algerian middle school pupils in their English written productions which were taken from the first national BEM exam (2007). It will allow us to understand how these learners create interlanguage, the types of significant errors associated to it and the origin of such errors. Andrew Ellis (1997) refers to interlanguage as 'a transitional system'. Interlanguage plays a critical role in Second/ Foreign Language acquisition because it is a linguistic bridge between the mother tongue and the target language and can be used to analyse the sources of errors.

Theoretical Background

Language teachers were eager to adopt the technique of Contrastive Analysis that was elaborated by Lado when they realised that a great majority of errors made by Second Language learners were derived from their own native language. Throughout the mid 1960s, Contrastive Analysis proved to be somewhat controversial, as teachers were left confused regarding how to practically teach a language when this method of analysis predicted countless potential errors. Moreover, instructors had the conviction that the errors committed by Foreign Language learners were not the result of the structure of their mother tongue only, thus rendering target language and mother language somehow incomparable.

Other problems concerning Contrastive Analysis began to arise. One of these problems was the fact that Contrastive Analysis predicted certain definite obstacles that a learner would meet while learning certain structures which later proved to be incorrect. Additionally, Chomsky (1966) disapproved the behavioural psychology aspect of this method, along with the notion of transfer theory, which is indeed of fundamental importance in Contrastive Analysis. Furthermore, Chomsky did not believe that transfer theory and behavioural psychology had a significant role in providing an explanation for the learner's creative input in language learning, not to

mention the creative and progressive acquisition of language learning. Meanwhile, another theory came to the front and rapidly became famous with psychologists and psycholinguistics. It was the cognitive theory, which claimed that language acquisition was not related to the formation of habits, but rather to the internalisation of rules.

The notion that Foreign Language learning is not just a habit formation but rather an aspect of cognitive psychology that takes into consideration creativity in combination with rules was first developed by Chomsky (1966). Throughout the decades of the 1980s and 1990s, scientists thoroughly analysed the origin of errors that were generated from numerous sources. They used Error Analysis, a method, which came forth as a means to provide a more profound explanation as to why such errors were committed. However, after the completion of some studies on this matter, clear evidence was established that validated the presence of two different types of errors: interlingual, and intralingual. Accordingly, the rationale behind conducting the present study is that there have been no studies undertaken to tackle the analysis of these different error types in the BEM English papers written by Algerian pupils.

Purpose of the Study

All Foreign Language learners use interlanguage as a means to reach native speaker language proficiency. One of the ways to help these learners to achieve their goal is to gain more insight about the error-making process. Errors are an inevitable part of interlanguage during the acquisition phase. Therefore, the analysis of sources of errors will help in discovering their origin and finding an appropriate treatment. Some errors seem to originate from negative transfer and some come from intralingual source, as we shall see later.

In this work, it is intended to observe and describe the learners' interlanguage as well as their degree of mastery of English, after four years of instruction in the language. This work is also an attempt to diagnose the difficulties that hinder our learners' acquisition

of the English language and would analyse the nature of the most recurrent errors produced. To put it differently, the errors produced by the Algerian middle school pupils will be analysed in a systematic and methodical manner according to their types and frequency of occurrence.

The present study explores interlingual sources of errors, when errors originate from linguistic inconsistencies of two language groups. It also considers intralingual sources, when the target language influences errors. Besides, the definition and explanation of each type of errors are provided.

The Importance and Scope of the Study

Today, the English language is the most common means of international communication, education and business around the world. The fact that it is frequently taught as a second or foreign language in the great majority of the non-English speaking world shows the ever increasing interest of people to learn this language. In Algeria, and after the implementation of the third school reform, English is given a more important place in the sense that it is taught in the first year of the Middle School Education.

No one can deny that while learning a language learners make errors. These errors have received significant attention by ESL/EFL teaching specialists because they provide researchers with information about how L2 acquisition and FL learning take place (Ellis, 1996). Errors still inspire new research because they are one of the natural aspects of language learners. They can't be avoided, and they need better pedagogical treatment. The recent goal of second/foreign language acquisition research is to describe the systematic nature of the ESL/EFL learners' language (Ellis, 1996). The importance of this study lies in the fact that it will hopefully contribute to the description of sources of errors, which are internal mechanisms that explain the process of L2 acquisition and FL learning.

The results of this study will not only lead us to describe the kind and nature of our learners' errors, but also to get some insights into the degree of efficacy of classroom practice and the success of the implementation of the EFL teaching reform in the country. The result of this research may also be used to generate guidelines for EFL syllabus design in the Algerian educational system. The corpus of this study will be restricted to pieces of writing composed by Algerian middle school pupils whose native language is Berber (Kabyle) or Arabic. It will attempt to determine the origin of the errors committed by these pupils.

The present study has three main objectives: (a) to identify and to explain the common difficulties and errors in written English of Algerian middle school pupils, (b) to identify these specific structures of the English language which should be of immediate concern to teachers, and (c) to see into the true nature of the new English textbooks designed for Algerian EFL learners. This aspect of the study is particularly important because syllabus designers often tend to neglect the difficulties that learners face in learning English and hence, fail to incorporate these aspects into the teaching materials.

Research Questions

The following research questions have served as guidelines in conducting this study:

1. How many types of errors do Algerian middle school pupils produce when they write in English?

2. What are the most common errors made by Algerian middle school pupils?

3. How should these errors be classified?

4. What are the causes of these errors?

5. What specific recommendations could be made in the English language Instructional

Program to help pupils to avoid these errors?

The diagnoses of BEM candidates' errors will lead us to classify these errors into two main categories: interlingual / Interference errors and intralingual errors. The questions that will arise, then, are: which category is more prominent? How does it affect the learners' performance? To which extent do the other categories plague the pupils' use and practice of the English language? The answers to the questions above will provide us with a corpus of errors that will be discussed in the second chapter. Our discussion will be fulfilled in the light of the pedagogical objectives of the Reform and the Competency-Based Approach to teaching/learning which sustains its implementation. It will raise a number of issues related to the teaching approach and methodology of the new EFL curriculum. These issues will be discussed in the light of instances of language transfer, learners' role, learning strategies, etc. We shall also investigate the way the BEM candidates dealt with all these kinds of language difficulties, with special regard to the language instruction given to them.

Methodology

The methodological structure of the present research comprises: the subjects of the study, the research tools used, and the data analysis.

Subjects

The participants to this research are Algerian middle school pupils. Having completed four years of English in the middle school these pupils may be classified in the category of 'pre- intermediate proficiency level learners'.

Research tools

In order to reach the purpose mentioned earlier, Middle School English Brevet Exam papers have been taken as the basis for this research. For the sake of implementing an Error Analysis type of research, 200 papers of the BEM English Exam

taken in 2007 have been randomly selected. It was thought that this corpus will serve the needs as to represent the different errors made by middle school pupils. Ten sample papers are included in the Appendix section of this dissertation (p.p. i-x). These papers have been selected on the basis of the number of errors they include.

For the purpose of this study, only the written expression section of the exam has been taken into consideration. In this section, the pupils were asked to write an interview given to one of their schoolmates who had contributed in the creation of an association which advocates the living in a clean district. All the exchanges parts of the interview had to be written down by the pupils themselves. However, some clues including (when you started the association, name of the association, activities of the association) were given for help.

Data Analysis

Corder's view of Error Analysis has been the main source of inspiration for this study. However**,** to explore middle school pupils' interlanguage, we have thought it of significant relevance to use Contrastive Analysis to determine the errors resulting from negative transfer. As for Corder's view of Errors Analysis, as mentioned earlier, it has provided us with the following procedure:

1. Identification of errors.

2. The classification of errors as interlangual, or intralingual.

3. Editing of errors

4. Description of errors.

5. The explanation of errors.

(Corder, 1974; Burt & Dulay, 1974; Ellis,1997)

Definition of Terms

The following key terms are used in the present research work as defined below:

Contrastive Analysis: a set of procedures for comparing and contrasting the linguistic systems of two languages in order to identify their structural similarities and differences.

Error analysis: Error Analysis differs from Contrastive Analysis in that it examines all the errors due to all sources, and not just those which resulted from the negative transfer of the first language. (Brown, 1994)

Errors: deviation in usage that results from gaps in the learner's knowledge of the target language.

Fossilization: fossilization is understood to de the inability of a person to attain native like ability in the target language. According to Larry Selinker 'fossilization is the process whereby the learner creates a cessation of interlanguage learning, thus stopping the interlanguage from developing, it is hypothesised, in a permanent way.'(Selinker, 1992)

Interlanguage: a term used by Selinker (1972) to refer to the systematic knowledge of a Foreign Language (FL) that is independent of both the target language and the learner's L1.

Interlingual errors: errors that 'occur as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking another' (Ellis, 1996: 58)

Intralingual errors: errors that 'reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply' (Ellis, 1996: 58)

Negative transfer: language transfer that leads to errors.

Positive transfer: language transfer that facilitates the acquisition of target language norms.

Overgeneralization: Leon A. Jakobovits (1969) defines generalization or transfer as 'the use of previously available strategies in new situations'. Some overgeneralization covers instances where the learner creates a deviant structure. Overgeneralization errors indicate that despite having acquired knowledge of particular rules of syntax in the target language, the learner has not understood the proper placement of the rules and exceptions in situations where the rules should not be applied.

Simplification: Simplification can be described as generalization of the rules of the target language through the broadening of their range of application, and through the disregard for the rules of restricted applicability. Overgeneralization and analogy are examples of simplification (Richards, 1974).

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CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL PREMISES AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Chapter I

Review of the Literature and Methods and Materials

Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section presents an overview of the theories that have contributed to the development of interlanguage. Contrastive Analysis in the 1950s, based on the linguistic notions of interference and transfer, was followed by Error Analysis in the1970s and the1980s, a philosophy that studied errors in ESL/EFL learners' systems. Error Analysis paved the way to the discovery of interlanguage. In the 1990s and 2000s, interlanguage has been viewed as an independent linguistic system in which deviant linguistic units (errors) may originate from different sources. The account of sources of errors, proposed in this research, relies on theoretical constructs from Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and a theory of Interlanguage. This literature review links the current interest in contemporary Foreign Language learning research in FL learners' errors to the history of Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage. The definition of errors and the classification of errors, as well as the theoretical description of sources of errors, are included in this section. The second section is devoted to a discussion of the subjects and sampling procedures, methods of identifying, classifying and explaining errors, and how the data has been analysed.

I/ Review of the Literature

1. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis was first introduced by Lado in <u>Linguistics Across Cultures</u> (1957). In the preface of his book, he wrote:

> The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, and those that will not cause difficulty, by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with the native language and culture of the student. (Lado,1957: vii).

The idea presented in this statement is that it is possible to contrast the system of one language-grammar, phonology, and lexicon- with the system of a second language in order to predict those difficulties which a speaker of the second language can have. Furthermore, Lado suggests that when learners are not sure in using the right sentence structure or any grammar in the second language, they use their knowledge of their native language to overcome their difficulties. To solve this problem, Lado claims that the differences between the first and second language should be established. Once the differences are identified, teachers can work on areas that are troublesome for learners.

The method of Contrastive Analysis uses cross-linguistic comparisons to predict areas of difficulties for Foreign Language learners in the learning of the target language. It is based on a mixture of structural linguistics, L1 interference theory, and the theory of behaviourism (Fries, 1952; Skinner, 1957). Thus, this method was consistent with the behaviourist view of language acquisition in which learning by conditioning was prevailing in the 1940s and 1950s.

Behaviourist studies on language learning that dominated at that time made the assumption that language learning took the form of 'habit formation'. According to behaviourist views, interference from L1 knowledge is considered to be the main problem that impeded FL learning. For them errors occur primarily as a result of

interference when EFL learners transfer L1 habits into FL. The degree of difficulty is also thought to depend on learners' usage of L1 knowledge, especially when there are linguistic differences between the two languages. To support behaviourist ideas, Lado explains that '*the student who comes into contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficul*t' (Lado. 1957:2). Ease or difficulty comes from linguistic similarities or inconsistencies between L1 and the target language. Therefore, he recommends that pedagogical materials be designed which would address the target language in a systematic fashion based on the predicated difficulty of structures as derived from Contrastive Analysis.

Later, it was acknowledged that transfer might not always be negative. Therefore, in cases where the linguistic rules of L1 differed from those of the target language, it was called 'interference' or 'negative transfer' while in cases where the linguistic rules of L1 and FL were similar, it was called 'positive transfer'. Corder (1974b) states that, when FL learners use positive or negative transfer, they test the hypothesis of similarity or difference between L1 and FL systems. In other words, transfer can both hinder and accelerate FL learning.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was the dominant approach in ESL/EFL teaching until the 1970s. It emerged when FL pedagogy needed improvement. It claims that FL learners' mental processes during FL learning are strongly influenced by L1. This is why, It is applied as an attempt to predict the errors that learners would make by identifying the linguistic differences between their L1 and FL. H. Douglas Brown (1994) states that the main problem in learning a second language is the interference of the first language, and that in order to minimise the difficulties for the learner, it is necessary to compare the two languages. Furthermore, He mentions that scientists and educators consider the discovery of interference between two language systems as especially interesting because it can help to account for the problems of FL learning and

explore Foreign Language learning processes. To say it differently, The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis has brought a hope to educators because they can use it to improve their pedagogical strategies.

The Contrastive Analysis framework, seeking the answer to the question of the extent to which FL learning is the result of L1 transfer, has slowly been abandoned because of three defects. The first defect of Contrastive Analysis is that it looks at only the learners' L1 by comparing and analysing L1 and FL grammars. The second defect is that teachers have complained about the many errors with which they are familiar, and which are not predicted by Contrastive Analysis. Such a narrow view of interference ignores the intralingual effects of learning, among other factors. Corder notes that educators' '*practical experience has already shown them where these difficulties lie and they have not felt that the contribution of the linguist has provided them with any significantly new information*' (Corder, 1974b: 122). The third defect is that Contrastive Analysis provides identification of errors but not methods for dealing with them. Huebner concludes that '*Contrastive Analysis failed... because the theoretical foundations upon which it was based crumbled and because it couldn't account for errors other than interference errors*' (Huebner.1983:11). Linguists have understood that L1 interference is not the only factor involved in SLA / FL learning. Ellis summarises, '*The problem with Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was its failure to acknowledge sources of difficulty other than the learner's L1*' (Ellis.1996: 308). Accordingly, Contrastive Analysis has come out to be split into the strong and the weak versions.

1.1. The Strong Version

Contrastive Analysis is claimed to be an important discovery that has helped to improve foreign language research and that has provided answers to how Foreign Language learning occurs. It is considered as a pedagogical answer for all major problems in Foreign Language learning and teaching. Emphasising the good part of Contrastive Analysis has led to an over application among its supporters who have not been hesitant to make some over claims. This gave rise to the strong version of the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis, which is stated by Lee as follows:

(1) That the prime cause, or even the sole cause of difficulty and error in a foreign language learning is interference from the learner's native language:

(2) That the difficulties are chiefly, or wholly, due to the differences between the two languages:

(3) That the greater these differences are, the more acute the learning difficulties will be:

(4) That the results of a comparison between the two languages are needed to predict the difficulties and errors which will occur

(Lee, 1968: 186).

This strong version demands of linguists that they have available a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals with syntax, semantics, and phonology. Furthermore, it requires that they have a theory of contrastive linguistics into which they could put complete linguistic descriptions of the two languages being contrasted so as to produce the correct set of contrasts between the two languages. Ideally, linguists should not have to refer at all to speakers of the two languages under contrast for either confirmation or disconfirmation of the set of contrasts generated by any such theory of contrastive linguistics. They should be able to

carry out their contrastive studies quite far removed from speakers of the two languages in question except what is recorded in the grammars they are using. Such seems to be the procedure which the strong version of the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis demands of linguists. Whenever the differences are sorted out, the task of the syllabus designer is to develop materials which would be based on these differences. The task of the teacher is to be aware of these differences and to be prepared to teach them. Finally, the learner has to learn the sum of these differences established by the Contrastive Analysis.

This version deviates from the hypothesis formulated by Lado (1957) quoted earlier, and from his subsequent reiteration that ' […] *these differences are the chief source of difficulty in learning a second language* […] *The most important factor determining ease and difficulty in learning the patterns of a foreign language is their similarity to or difference from the patterns of the native language'* (Lado, 1964: 21& 91), taking 'chief source' and 'most important' to mean that first language interference is not the only important factor.

1.2. Criticism of the Strong Version

Chomsky (1959) criticises behavioural psychology and transfer theory on which the hypothesis is based as being able to adequately account neither for the nature of a system which is itself creative nor for the learner's active contribution to language learning. Larry Newmark and Reibel (1968) agree with Chomsky's opinion and criticise the view that considers the role of the learner as nothing but a generator of interference. They refute this strong version which neglects and ignores the learner's contribution to his own learning. They claim that ignorance rather interference is the real cause of most errors. Contrastive Analysis does not take into consideration the active role of the learners simply, because it is only interested in the languages as linguistic systems and products rather than in learners using complex psycholinguistic processes (Van Else, 1984). It is considered that a viable Contrastive Analysis presupposes a uniform

linguistic theory and grammatical model, a general theory of contrastive linguistics and adequate descriptions of the source and target language concerned. Since all these are as yet unavailable, applied linguists are of the opinion that the Constructive Structure Series is premature.

Ronald Wardhaugh (1970) explains that Constructive Analysis makes unrealistic demands of current linguistic theory. He contends that linguistic theory at present is ill-equipped to write grammars of languages, let alone to compare them. Moreover, no language has been well enough described to permit a complete comparison between it and any other language. In view of the numerous practical difficulties raised by the hypothesis he wonders if it is really possible to make Contrastive Analysis. He also argues that the claims based on the hypothesis are not supported by actual facts, that Contrastive Analysis predicted errors which did not occur and did not predict others which occurred. Harry. L. Gradman (1971) too argues that the hypothesis is untenable since there is still considerable disagreement as to what a linguistic description is, and what theory of language is best, let alone about the acquisition of language.

Contrastive Analysis is inevitably related both to grammatical models and linguistic theories. Its assumptions, the rigor and sophistication of its comparisons and the form of contrastive statements have all changed from time to time reflecting the changes in linguistic theory. Thus the structural contrastive approach which is most used has been criticised on the basis of the structuralists' inadequate conception of the structure of a language as a unique self-sufficient system, and for its emphasis on diversity rather than universality. It would follow logically that languages cannot be compared.

1.3. The Weak Version

The criticism brought on the strong version has given rise to a modified view of Contrastive Analysis as identified by many: the weak version. According to Wardhaugh (1970), the weak version *"requires of the linguist only that he uses the best knowledge available to account for observed difficulties in second language learning"* (Wardhaugh, 1970: 126). It does not claim the predictive power. The weak version is to explain errors, rather than to predict them as in the strong version, based on the notion of transfer. He suggests two approaches to Contrastive Analysis: one by setting up a systematic comparison which identifies the differences in structure in search of sources of interference, and predicting that errors will occur on the basis of the conflicts, the other by collecting errors students make and then trying to describe the conflicts that give rise to such errors. He maintains that the main and important role of descriptive comparison is explanatory rather than predictive. He is of the view that Contrastive Analysis should be selective, i.e. limiting itself to partial comparisons, analysing those parts of the grammar which are known through Error Analysis, for instance, to present the greatest difficulties to learners. In other words, the weak version is explanatory and diagnostic rather than predictive. Despite its practicability, the weak version has also been criticized by linguists who argue that it is not necessary, and does not have much value to compare the native language and the target language simply to confirm the presence of errors expected by transfer (James, 1980). In addition, the weak version like the strong one, still assume that all errors are explained by transfer alone, which is not completely true.

Although the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis in its strong and weak versions was shown to suffer from a number of weaknesses, this is not to suggest that the native language has no influence on foreign language learning. In fact, foreign language researchers generally affirm that the native language plays an indispensable role in

Foreign Language learning. Ellis emphasises in his discussion of ESL acquisition and EFL learning theories that '……*no theory of L2 acquisition that ignores the learner's prior linguistic knowledge can be considered complete*' (Ellis, 1994: 300)

2. Error Analysis

The discovery of the limitations of the Contrastive Analysis approach paved the way to the development of a new approach which was more psychologically oriented toward an explanation of foreign language. In fact, focusing on errors soon led many linguists to question the validity of Contrastive Analysis, as the analysis suggested that only a part of the problem had L1 interference. Error Analysis is different from Contrastive Analysis in that it examines the errors emanating from all sources. It is then considered that errors are normal features not problems indicating the strategy that FL learners use. In his book <u>Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies</u> Richards (1971a) notices that errors found in children's speech while learning English as their first language and adults' speech while learning English as a foreign language are quite similar and systematic. This has been the initial step of true Error Analysis, as language scholars and linguists alike have focused their time and attention on all the errors that are committed by the learners. Not only Error Analysis is used to explain the learners' errors but is also used to explain the process that is involved in the production of the errors.

Error Analysis was developed as a result of the cognitive learning theories of Chomsky as they pertain to first-language acquisition. Essentially, this new approach claims that language is more biologically than culturally determined, that language learning is rule-governed creativity rather than a habit-governed conditioning activity and that hypothesis-testing by the learner is more important than the role of imitation and reinforcement in the learning process.

Chomsky (1966) suggests that the 'competence' of a language learner '*is a set of processes possessed by the individual and developed in him as part of his maturation'*. This 'competence' is systematic and stable in second language learning and therefore can and should be described. 'Performance', on the other hand, is unstable and dependents on different affective variables such as learning environment, state of mind, personality, etc. According to Chomsky these performance factors are not very important within first language learning analysis. The unstable nature of 'performance' does not permit a methodological analysis like that possible in the study of 'competence'. The distinction between competence / performance led to the distinction between a learner's **error** and a learner's **mistake**. According to Brown (2000) mistakes are caused by fatigue and inattention (what Chomsky (1965) called 'performance' factors) and therefore are not pertinent in the analysis whereas errors are due to the insufficient knowledge of the rules of a language (what Chomsky (1965) called 'competence') and show that learners are trying to formulate the new language system. Consequently, the researcher has the responsibility to separate mistakes of performance from true errors.

Errors by definition imply ignorance, deficiency, and /or accident, and in language learning they are inevitable in the interlanguage of a learner. According to Lennon an error is '*a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production would in all likelihood, not be produced by the native speakers counterparts*' (Lennon,1991:182). However, before the development of Error Analysis in the foreign language teaching/learning process the error has been regarded as something negative which must be avoided. As a consequence, teachers have always adopted a repressive attitude towards it. With the development of Error Analysis the view towards the error has changed. It is seen as a natural result of the fact that by nature we cannot avoid making errors; we should accept

the reality and try to deal with them. In other words, the error is seen from a different point of view and we can even learn from it. Corder states that '*for those who attempt to describe his [the learner's] knowledge of the language at any point in its development, it is the 'errors' which provide the important evidence*' (Corder, 1967:8). He believes that for learners errors are 'indispensable' since the making of error could be regarded as a device the leaner uses in order to learn. Selinker states '*a modern belief would consider errors as part of the circular progression in learning, viewing them as a dynamic process involved in the learning process*' (Selinker, 1992:119). Errors serve the essential function of acting as a resource with which the learner explores the new language through connections, educated guessing, and assumptions.

According to Corder errors are significant in three ways: (a) They provide educators with information about how much FL learners had learnt, (b) they provide linguists with evidence of how language was learnt and '*of how far towards the goal the learner has progressed*' and what the learner did not learn, and (c) they provide the learner with information about 'devices the learner uses in order to learn' (Corder,

1967: 25).

The categorisation and classification of learner errors in the interlanguage can have a signification impact on Foreign Language learning. In general, errors can be attributed to one of two possible origins: (a) those resulting from interlingual interference and (b) those resulting from intratingual sources. While the former is concerned with influence from the mother tongue, intralingual errors are those resulting from the structure of the target language exclusively. Richards states that 'intralingual errors are those which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply' (Richards, 1974:174). Some linguists have chosen to identify these types of problems as 'developmental' errors. Still others (such as Richards) see

developmental errors as only one of many subdivisions that can be generalised as 'intralingual' errors. Marina Burt and Heidi Dulay (1982) argue that developmental errors are similar to the errors made by children learning the target language as their first language. In this research it is intended to rely on these two main categories of errors (interlingual and intralingual errors) identified by Richards to diagnose and classify the different errors found in the pupils' written compositions of the first English BEM exam taken in 2007.

The impact of Error Analysis in second/foreign language acquisition is significant. First, the new method permits *'the formulation of rules for learners' interlingual systems thus providing incidentally for the teacher confirmation of what remains to be learned'* (Candlin, 1983: ix). Second, it permits linguists to observe a learner's language development, and it indicates to teachers and curriculum developers which parts of the target language the learners have the most difficulty producing correctly. Third, it provides *'data on the nature and significance of the obstacles that lie in the path towards the discovery of the target language rules'* (Candlin, 1983: ix).

Error Analysis has become an important guidance for analysing the learner's language. It has started with simple identification of errors and has developed more sophisticated methodologies that have led to the following five steps: (a) collection of a sample of learner's language,(b) identification of errors, (c) description of errors, (d) explanation of errors, and (e) evaluation of errors.(Corder, 1974b)

To sum up, because of using Error Analysis in the field of FL pedagogy, old methods are replaced by new teaching materials which take into consideration meaningful contexts used by FL learners to reconstruct the FL system. On the other hand, Ellis (1996) emphasises the importance of exploring transfer. He argues that any SLA/FL learning theory is not complete if it doesn't include transfer. Studies that explore different types of transfer, utilising Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis,

have prepared the new ground, which is the learner's own system that may reflect either L1 or the target language or both but which is by itself a linguistic system with its own structures and rules. The name of this system is interlanguage.

2.1. The Fundamental Assumption of Error Analysis

2.1.1. The Approximative Systems

According to Chomsky human beings are born with a natural ability to acquire language, activated when introduced to an authentic language environment. However, exposure alone is not sufficient. It is necessary for the learner to test and revise any assumptions formulated regarding the target language. To elucidate the process of Foreign Language learning by the learner, Nemser (1971) describes the learner's language as an 'approximative system'. He categorises each language system, corresponding to a contact situation, according to its functions as indicated below:

- The Target Language is that which the learner uses in his attempts to communicate; it is the language the learner is learning to use.

- The source language is that which creates interference (Deviations from the norm of the target language): generally it is the native language of the learner.

- The approximative system is the deviant linguistic system created by the learner in this attempts to employ the target language.

These approximative systems can be attributed to learning experience, and differ in character according to proficiency level.

Nemser's theory is three fold as quoted below for precision:

1. The learner's speech at a given time is the patterned product of a linguistic system which is distinct from the source language and the target language and is internally structured.

2. The approximative system always evolves. The earliest occurring when a learner, first, attempts to use the target language, and the most advanced is close

to target language. (The achievement of perfect proficiency is rare for adult learners).

3. In a given contact situation, the approximative system of learners at the same stage of proficiency roughly coincides with major variations allocated to differences in learning experience (Nemser, 1991).

Thus, Nemser asserts the notion that the speech of a language learner shows the order and cohesiveness of a system, and is methodical in structure. However, due to the development of new elements in the learning process, this system is repeatedly evolving and is subject to extreme reformation. Hence, Nemser maintains that it is important to examine the learner's speech on its own terms, not just with regard to the source language and to the target language.

2.1.2. The Idiosyncratic Dialects

Corder first introduced the term 'Idiosyncratic Dialect' in his paper titled: '*Idiosyncratic dialects and Error Analysis*' (Corder, 1971a). According to him, a Foreign Language learner gradually modifies his language performance to make it more similar with that of the native speaker. Therefore, it is both anticipated and desired to see fluctuations in the characteristics of a learner's language. Corder postulates that the FL learner's language can be viewed as a particular dialect of the target language, different in many important aspects from it and possibly possessing some characteristics of his mother language. He suggests this based on two considerations:

a) Any spontaneous speech intended by the speaker to communicate is meaningful in the sense that it is systematic, regular and, consequently it can be described in terms of a set of rules, i.e, it has a grammar. The spontaneous speech of the second language learner is language and has a grammar.

b) Since a number of sentences of that language are similar with some of the sentences of his target language and have the same interpretation, then some,

at least, of the rules needed to account for the learner's language will be the

same as those required to account for the target language.

In accordance with the two considerations, Corder supposes that the learner's language

is a dialect in the linguistic sense: 'Two languages which share some rules of grammar

are dialects'(Corder, 1974b).

It must be noted that Corder believes that there is a distinction between the

dialects attributed to languages of a social group (social dialects) and the dialects which

are not attributed to language of social groups, referred to as idiosyncratic dialects. He

also distinguishes between 'idiolects' and 'idiosyncratic dialects'. He states that an

'idiolect' is a personal dialect, with its linguistic rules located in the set of one or

another social dialect. Thus, Corder considers an 'idiolect' to be some sort of a mixture

of dialects. On the other hand, he considers 'idiosyncratic dialect' as being intrinsic to

the speaker's language, in that linguistically some of its rules do not belong to the set of

rules of any social dialect. This is a feature that all idiosyncratic dialects share.

Such idiosyncrasies in the language of individuals result in certain problems in

the interpretation of their sentences, seeing that the interpretation of a sentence rests on

the comprehension of the fundamental rules of that sentence. Another complication with

'idiosyncratic dialects' is the fact they are generally unstable. Corder, however, views

this unreliability as being normal asserting that the purpose of speech is communication

i,e., comprehension. He states that 'if understanding is only partial, then a speaker has a

motive to bring his language behaviour into line with conventions of some social group,

if he is able'.

Corder concludes that there are three other idiosyncratic dialects, in addition to

the idiosyncratic dialect of Foreign Language learners. He distinguishes them as the

language of the child learning his mother tongue, the language of poetry 'deliberately

deviant', and the speech of an aphasic 'pathologically'. According to him, Error Analysis would be applicable to all four idiosyncratic dialects.

2.2. The Limitations of Error Analysis

Error analysis study has been criticised by some researchers. Two main categories are listed: weaknesses in methodological procedures, and limitations in scope (Ellis.1994:67). Limitations in scope allude to Error Analysis failure to provide a complete analysis of the learner's language due to focusing just on the errors which learners produce at a single point in time. It does not take any account of what learners do correctly and of their FL development over time (Ellis, 1994:69-70). Dulay and al have identified several types of methodological weaknesses with Error Analysis: (a) 'the confusion of error description with error explanation.' (b) 'The lack of precision specificity in the definition of error categories' and (c) 'simplistic categorisation of the causes of the learners' errors' (Dulay and al, 1982:140).

Error Analysis as generally explained and practiced is based too much on researchers' subjective interpretations, relies on few examples of error, does not sufficiently take into consideration the complexities of the many rhetorical factors that influence error, and lacks a systematic model of how to comprehensibly describe the causes of errors.

As noted already, Error Analysis tends to rely on researchers' interpretations based on a textual analysis of only some errors. Such interpretation is done through a close examination of sentences containing errors, most often limited to only a few sample sentences per error. This interpretation is most often based on the teachers' intuitions and experiences as teachers, scholars, and users of language. It goes without saying that such inquiry has unquestionable value. What is lacking in Error Analysis is a methodology that reflects the more objective forms of experimental inquiry.

Another limitation of Error Analysis is that it tends to insufficiently investigate the various forms that errors and their causes can take as a result of the influence of the many factors involved in the writing situation. Errors are of many types. There are, for example, performance and competence errors. Those that exist only in one variation for a learner or those that have several possible forms and functions, and finally those that are in the process of changing or those that do not indicate ongoing development. Analysts have spoken about such distinctions, but they have not investigated them thoroughly. However, weaknesses and strength of Error Analysis are used as guidance for building methodology for this work.

3. Interlanguage

As opposed to Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis, interlanguage is not viewed as a process in foreign language learning influenced by L1 or the target language but rather as an independent linguistic system that exists independently. Many theories in foreign language learning have arrived at this conclusion. One of them is the interlanguage theory. Indeed, the term 'Interlanguage' was first introduced by Selinker (1972). He states that learners construct interlanguage on their way to acquiring the target language. Interlanguage is found where FL learners express the knowledge that they have acquired in the new language that they are trying to learn. Selinker claims that interlanguage is observable in a learner's language and can be explored.

Corder (1967) refers to 'transitional competence' to describe the phenomena of interlanguage. Corder borrows Chomsky's notion of linguistic 'competence' in order to preserve the idea that language learning is constantly developing, although four years later he began using the term 'transitional dialect'. He claims that such a learner's language has an independent system in itself; it is reflected in the errors. To put it another way, there are systematic and non-systematic errors in the learners' language. The object of the researcher is the former. We may say that such errors reveal the

underlying competence of second or Foreign Language learners. Corder (1967) also claims that the learners' errors are important for researchers because they provide evidence of the system of the language that they are using (i.e. has learnt) at a particular point in the course (and it must be repeated that they are using a system, although, it is not yet the right system).

Nemser(1974) refers to interlanguage as the approximate system. He claims that interlanguage is continually being changed because new deviant features are constantly added during FL learning. He names the approximative system a deviant linguistic system that is used by the learners to achieve FL profeciency. Such an approximative system may be different from learner to learner because of many factors such as proficiency, learning experience, level of communication, learning ability, etc.

Interlanguage is considered as being equal with mothers using 'baby talk' and 'foreigner talk' used to communicate by speakers of other languages. The common point between these modified languages is a simplification of the system. This suggests that interlanguage is simple when compared to L1 or FL. However, Corder is cautious to use the term 'simplification'. He explains that if interlanguage is less complex this does not mean that it has simplified forms. Simplification is better identified as a communication strategy used within the interlanguage. By identifying interlanguage as a separate system researchers have shifted to the analysis of its potential contribution to the field of linguistics.

It was in the 1980s that more studies of learners' interlanguage as an independent system appeared. Several research articles dealt with the discussion of language universals, which were considered to be a part of interlanguage development (Eckman, Bell, & Nelson, 1983). This new approach to the interlanguage system seemed to be based on two theoretical assumptions. One assumption was that interlanguage, like a natural language, was systematic, i.e. rule-governed and, therefore,

could be described (Huebner,1983). The other assumption was that interlanguage was constantly changing (Huebner, 1983).

James (1994) confirms that Foreign Language learning can be described in terms of the three systems, the mother tongue, the Foreign Language and interlanguage. The branch of linguistics identified by James as 'interlanguage study' is interested in the emergence of this language rather than in the finished product. He states that interlanguage is an approximative system found between L1 and the target language.

Selinker (1994) claims that when trying to learn a foreign language, there is a structure in the brain called the 'latent psychological structure' that is activated for the purpose of learning another language after the close of the critical period for language acquisition. He agrees with lenneberg's (1969) concept of 'latent language structure', yet, he insists that there is a formulated arrangement already present in the brain that differs from Lenneberg's description of the structure for most people.

Selinker's principal hypothesis is the notion that adult FL learners who acquire native-like competence (perhaps a few percentage of adults) in the target language has by somehow reactivated Lenneberg's latent language structure. Selinker (1994) states that those FL learners who have achieved native-like competence undergo very different psychological processes than FL learners who have not achieved native-like competence. He discusses the idea that there are two psychological processes, that of 'attempted learning' and 'successful learning' where the former is independent and preceding that of the latter. According to him, when FL learners become proficient in the target language, this means that they go through 'successful learning' and that FL learners who are not proficient in the target language do not. He asserts that linguists should concentrate on analysing only observable data to which 'theoretical predictions' can be related, i.e the sentences the learner creates in his attempts to communicate in a target language. Due to observations of a learner's attempted production of the target

language, Selinker theorises the notion that a separate linguistic system exists, which he calls 'interlanguage system'. He defines it as a transitional state between the target language and the mother language, complete with its own rules and register, its own grammar.

According to Selinker's theory, the learner formulates hypotheses as he progresses during his state of interlanguage. The more the interlanguage resembles the target language, the more the hypotheses should be similar to the rules of the target language grammar. However, the learner will commit errors due to his hypothesising. These errors demonstrate the learner's ability to reject or revise his hypothesis to justify the error and progress closer to the target language norms.

In a similar way, the term can also be applied to developing FL writing that approaches written target language norms. Like errors in Foreign Language learning interlanguage is also 'inevitable' and is an evidence of the process of Foreign Language learning. Interlanguage appears to show the learner's progress because it reflects the writer's (the learner's) developing competence. In our study, interlanguage is considered as a normal natural process that all FL learners have to overcome on their way to acquiring the target language. In other words interlanguage is considered as a linguistic grammar bridge constructed by ESL and EFL learners who use L1 knowledge and/or try to use the foreign language rules in order to achieve the FL norm, or who do not use L1 and FL knowledge and construct a system that is different from L1 and the target language.

Thus, before the learner reaches proficiency in the target language he functions with his approximative system. The stages of the new language learning show a developmental and creative process. In the process, the learner makes errors caused perhaps by first language interference, or by ignorance of FL rules, or by incomplete application of rules, etc. Therefore, errors are "inevitable' in the process of language

learning, and from the errors, the teacher can know many things about the learner, such as what the learner has acquired and what he has not, what strategies the learner has been using and what he should learn next, and so on.

3.1. Interlanguage Development

Cognitive learning theory claims that learning is basically a matter of meaningful dynamics in which individuals constantly reconstruct their 'cognitive structures' (Bruner, 1978). Thus, cognitive theorists believe in the concept that knowledge develops when relating new knowledge to an individual's prior knowledge about the world. In other words, learning occurs when the learner relates new information to previously acquired knowledge. This framework of cognitive theorists supports the view that FL learning involves the process of assimilation and accommodation. The process of FL learning consists of restructuring as an L1-dependent process, and recreating as an L1- independent process. Although reconstructing is predominant at early stages of FL learning, recreating generally takes the place of reconstructing as the dominant learning process. Therefore FL learning is a creative –construction process involving hypothesis testing activity. In this way learners create their own interlanguage system in which they test their initial hypotheses, and which shows the limitations of their knowledge about the target language. For the first time, FL learners '*were credited with playing an active role in constructing….grammar*' (Ellis, 1996: 44).

According to Selinker (1992), there are three different theoretical approaches to the nature of foreign language learning, each of which makes significantly different claims and predictions about interlanguage development. First and perhaps the most significant claim is the 'transitional competence' hypothesis which strongly believes in the transitional nature of the learner's language, i.e. '*a dynamic, goal-oriented system of increasing complexity*' (Corder, 1981:90). The second approach is the 'approximative

system' hypothesis which claims that the learner's language evolves in directional stages towards target language norms (Nemser, 1971). Finally, the third approach is the interlanguage hypothesis which denies approximate nature of interlanguage and introduces the phenomenon of 'fossilization' from the early interlanguage development (Cohen & Dumas, 1976).

Interlanguage is a continuum between L1 and the target language along which learners traverse. At any point along this continuum, the learner's language is systematic and common to all learners, any difference being explicable by differences in their learning experiences. Selinker (1972) has proposed that the latent psychological structure, which is a key to Foreign Language Learning, include five central processes within its structure. However, to understand these processes, it is important to consider the phenomenon of 'fossilization' which Selinker sees as the fundamental factor describing interlanguage. It is commonly observed in a learner's language various erroneous features persisting in the speech of those who have otherwise a fluent command of the language. The relatively permanent incorporation of incorrect linguistic forms into a person's foreign language has been referred to as 'fossilization'. Fossilization may be regarded as persistent errors repeated in the interlanguage process. In other words, the internalisation of incorrect forms is a part of what is commonly called learning. Selinker believes that "fossilization" is a mechanism that exists in the latent psychological structure discussed above:

> Fossilization linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL (Native Language) will tend to keep in their Il (Interlanguage) relative to a particular TL (Target Language), no matter what the age of the learner of amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL (Selinker, 1992:215).

Selinker identifies the five processes mentioned earlier as follows: If fossilizable items, rules and subsystems present during interlanguage performance are experimentally proven to be a result of the native language, the process of 'Language Transfer' is occurring. If fossilizable items, rules and subsystems result from identifiable items during training procedures, the process of 'Transfer of Training' is taking place. If fossilizable items, rules and subsystems arise from a recognizable approach the learner has applied to the materials to be learnt, the process of 'Strategies of Second Language Communication' is occurring. The process of 'Strategies of Second Language Learning' is clear if the fossilizable items, rules and subsystems arising in interlanguage performance can be attributed to the learner's particular approach to communication with native speakers of the target language. The final process is 'overgeneralization' which is evident if the fossilizable items, rules and subsystems can be attributed to overgeneralization of the target language linguistic material.

Ellis reports that intelanguage development had three phases.

1. Innovation (acquisition of new forms).

2. Elaboration (complexification that takes place as the learner discovers the contextual uses of a form)

3. revision (the adjustments that are made to the entire system as a result of innovation and elaboration). (Ellis, 1985:31).

Along with this line of thinking, many linguists have proposed 'interlanguage analysis' as a comprehensive approach that includes the merits of both Contrastive Analysis theory and Error Analysis theory, and which aims at investigating and uncovering the process of Foreign Language learning.

4. Definition of Errors

Although some individuals may consider errors as constituting one of the most trivial aspects of the composition process, others view errors as signs of growth, experimentation, or language variation- not as indications of intellectual poverty , but as a means for determining how a writer attempts to learn and master formal written English.

Error Analysis is one type of research that takes a positive approach to error. Briefly stated, Error analysis is designed to determine the causes of errors. As with any form research, any given example of Error analysis will have its own specific goals and methods depending upon the nature of the research situation.

An error refers to any arising non-standard forms of English that appears in the FL learner's production during the learning process when the FL learner constructs interlanguage. (Non-standard refers here to any linguistic deviation from Standard English). Thus errors are those writing problems associated with the mechanics, spelling, usage and grammar of Standard English.

Interlanguage contains some correct FL forms and/or some deviating forms (errors) that may carry some of the following characteristics: (a) similar to L1 norms; (b) similar (but not completely) to FL norms because of simplification (coulter, 1968), ignorance of rule restrictions (Richards, 1971b), and/or incomplete application of rules (Richards, 1971b); (c) similar to both L1 and FL norms at the same time; or (d) different from L1 and FL norms.

4.1. The Rationale for Analysing Errors

The rationale for analysing errors has been provided by Corder:

1. Errors are 'markers of the learner's transitional competence' (1974b: 25)

2. Errors are 'indicative both of the state of the learner's knowledge, and of the ways in which a Foreign Language is learnt' (1974b: 25).

3. Errors suggest 'the strategies learners employ to work out the rules of the new language and the rules they have developed at given stages in their language development' (1974: 25).

4. Errors provide evidence of the system of the language that Foreign Language learners are using or have learnt at a particular point in the course.

5. Errors are inevitable (interlingual errors) because learners need to test whether 'the system of the new language are the same or different from those of the language they know' (1974: 25).

6. Errors are significant in three distinct ways: (a) to teachers because they tell them how far toward the goal the learner has progressed and what remains for him to learn; (b) to researchers because they provide the evidence of how language is learnt or acquired and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language; and (c) to learners because they are a device that learners use in order to learn. 'It is a way the learner has of testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language he is learning' (1974: 25).

4.2. The Sources of Errors in Error Analysis

Error analysis is more advantageous than Contrastive Analysis in that for Error Analysis, there are no assumptions regarding the sources of the errors. This is justifiable if we believe on the notion that the learners' language system is not static and if we consider the fact that the learners continuously change the hypotheses they are forming regarding the target language as they approach it. '*At any given time several hypotheses may be in conflict, and the learner's approximation of the target language will show alternative renditions of individual features*' (Valdman, 1975: 425).

Many studies have been conducted in language performance on the categorisation and classification of the learners' errors in the interlanguage. Thus two major sources of errors have been identified. Richards (1974) terms the two suspected sources of errors as 'Interlingual' and 'Intralingual' errors. The 'Interlingual' errors can be attributed to language transfer, while 'Intralingual' errors refer to those errors generated through the structure of the target language exclusively. These errors reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as: 'overgeneralisation' (Richards, 1974; Selinker, 1992), ' Simplification' (George, 1972; Richards, 1974), 'Linguistic Development' (Corder,1967), 'Strategies of communication' (Selinker, 1992), 'Language Instruction' (Stenson,1974), 'Target Language Complexity' (Schacher, 1974) and 'Overproduction of Target Language Features' (Rutherford & Schacher,1979).

However, it should be noted that categorising errors to such factors listed above is a tedious process not without its errors, as there is no precise criteria for classification such as overlapping of some of the categories and the possibility of multiple explanations (Richards, 1974).

4.3. Classification of Sources of Errors

According to the classification of steps that FL learners have to attempt in their desire to achieve the target language norms, the following sources of errors have been analysed in this study: interlingual and intralingual.

4.3.1. Interlingual Errors

Intralingual errors are those attributed to the native language when the learners' L1 rules interfere and prevent the learners from acquiring the FL rules (Corder, 1971). Since the early 1980s, interlingual errors have continued to be a popular area of interest in second/foreign language research. These errors are considered to be the negative

influence of the L1 on the performance of FL. That is to say, they are generated from language transfer. Nevertheless, language transfer remains a controversial phenomenon. It is reflected in the difficulty in finding the definition that is acceptable for all scientists.

Odlin (1989) offers the widely used definition. The researcher describes transfer as '*the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps perfectly) acquired*'. Selinker's definition (1992) focuses on the reappearance of L1 patterns in the interlanguage of the FL learner. The first of these definitions suggests that the best way to identify L1 influence is through a cross-linguistic comparison, while the second compares the learners' L1 and their interlanguage. This study has applied the description of negative transfer earlier proposed by Corder as a working definition for defining interlingual errors: interlingual errors are those that originate under the influence of the L1.

4.3.2. Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors are those due to the language being learnt (target language) that are independent of the native language. According to Richards (1974), they do not reflect the L1 structure but show generalisations based on partial exposure to the target language. Richards (1971) refers to intralingual errors as those errors that involve over generalisation, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, simplification, etc. Ellis describes intralingual errors as those that '*reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalisation, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply*' (Ellis, 1996: 126). James (1998) characterises this type of errors as those that 'cannot be attributed to L1 rule system and thus non-interference'.

This study has partially applied the definition for intralingual errors offered by Richards: intralingual errors are those that originate from ignorance of rule restrictions and incomplete application of FL rules. In the present study it is supposed that Error Analysis is a very useful tool for dealing with language errors, while admitting the existence of other factors that affect the learner's performance. If language teachers could take all these factors into account they would obtain a clear picture of the different problems that their pupils face while learning a foreign language as well as improving language learning and language practices.

II/ Method and Materials

It is assumed that language learners, when speaking or writing a foreign language, will definitely make errors, and that a systematic analysis of errors can help improve the process of language learning. The analysis of errors has proven to have many advantages. As stated by Corder (1973 cited by Ellis 1997), it allows first, to revise the techniques and teaching materials and second, it permits us to know certain parts of the syllabus that have not been properly taught and thus require a more thorough study. The errors committed by Foreign Language learners can give a precise idea of the inner workings of the learners' so called 'interlanguage'. Third, the information that derive from analysing errors greatly help language teachers and syllabi designers to understand the level of the pupils' foreign language proficiency at any particular stage. Moreover, it allows them to devise student-centred instead of teacher-centred syllabi. For example, if the teacher knows that certain errors can be due to mother tongue interference, then he is able to bring these potential areas of trouble to the attention of the pupils to show them the differences between languages and to correct the errors that could be committed at this level. This sort of knowledge contributes and allows teachers to be more objective in selecting the target materials for their learners making the whole process much more beneficial and effective.

This study is a quantitative study that uses the English copies of the first BEM exam taken in 2007 to analyse errors committed in the writings of English learners with Algerian backgrounds. The present study describes the errors found in the writings of middle school EFL learners in particular and EFL learners in general, and in a general perspective, relates the findings of this research to possible language learning universals. In addition, the listing of the errors found in the pupils' copies could be used as the basis for more effective foreign language teaching. This section discusses the source of the data and the methodology used in analysing them.

This research makes use of the following steps for analysing errors as conceived by Corder (1974b): (a) collection of a sample of the learners' language, (b) identification of errors, (c) description of errors, (d) explanation of errors (interlingual and intralingual). This study excludes the fifth step (evaluation of errors) because the evaluation of errors has to be studied "as a separate issue, with its own method of enquiry" (Ellis, 1996: 63).

1. Materials

1.1. Source of Data

Three steps have been taken to select the sample for the study: (a) identification of the population, (b) determination of the required sample, and (c) selection of the sample.

The data have been collected from the written compositions of Algerian middle school pupils who took the first BEM exam in 2007. The population of the present study is 200 pupils who have effectively taken the BEM exam. It is assumed that they have all formally studied English as an academic subject for a minimum of four years. All of the pupils are native speakers of Kabyle (Berber) or Arabic. Besides this, all of them can speak French, which is introduced at the early stages of primary education in 'year three'.

The main goal of this study is to investigate the different errors still made by the pupils after the implementation of the school reform in 2003, and this is why only the pupils' written compositions are considered to form the corpus of the research. Indeed, in the written section of the first English BEM exam (2007) the following subject was proposed:

> 'your schoolmates have created an association because they want to live in a clean district. Interview one of its members for your school magazine and write down the conversation. You can use the following clues to help you.
> - When you started the association
> - Name of the association
> - Activities (what you did / are doing).'

Consequently, the pupils wrote interviews under exam conditions. It goes without saying that this kind of data gives a great possibility to focus on language rather than content.

The data consist of 200 exam papers which were collected randomly at a single point in time. After a strict selection it has been found that out of 200 pupils, only 76 of them could include the written task in their exam papers. A second category is the category of pupils who confused between writing an interview and writing a paragraph. So, 74 other pupils wrote a paragraph instead of an interview. This confusion is probably caused by the examiners who designed the exam. In the minds of pupils 'written comprehension' is always associated with writing paragraphs and 'oral comprehension' is associated with writing conversations between people. The remaining 50 pupils neglected totally this section. It is quite difficult to explain this last category since the profile of the pupils is not included in this research, but it can be supposed that those pupils are among the weakest pupils in the class or that they have

not played an important part in the new reform. This means that they have probably studied English for less than four years. However, the study of this data is meant to offer some new insights into the level of achievement of the pupils after the implementation of the school reform and after studying English for four years instead of two in the Middle School.

The rationale for taking English BEM exam papers is to find the different types of errors that are still made by Middle School pupils and how they are involved in the construction of Interlanguage. In this project the errors are classified into categories to allow a detailed description of specific errors. Explanation of errors is concerned with establishing the source of errors. This work uses the definitions of the categories established by Richards (1971a) for interlingual errors and intralingual ones. Moreover, this project is not limited to the analysis of some errors but to all the errors found in the exam papers.

1.2. Subjects

The subjects for this study are Middle school pupils who are enrolled in governmental public middle schools in Algeria. The first language spoken by all the pupils sharing in this study is Kabyle or Arabic. However, French is also spoken by the pupils since it is an academic subject studied at school. The pupils who speak French have a basic grasp of the language which they learnt from parents and school. Consequently, some of the pupils are able to communicate in French with friends. Age and gender are not considered in this work and the pupils were not informed about the purpose of the study.

1.3. Data Analysis

The types of errors committed by Algerian middle school pupils are examined and described on the basis of the pupils' performance in written English. This has been

done using the following steps. (a) identification of errors, (b) classification of errors into linguistic categories and (c) explanation of the possible causes of errors.

The data is analysed quantitatively. The exam papers are first numbered and then the written compositions in them are read to determine the message that the pupils have wanted to convey. Next, each exam paper is examined to find the errors after which they are written down. In this examination, the most common errors to the least common ones are considered. After identifying the errors, they are counted and then they are classified into main categories and sub-categories. For example, after locating the main category of pronoun errors, its sub-categories are identified mainly as (1) use of wrong pronouns, (2) Absence of a pronoun when one is required, (3) wrong use of the interrogative pronoun, (4) use of a pronoun when one is not required, (5) wrong use of the relative pronoun.

Every occurrence of an error is counted. That is to say that if the same error occurs, for example, ten times in the same interview, then it is counted as ten errors. In addition, some words contain two different kinds of errors if they are considered both at the word and sentence levels. For instance, in the sentence 'when did you decide to create hem?' the pupil uses wrongly the pronoun 'hem' to refer to an association which should be in this case 'it'. Besides this, the word 'hem' itself contains a spelling error as it should be 'him'. As a consequence, this error is found in the wrong use of pronouns and in spelling errors. Another example is noticed in the sentence 'I had lesten that you have created an association in your school'. The verb phrase 'had lesten' contains three errors. The first error is in the use of a wrong tense which should be past simple; the second error is in the wrong use of the word 'listen' to express a corresponding meaning. The learner should have written 'I heard' and the third error is found in the spelling of 'lesten'. It should be 'listen'. Thus the above sentence can be found in three

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categories that are: wrong tense, wrong use of word to express a certain meaning and spelling errors.

2. Methods

2.1. Error Identification

Errors are considered as deviant utterances when they do not fit the norm. The norm in this study corresponds to 'Standard English'. Recognising errors has not been a difficult task since the written comprehension section has been clear. This is why, it has been easy to understand the ideas of the pupils in most cases. The total of (655) deviant utterances are identified and categorised, then written down separately. The pupils' initial incorrect sentences are transformed into a form that closely resembles the accepted norms of Standard English Grammar, without forgetting to keep the original message of the sentence produced by the pupils. In other words, in many cases the same message is expressed in a more 'native' manner. Another aspect which has been taken into consideration in this work is the fact that a great number of errors have been found in each category, but only some examples are included and explained in the next chapter. This study focuses on the following language components: Spelling, syntax (grammar), morphology, and semantics.

2.2. Error Classification

After counting the errors, it has been discovered that (655) errors are committed by the pupils during the writing of their interviews. These errors are classified into (11) main categories and into (32) sub-categories which are in their turn divided up into interlingual errors and intralingual errors. These errors are the following:

Interlingual Errors

1/Spelling

Spelling errors.

2/ Auxiliaries

Absence of 'do' in questions.

Absence of 'be' and 'to be'.

Use of 'do' instead of 'be'.

Use of 'be' instead of 'do'.

Use of 'be' instead of 'have'.

Use of 'have' instead of 'be'.

3/ Articles

Use of the definite article when one is not required.

Use of an indefinite article when one is not required.

Absence of the definite article.

Absence of an indefinite article.

4/ Pronouns

Wrong use of pronouns.

Absence of a pronoun when one is required.

Wrong use of the interrogative pronoun.

Wrong use of the relative pronoun.

5/ Lexical and Semantic Errors

Use of French.

Wrong use of word to express a certain meaning.

6/ Prepositions

Wrong use of prepositions.

Absence of a preposition when one is required.

Use of a preposition when one is not required.

7/Adjectices

Adjective-noun order.

Intralingual Errors

8/ Wrong verb form

Wrong tense.

Infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, and prepositions.

ed-deletion.

Absence of verb.

Use of 'ed' with do in questions.

ing deletion.

9/ Nouns

Use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun.

Use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required.

10/ Auxiliary concord

Wrong form of 'to be'.

11/ Subject-verb agreement

Omission of 's/es' marker in third person present simple.

Use of 's/es' as a marker for plural nouns.

It is obvious that there are other categories of errors than the ones which are studied in this work, and the reason why they are not mentioned above is simply that they have not occurred.

The following table summarises the different error types found in the pupils' exam papers and the number of their occurrence.

Error type	Number of occurrence
/Spelling	
Spelling errors	184
2/ Auxiliaries	
Absence of 'do' in questions	44
Absence of 'be' and 'to be'	14
Use of 'do' instead of 'be'	8
Use of 'be' instead of 'do'	8
Use of 'be' instead of 'have'	4
Use of 'have' instead of 'be'	2
3/ Articles	
Use of the definite article when one is not required	24
Use of an indefinite article when one is not required	20
Absence of the definite article	11
Absence of an indefinite article	10
4/ Pronouns	
Wrong use of pronouns	33
Absence of a pronoun when one is required	18
Wrong use of the interrogative pronoun	11
Wrong use of the relative pronoun	3
5/ Lexical and semantic errors	
Use of French	39
Wrong use of word to express a certain meaning	24

6/ Prepositions	
Wrong use of prepositions	33
Absence of a preposition when one is required	15
Use of a preposition when one is not required	11
7/Adjectices	
Adjective-noun order	
8/ Wrong verb form	7
Wrong tense	
Infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, and prepositions	46
	18
ed-deletion	
Absence of verb	15
Use of 'ed' with do in questions	9
ing deletion	5
9/ Nouns	3
Use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun	
	11
Use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required	6
10/ Auxiliary concord	
Wrong form of 'to be'	13
11/ Subject-verb agreement	
Omission of 's/es' marker in the third person present simple	4
Use of 's/es' as a marker for plural	2

2.3. Error Explanation

'*Explanation is concerned with establishing the sources of errors accounting for why they have been made.*' (Ellis, 1996: 57). The final step in the consideration of the pupils' errors focuses in explaining the cause of the errors. Because FL errors can be the result of many factors, the explanation of these errors is very abstract in nature. The error analyst can never be certain about the exact cause of a given error as Abbot rightly puts it '*No one can claim to know precisely what causes a particular error*' (Abbot, 1980:122). However, to explain the pupils' interlanguage two methods have been used. First, Contrastive Analysis is used to recognise the interlingual errors which are the result of mother tongue interference. Second, Error Analysis is used to point out the intralingual errors which are due to rule learning (e.g: overgeneralization, false concept hypothesizing, simplification, etc).

Unlike English, Arabic and Kabyle are not indo-European languages, but they are both Semitic languages which are highly inflected. This is why, it is expected that native language interference will be very evident in most errors.

This classification has been done on the basis of the following criteria:

1- If the structure is not found in Arabic or Kabyle and it is omitted by the pupil, then it is considered an interlingual error.

2- If the structure is found in Arabic or Kabyle and the student makes errors regarding this structure, then the error is considered an intralingual error.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature related to foreign language learning dealing with Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage which constitute three main active fields of research in applied linguistics have been reviewed. It has been shown that the history of applied linguistics has been one of progress in which the errors of the old paradigms are corrected by the new ones, thanks to the contribution

of different schools of thought. Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage have been viewed as three evolutionary phases sharing one goal, the goal of understanding and explaining the nature of the target language learners' performance. In the second section, the procedural rationale for conducting the study has been provided as well as the data collection techniques employed in this research, and the data analysis used in this study.

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CHAPTER TWO

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter II

Results and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter discusses all the errors that have been identified in the corpus. Errors are discussed, classified and then explained according to their source of interference whether interlingual or intralingual, knowing that some errors may have more than one possible source of explanation. Yet, interlingual errors are classified as such on the basis of the comparison between the target language (English) and the other languages that the pupils can speak namely Arabic, Kabyle and French. Intralingual errors are explained on the basis of (a) overgeneralization, (b) simplification and ignorance of rule restrictions and (c) false-concept hypothesizing. The English examples used in this chapter have all been taken from the examined corpus. All the errors have been underlined. This chapter also contains recommendations for the teaching of English in Algeria, the prevention of errors, and the ways of dealing with errors and improving the pupils' writings.

1. Interlingual Errors

Arabic and Kabyle, as native languages and the English language have many structural differences: syntactic, morphological, lexical and semantic, it is expected that these differences become sources of difficulty for the Algerian pupils, leading to interlingual errors. Moreover, the French language is an academic subject that is studied by Algerian middle school pupils since primary school starting from the third year. Thus the pupils can speak it and therefore it can cause interference errors. However, this is not to deny that some similarities between the three languages can lead to what is called 'positive transfer'.

1.1. Spelling

Kabyle (Berber) has its own written system called 'Tifinagh' which can be considered as one of the oldest systems in the world. However, today for more practical reasons, Kabyle is written with the Latin alphabet mainly in the centre of Algeria (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 17). In Arabic, unlike English, the vowels are not written. On the other hand, English spelling is particularly difficult for Algerian pupils simply because most of the English words are not written exactly as they are pronounced. Thus, pupils tend to make errors in spelling because they spell words as they read them. In our data, invented spelling forms suggest the lack of phonemic awareness skills on the pupils' part. '*Phonemic awareness is the ability to manipulate individual speech sounds in a given language.*' (Moats, 2007). The following table shows the number of spelling errors committed by the pupils:

Table1: Spelling form errors.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Spelling form errors	76	184

The following are some examples of spelling errors:

01/ Thank you <u>mis</u> I'd <u>passt</u> a good time with you.

02/ for protect <u>awer</u> freedom and the life of many <u>peopls</u>.

03/ <u>Coud</u> morning. I'am <u>fin</u> <u>thenx</u>.

04/<u>Hollow</u> how are you.

05/ it is not a <u>probleme</u>.

06/I hope you a good luck in your <u>futur</u>.

Correction

01/ Thank you, <u>miss</u>. I'd <u>passed</u> (I spent) a good time with you.

02/ To protect <u>our</u> freedom and the life of many <u>people</u>.

03/ <u>Good</u> morning. I am <u>fine</u>, <u>thanks</u>.

04/<u>Hello</u>, how are you?

05/ It is not a <u>problem</u>.

06/I wish you good luck in your <u>future</u> life.

Failure on the part of pupils to provide appropriate graphemes for corresponding phonemes in sentences (01), (02), (03) and (04) result in phonetically inaccurate spelling errors. These spelling forms may be the result of a deficit in phonemic awareness skills. Most often, the pupils tend to write words exactly as they pronounce them, which results in the inaccurate sequencing of sounds in a given word. For instance, the pupil who wrote 'awer' for 'our' in sentence (02) has phonetic difficulties in relating sounds with their corresponding graphemes. According to Moats (2007), '*pupils should be explicitly taught to segment and sequence phonemes for the purpose of encoding and decoding.*' Some other difficulties are manifested in the use of French spelling. As pupils know that both French and English are written with the same letters, they confuse the two ways of spelling. This type of confusion is quite common among pupils. Sentences (05) and (06) are a good illustration of this interference of the French language in the pupils' writings.

1.2. Auxiliaries

Errors in the use of auxiliaries are a major problem for Algerian EFL learners. This problem seems to be present at all the levels. The errors found in this category are: Absence of 'do' in questions, absence of 'be' and 'to be', use of 'do' instead of 'be', use of 'be' instead of 'do', use of 'have' instead of 'be', and 'use of 'be' instead of 'have'. The table below summarises these errors:

Table 2: Errors in the use of auxiliaries.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Absence of 'do' in questions	76	44
Absence of 'be'	76	14
Use of 'do' instead of 'be'	76	8
Use of 'be' instead of 'do'	76	8
Use of 'have' instead of 'be'	76	4
Use of 'be' instead of 'have'	76	2

Absence of 'do' in questions

 The following are some examples of errors illustrating the absence of 'do' in questions:

07/ What you did?

08/ What association do?

09/ When you started the association?

10/ What you did in this association?

11/ Why start this association?

12/ Like you started in this magazine?

Correction

07/ What <u>do</u> you do?

08/What <u>does</u> the association do?

09/ When <u>did</u> you start this association?

10/ What <u>do</u> you do in this association?

11/ Why <u>did</u> you start this association?

12/ <u>Do</u> you like working in this magazine?

Algerian pupils sometimes have problems in formulating questions. In Arabic, or Kabyle, the word order for a question is the same as for a statement, but only the

intonation is different (Hajjar, 1986: 327). Thus, the pupils tend to have many problems in this area, because they have little knowledge of English. The result is that sentences are sometimes so badly formulated that they cannot be understood without knowledge of Arabic or Kabyle. In Arabic or Kabyle, the auxiliary 'do' in questions does not exist, so pupils may delete it or put it in a wrong place (Hajjar, 1986: 109). The failure to apply do-insertion in sentences (07), (08), (09), (10), and (11) is due to the absence of this structure in Arabic and Kabyle. These structures are wrong because of word-for-word translation from Arabic or Kabyle. However, in sentence (12) the inversion of the subject and verb, 'Like you ….?' suggests that this error is intralingual rather than interlingual. This error is the result of overgeneralisation. The pupils studied the subject-verb inversion when the verb is an auxiliary and overgeneralised this when the main verb is not an auxiliary. Another explanation of this error can be found in the emphasis that teachers give to the subject-verb inversion in class. One can notice that errors sometimes can be explained with more than one source. Thus, it is not advisable to attribute errors to a single source.

Absence of 'be' and 'to be'

The following are some examples of the errors in the absence of 'be' and 'to be':

13/ What the name of your association?

14/ 'How are you?' 'I fine'

15/ What her name?

16/ This why I doen't like yours.

17/ Where situed this association.

18/ My association very interesting.

Correction

13/ What is the name of your association?

14/ 'How are you?' 'I am fine'

15/ What <u>is</u> its name?

16/ This <u>is</u> why I don't like yours.

17/ Where <u>is</u> the association situated?

18/ My association <u>is</u> very interesting.

In Arabic or Kabyle, there is no auxiliary 'be' at all as shown in the following examples (Mammeri, 1986: 91):

Arabic   /Al-waladu   dakiyu/

              The boy   intelligent

              (The boy is intelligent)

Kabyle   Aqcic   igharcen

              Boy   intelligent

              (The boy is intelligent)

Algerian EFL learners tend to omit 'be' and 'to be'. Also, they sometimes put the verb 'to be' in places where it should not be used. This is due to the influence of both their mother tongue and their insufficient knowledge of English. The first cause for auxiliary omission in sentences (13), (14), (15), (16), (17), and (18) is L1 interference. The English auxiliary 'be' has no corresponding word in Arabic and Kabyle. The result of the translation of any of the sentences into Arabic, for example, is a grammatical error.

In Arabic   /Ma   ismu   al-djamɛiya?/

               What   name   (the)association?

               (What is the name of the association?)

Use of 'do' instead of 'be'

The following are some examples of errors in the use of "do" instead of "be":

19/ What the activities <u>did</u> you?

20/ What <u>did</u> you doing?

21/ What <u>did</u> your project?

22/ What <u>did</u> he name?

Correction

19/ What <u>are</u> your activities?

20/ What <u>are</u> you doing?

21/ What <u>is</u> your project?

22/ What <u>is</u> its name?

Use of 'be' instead of 'do'

The following are some examples of the errors in the use of 'be' instead of 'do':

23/ <u>Are</u> you love this association?

24/ <u>Are</u> you live in a clean district?

25/ When this association <u>is</u> started?

26/ Whay <u>are</u> you creat this association?

Correction

23/ <u>Do</u> you like this association?

24/ <u>Do</u> you live in a clean district?

25/ When <u>did</u> this association start?

26/ Why <u>did</u> you create this association?

Algerian pupils often have problems with the different auxiliaries that exist in English. The substitution of an auxiliary for another is probably due to the fact that Arabic and Kabyle lack the auxiliary system (Mammeri, 1986: 91). Another possible explanation for this kind of error may be confusion or memory limitation due to the fact that a big data concerning auxiliaries is introduced in the English programme.

Use of 'be' instead of 'have'

The following are some examples of the errors in the use of 'be' instead of 'have':

27/ The association <u>is</u> different activities.

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28/ You <u>are</u> created an association.

Correction

27/ The association <u>has</u> different activities.

28/ You <u>have</u> created an association, haven't you?

Use of 'have' instead of 'be'

The following are some examples of the errors in the use of 'have' instead of 'be':

29/ Yes, you <u>have </u>a rizon.

30/ I started the association when I <u>have</u> 30 old.

31/ What <u>has</u> your activities?

32/ This association it <u>has</u> created because the want to live in a clean district.

Correction

29/ Yes, you <u>are</u> right.

30/ I started the association when I <u>was</u> 30 years old.

31/ What <u>are</u> your activities?

32/ This association <u>was</u> created, as we wanted to live in a clean district.

Errors made in both sub-categories are less frequent than those in other sub-categories. This is because the topic that the pupils wrote about did not require them to make errors in these two sub-categories. However, in sentences (29) and (30) 'are' and 'was' should be used respectively. In both examples the errors are due to French interference. Pupils sometimes tend to transfer some words or structures from French to English. The French translation of one of the sentences is:

J'ai commence l'association quand j'avais 30 ans.

I (have) started the association when I had 30 years.

I started the association when I was 30 years old.

The use of 'has' instead of 'are' in sentence (31) is probably due to a random use of auxiliaries. In sentence (32) 'was' is required to form the passive voice. The reason

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behind this error is probably found in the introduction of many different grammatical structures during the four years of English study which makes it difficult for middle school pupils to internalise all of them. So errors probably occur as a result of insufficient practice.

1.3. Articles

One of the most problematic aspects of the English language for Algerian pupils is the notion of definiteness. Quirk and al (1972) claim that the definite article 'the' and the indefinite articles a(n) are two exclusive articles in English. The definite article 'the' is used with nouns which suggest that the learner is familiar with its inference. The definite article is used with nouns in some situations, and in other situations the noun appears with zero article or with the indefinite article a(n) (Murphy, 1994: 142). Errors of absence and addition of the articles 'the' and 'a(n)' are common among the Algerian EFL learners. In the corpus four categories of errors with articles have been found: Use of the definite article when one is not required, use of the indefinite article when one is not required, absence of the definite article, and absence of the indefinite article. These errors are shown in the table below:

Table 3: Errors in the use of articles.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Use of the definite article when one is not required	76	24
Use of the indefinite article when one is not required	76	20
Absence of the definite article	76	11
Absence of the indefinite article	76	10

Use of the definite article when one is not required:

The following are some examples of the use of the definite article when one is not required.

33/ we'll started <u>the </u>next Friday.

34/ I like <u>the</u> peace.

35/ we have cleaned <u>the</u> different places.

36/ We'll be abell stop <u>the</u> pollution.

37/ Can I do <u>the</u> interview with you.

38/ what are you doing for <u>the </u>clean district?

Correction

33/ we'll start next Friday.

34/ I like peace.

35/ we have cleaned different places.

36/ we'll be able to stop pollution.

37/ Can I make an interview with you.

38/ what are you doing to have a clean district?

Errors in this category are the most common and the most frequent error type among Algerian EFL learners. In English 'the' is used when we talk of one particular and precise thing. However, a noun is not preceded by the definite article when it is used in a more general sense. For example: 'She has got two boys and two girls. The boys are dark, but the girls are fair'. In the sentence 'boys and girls always want to look like adults' the article 'the' is omitted. In addition, 'the' can also be used with singular nouns to refer to the whole class of beings or things. Thus, in 'the giraffe is the tallest animal' reference is made not to one particular giraffe but to giraffes in general. A plural noun without 'the' also expresses the same idea. 'Giraffes are the tallest animals'. Finally, 'the' can be used with singular, plural, and uncountable nouns (Murphy, 1994: 144-146).

However, a noun in Arabic is definite when it is preceded by 'al' (the), and it is indefinite when the article 'al' (the) is absent. The article 'al' always comes before the

noun whether the noun is singular, plural, countable, or uncountable. Arabic lacks the indefinite articles a(n) (D'alverny, 1986: 17). In Kabyle (Berber) the noun whether it is singular, plural countable or uncountable is never preceded by an article. Thus, Kabyle is a language which is characterised by the absence of articles. Only some signs, such as the use of certain vowels, are used to show gender and number of nouns (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 43). Such differences in the usage of the definite article among the three languages are problematic for Algerian EFL learners and explain why the above sentences are wrong.

The addition of 'the' in sentences (33), (34), (35) and (36) is due to the interference of Arabic as well as to insufficient knowledge of English. In fact, because of the pupils' restricted exposure to the use of the word 'the' in certain contexts they tend to over generalise. Few errors are found in the use of the definite article for the indefinite article. Sentences (37) and (38) are illustrative examples of this case. This kind of error is probably due to teaching where teachers in the middle school don't teach in which cases the articles 'the' and 'a(n)' are exactly used.

Use of the indefinite article when one is not required

The following are some examples of the use of the indefinite article when one is not required:

39/ I like have <u>an</u> information for your association.

40/ I bought <u>a</u> food and I distribute a different medicament.

41/ The association flight and distribut <u>a</u> different help, a water.

42/ Yes, I have <u>a</u> questions.

43/ We are building <u>a</u> laborators and a classes to study mates.

44/What is <u>a</u> different activities of the association.

Correction

39/ I'd like to have some information about your association.

40/ I distribute food and different medicines.

41/ The association provides help, water…..

42/ Yes, I have some questions.

43/ We are building laboratories for biology sessions and classes for maths.

44/What are the different activities of the association?

Errors with the indefinite article are the second most common error in the category of errors with articles. The pupils' major difficulties in this area is that they tend to use the English uncountable nouns as countable and consequently place indefinite articles a(n) in front of them. While examining the above examples (39), (40) and (41), it is evident that the nouns: information, food, help and water are uncountable nouns in English whereas in Arabic they are countable nouns. Thus, it seems that the pupils went back to their mother tongue and made these errors as a direct result of a native language from Arabic. In sentences (42), (43) and (44) the article 'a' is used with plural nouns: questions, laboratories and activities respectively. This error is probably due to both the pupils' unfamiliarity with the function of the zero article in English and to the absence of the indefinite article in Arabic and Kabyle.

Absence of the definite article

The following are some examples of the absence of the definite article:

45/ What is name of the association?

46/ Wat is the name of association?

47/ What are other project that you have selected?

48/ Name of the association is magazine school.

Correction

45/ What is the name of the association?

46/ What is the name of the association?

47/ What are the other projects that you have selected?

48/ The name of the association is 'School Magazine'.

In the examples mentioned earlier, it is clear that the pupils did not use the article 'the' because of mother tongue interference. The translation of sentence (45) in Arabic for example would be:

/Ma hua ismu al-djamɛiya?/

What name (the) association?

(What is the name of the association?)

Another possible explanation for the absence of the definite article can be found in the poor teaching of this grammatical point. Pupils are probably not taught when to and when not to use articles and which articles fit in which context. However, a better explanation for these errors is the influence of the Arabic or Kabyle languages and the other explanation could be a contributing factor. In fact, Brown (1973) states '*that the acquisition of the article system is a late event*'.

Absence of the indefinite article

The following are some examples of the absence of the indefinite article:

49/ Because, they coant live in clean district.

50/ We will started association to help people in this studies.

51/ I'm journalist.

52/ Yes, that's not problem.

53/ That work is difficult works.

Correction

49/ Because they cannot live in <u>a</u> clean district.

50/ We will start <u>an</u> association to help pupils in their studies.

51/ I'm <u>a</u> journalist.

52/ Yes, that's not <u>a</u> problem.

53/ This work is <u>a</u> difficult one.

Errors with indefinite articles are not many. As mentioned previously, Arabic and Kabyle lack the presence of the indefinite articles which make the use of these articles a(n) problematic for Algerian EFL learners. In a great number of cases where pupils have omitted the indefinite articles, a link can be made in reference to Arabic or Kabyle. Thus, these errors are clear evidence of mother tongue interference since Arabic and Kabyle do not require the use of these articles. Scott and Tucker (1974) acknowledge that the presence of these errors is the consequence of the non-presence of the indefinite articles in Arabic.

1.4. Pronouns

In the data used for this study, four categories concerning pronoun errors are identified. These are: Wrong use of pronouns, absence of a pronoun when one is required, wrong use of the interrogative pronoun and wrong use of the relative pronoun. The table below summarises the errors found in the interlanguage of pupils:

Table 4: Errors in the use of pronouns.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Wrong use of pronouns	76	33
Absence of a pronoun when one is required	76	18
Wrong use of the interrogative pronoun	76	11
Wrong use of the relative pronoun	76	3

Wrong use of pronouns

The following are some examples of the errors in the wrong use of pronouns:

54/ I'd like to question <u>your</u> for your project.

55/ When <u>your</u> started the association?

56/ What <u>your</u> are doing?

57/ Can you till me way <u>your</u> created this association?

58/ What is <u>her</u> objectif?

59/ We protect the children and we defend <u>her</u> rights

60/ When you have started <u>them</u>?

61/ <u>It</u> names 'the association to protect the environment'

62/ We agree with <u>they</u> to stopped the station.

Correction

54/ I'd like to question <u>you</u> about your project.

55/ When did <u>you</u> start the association?

56/ What are <u>you</u> doing?

57/ Can you tell me why <u>you</u> created this association?

58/ What is <u>its</u> objective?

59/ We protect the children as well as <u>their</u> rights.

60/ When did you start <u>it</u>?

61/ <u>its</u> name is 'the association to protect the environment'.

62/ We agree with <u>them</u> to close the station.

Personal pronouns functioning as the subject in a sentence occur in Arabic and Kabyle as independent words, whereas those functioning as a direct object (me, you, him, etc) or indirect object (to me, to you, to him, etc) occur as suffix to the verb (D'alverny, 1986: 35). In our corpus the pupils seem to confuse between personal pronouns and possessive adjectives (my, your his, her, etc). Indeed, a quite big number

of errors in the use of personal pronouns and possessive adjectives are found in the corpus. In sentences (54), (55), (56), (57) the pupils have shown clear difficulty in selecting the right word. A possible explanation to this phenomenon could be related to language learning. In the first year of language learning the quantity of input is so high that pupils may have put the pronouns and the possessive adjectives in the same category that represents 'people' in general. Personal pronouns and possessive adjectives have the same characteristic in the identification of people in a sentence, possibly resulting in this confusion and misrepresentation. Sentence (58) is an interesting error which is directly related to mother tongue interference. The pupil refers to an association that has been created using the possessive pronoun 'her' not 'its'. This is because in Arabic and Kabyle the nonhuman 'association' is treated as feminine and is referred to as such. More examples are provided to show this negative transfer. In the following examples all the pupils are talking about an association that they have created:

63/ What is <u>her</u> name?

64/ What are <u>her</u> activities?

65/ <u>Her</u> objective is to live in a clean district.

66/ <u>Her</u> name is "future peace".

67/ <u>She</u> regle the problems of peoples.

Correction

63/ What is <u>its</u> name?

64/ What are <u>her</u> activities?

65/ <u>Its</u> (our) objective is to live in a clean district.

66/ <u>its</u> name is "future peace".

67/ <u>it</u> (we) solve people's problems.

Sentences (59), (60), and (61) illustrate the use of wrong reference pronouns. The failure to use the right pronoun is probably due to the inadequate teaching at the beginning stages of learning English as a foreign language. In sentence (62) the use of 'they' instead of 'them' is an interlingual error because in Arabic, in the case of 'they', there is no distinction between this personal pronoun used as subject, and this same personal pronoun used as object.

Absence of a pronoun when one is required

The following are some examples of the errors in the absence of a pronoun when one is required:

68/ The travelling by bus is very nice because is not espencive.

69/ Is started in Mars 1945.

70/ is situated in New York sity.

71/ First, protected the droit of humain and shildren.

72/ When did started this association.

73/ Why organisate this association.

74/ 'What is your activities.' ' is clean a district.'

Correction

68/ Travelling by bus is very nice, because <u>it</u> is not expensive.

69/ <u>It</u> started in March 1945.

70/ <u>It</u> is situated in New York city.

71/ First, <u>we</u> protect human rights and children's rights

72/ When did <u>you</u> start this association?

73/ Why did <u>you</u> create this association?

74/ 'What is your main activity?' '<u>it</u> is cleaning the district.'

This category of errors includes the omission of subject pronouns. In English the pronoun is always used alone before the verb, but subject pronouns in Arabic or Kabyle

are not used independently in sentences that start with verbs, and if there is a pronoun before the verb it is only for emphasis (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 139). In Arabic or Kabyle the pronoun is attached to the verb sometimes as its prefix and sometimes as its suffix (D'alverny, 1986: 35).

E.g1 :   In Arabic   /dahaba   ila   al-madrassati/

             In Kabyle   yeruh   ar-lakul

                                Went(he)   to   (the) school

                                (He went to school.)

E.g2:   In Arabic   /yadhabu   ila   al-madrassati/

             In Kabyle   yetruhu   ar-lakul

                                (He)goes   to   school

                                (He goes to school.)

'dahaba' and 'yadhabo' like 'yeruh' and 'yetruhu' are seen as single units, this is why pupils omit subject pronouns when writing in English since using them would be considered as redundancy. Thus, it is evident that this omission is due to the interference from Arabic or Kabyle. The deleted subject pronouns in sentences (68), (69),(70),(71),(72), (73), and (74) are due to the Arabic or Kabyle languages where they are implied with the verbs and writing them would be redundant. This is of course not the case in English. It is, therefore, clear that these deviant utterances are due to mother tongue interference.

Wrong use of the interrogative pronoun

The following are some examples of errors caused by the wrong use of an interrogative pronoun:

75/ 'When do you begane the organisation?' ' In Algiers.'

76/ How is the name of your organisation.

77/ Where is the name of association?

Correction

75/ 'Where did you start the organisation?' 'In Algiers.'

76/ What is the name of your organisation?

77/ What is the name of your association?

Pupils learning English as a foreign language often confuse between interrogative pronouns especially 'when' and 'where'. Moreover, the word order in questions is also a problematic issue for these learners. The discussion about this second point is stated later in the same chapter. The failure to choose the correct interrogative pronoun in sentences (75), (76) and (77) is probably due to the lack of practice of these words or to memory limitation.

Wrong use of the relative pronoun

The following are some examples of the errors in the wrong use of the relative pronoun:

78/ I'd like to think you. Mtr 'B' to have accept awer invitation which her

subject is your association.

79/ He interdict the nuclear tests and clean the routes, and oceans and destroy the

usins who pollute the earth.

80/ It was created to transformate the life people, clean the classes, plant

flowers, help animals who are ill.

Correction

78/ I'd like to thank you, sir for accepting our invitation related to

your association.

79/ the association has many activities, including cleaning the roads,

fighting against the nuclear tests and limiting the number of factories which

pollute the earth.

80/ It was created to transform the life of people, clean classes, plant

flowers, and help animals, which are ill.

In English, the relative pronouns are (who, whom, whose, which). 'Who' and 'whom' are used for persons and 'which' is used for things or animals (Murphy, 1994: 182-187). The Arabic relative pronouns lack the person distinction between human/non-human, and have only a gender distinction 'alladi' for masculine and 'allati' for feminine (Hajjar, 1986: 359). The equivalent of the English 'whose' is also absent in Arabic (D'alverny, 1986: 41). In Kabyle, the relative pronoun used for human/non-human, feminine or masculine is the single vowel 'i' or 'iy' (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 163). However, in sentence (78) a relative pronoun is not necessary. In sentences (79) and (80) the relative pronoun 'who' is substituted for 'which'. Substitution of the relative pronouns is not a case of L1 interference. These errors are probably due to the lack of mastery of the English relative pronouns, though three examples found in the corpus do not constitute a large data to further explain accurately the origin of these errors.

1.5. Lexical and Semantic Errors

It is important to mention that errors in this category are selected in this work only with reference to the sentence level and not to the discourse level. There are two main categories of errors in the wrong use of words: Use of French and wrong use of word to express a certain meaning. These errors are shown in the table below:

Table 5: Lexical and semantic errors.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Use of French	76	39
Wrong use of word to express a certain meaning	76	24

Use of French

The following are some examples of the errors in the use of French:

81/ I am <u>ravie</u>.

82/ Are you a <u>mombre</u> in the association.

71

83/ Thank you. you are very <u>gentil</u> boy.

84/ <u>Puisque</u> they are a lot of problem in this class, I have a idea.

85/ She <u>régle</u> the problems of peoples.

Correction

81/ I am <u>pleased</u>.

82/ Are you a <u>member</u> in the association.

83/ Thank you. You are a very <u>kind</u> person.

84/ <u>Since </u>there are a lot of problems in this class, why don't we …….?

85/ The association tries <u>to solve</u> the problems of people.

Because of the limited vocabulary that pupils possess it is quite evident that they try to use some French words in English sentences to express their meaning. Because English is written with the same letters as French, pupils think that borrowing words from French without making any changes is always possible. As a result, they form semantically deviant sentences such as those mentioned above. The use of French is clear evidence that the pupils confuse between these two languages and that after four years of studying English they do not have the basic and necessary vocabulary to communicate and transmit their ideas in a clear and precise way.

Wrong use of word to express a certain meaning

The following are some examples of errors caused by the use of a wrong word to express a certain meaning:

86/ I <u>had listen</u> that you have created an association in your school.

87/ can you <u>said</u> me, when you're the association stated?

88/ I <u>hope</u> you a good luck in your futur.

89/ Thank you <u>mester</u>.

90/ you are very kind to <u>take</u> me some information about your association

91/ Why did you <u>invent</u> this association?

Correction

86/ I <u>heard</u> that you have created an association in your school.

87/ can you <u>tell</u> me when you started the association?

88/ I <u>wish</u> you good luck in your future life.

89/ Thank you, <u>sir</u>.

90/ you are very kind to <u>give</u> me some information about your association.

91/ Why did you <u>create</u> this association?

Generally speaking, in English the majority of words do not have a fixed and a restricted meaning. The meaning depends on the context the word is used in. Not knowing about this fact and on the basis of the equivalent meaning in the other language results in pupils' production of semantically incorrect sentences. In the above sentences, the pupils sometimes use a literal translation from Arabic or Kabyle because they do not have sufficient knowledge of English to help them express their meaning. The Arabic word 'samiâ' can be translated in English as 'listen' or 'hear' depending on the context. The pupil in sentence (86) is not aware about the context in which those two words are used. This is why he has taken haphazardly one of them. Similarly, the words 'say' and 'tell' have only one equivalent in Arabic 'kala'. The misuse of 'say' for 'tell' in sentence (87) is a clear evidence of the lack of vocabulary practice. The semantic deviation in sentences (88) and (89) are probably understandable but awkward to the native English speaker. Their translation into Arabic is completely clear. Because of their lack of relevant vocabulary in real context, the pupils tend to use the first word that comes to their minds. The correct words in sentences (90) and (91) are 'give' and 'create' respectively.

Learning a language in a foreign context without insisting on collocation, a fact that certain words are regularly found in the company of others makes it difficult for learners to produce natural utterances. A useful way to deal with such errors is to teach

vocabulary in context. An emphasis of the reading skill could be helpful in this situation where English is a foreign language.

1.6. Prepositions

One of the most common and serious language challenges for the learners of English is the use of correct and appropriate prepositions. This is due to the fact that prepositions in English are many and have various functions. In fact, prepositions such as those of time, place, and direction create a huge confusion for most learners. Most of the errors found in our corpus concerning the use of prepositions are errors of substitution, omission and addition. Errors in the use of prepositions are characterised as either: wrong use of prepositions, absence of a preposition when one is required, and use of a preposition when one is not required. These errors are shown in the table below:

Table 6: Errors in the use of prepositions.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Wrong use of prepositions	76	33
Absence of a preposition when one is required	76	15
Use of a preposition when one is not required	76	11

Wrong use of prepositions

The following are some examples of the errors in the wrong use of prepositions:

92/ We started the association <u>in</u> 27 may 1996.

93/ I start the association <u>at </u>saturday.

.   94/ I started the association <u>on </u>1985.

95/ Can you going with me <u>in</u> my school <u>for</u> asked you a questions.

96/ I created this association <u>for </u>defended the environment

74

97/ I encourage people <u>for</u> respect the enviremen .

98/ I like have an information <u>for</u> your asociation.

99/ 'when you started you association'. 'perhaps <u>since</u> two years.'

Correction

92/ We started the association <u>on</u> may 27th 1996.

93/ I started the association <u>on</u> Saturday .

.   94/ I started the association <u>in</u> 1985.

95/ Can you come with me <u>to</u> my school, so that I may ask you some questions?

96/ I created this association <u>to</u> protect the environment

97/ I encourage people <u>to</u> respect the environment.

98/ I'd like to have some information <u>about</u> your association.

99/ 'when did you start your association'. 'Perhaps two years <u>ago</u>.'

For the majority of errors in the use of wrong prepositions, it has been noticed that the main source is mother tongue interference. One preposition in English can have the meaning of two or more prepositions in Arabic or Kabyle and vice versa. For example, in the English language there are at least three time prepositions used to express one point in time 'on', 'in', and 'at'. The preposition 'on' is primarily used to indicate days of the week, or month in addition to names of holidays, etc. However 'in' is used to describe such items as centuries, years, months, seasons, and also with a part of the day 'morning', 'afternoon', etc. Finally, 'at' is implemented when talking about a certain moment of the day considered as a point (e.g. at noon,), with hours of the day (e.g. at 10 o'clock), and with certain expressions such as Easter and Christmas when referring to the entire holiday season (Murphy, 1994: 240).

However, in the Arabic language, there exists a different situation. In order to express one point of time, either 'fi', which is the Arabic equivalent of in', is employed or 'ala', which is the Arabic equivalent of 'at', is used to indicated hours of the day. For

the English preposition 'on' there exists no counterpart in Arabic (Hajjar, 1986: 60- 74). In the Kabyle language, there exits only one preposition 'dhi' for the English prepositions 'on, in, at' (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 165). Thus, when attempting to indicate one point in time Algerian middle school pupils select wrong prepositions when equivalents are not found in their mother tongue, and the result could be deviant utterances highlighted in sentences (92), (93),and (94). In sentence (92) the use of 'in' is the result of a translation from Arabic to English. In sentences (93) and (94), the pupils fail to see the distinction between 'at' and 'on'. If the teacher explains these distinctions to his pupils and provides them with exercises on the use of proper prepositions indicating the difference between the pupils' mother tongue and English, the pupils should be able to avoid this confusion.

 On the other hand, 'fi' (which means 'in') and 'ila' (which means 'to') are employed for expression of place (Hajjar, 1986: 85). The use of 'in' instead of 'to' in sentence (95) is not the result of a literal translation because 'ila' means 'to' in English. Thus, the translation of the Arabic sentence is:

/dahaba ila al-madrassati/

Went-he to (the) school.

(He went to school.)

Pupils fail to use the preposition 'to' with the verb 'go' because they have not probably learnt that the preposition 'to' is a preposition of movement and that it collocates with verbs of movements such as: go, come, drive, etc. If the pupils knew about this grammatical point sentence (95) would be a case of positive transfer.

The preposition 'for' is used in sentences (96) and (97) above because it corresponds to the Arabic preposition 'li'. However, 'to' can also correspond to the Arabic preposition 'li'(Hajjar, 1986: 64). The fact that Algerian EFL learners do not learn what is the exact meaning of the English prepositions and when they could be

used leads them to rely on their native language or to choose haphazardly, such as in sentence (98), a preposition supposed to fit the structure. If they are taught that 'for' is usually followed by a gerund, and that 'to' is followed by an infinitive then they will probably distinguish between 'for' and 'to'.

Sometimes when the equivalent of the preposition is not found in Arabic the Algerian pupil tends to look for its equivalent in French. This results in deviant utterances shown in sentence (99). The translation of this sentence in French would be:

'Quand est ce que vous avez créé l'association?' 'Depuis deux ans'

When you have created the association   since two years.

(When did you create the association   two years ago.)

Absence of a preposition when one is required

The following are some examples of errors due to the absence of a preposition when one is required:

100/ It was created to transformate the life people.

101/ Because of the pollution the environment my schoolmates created an association.

102/ This association it has created because the pollution of the environment.

103/ It will be a great palisir.

104/ I want know the name of your association.

105/ Her objectif is live in clean district and protect a people.

Correction

100/ It was created to transform the life <u>of</u> people.

101/ Because of the pollution <u>of</u> the environment, my schoolmates created an association.

102/ This association was created because of the pollution of the environment.

103/ It will be <u>with</u> great pleasure.

104/ I want <u>to</u> know the name of your association.

105/ Our objective is <u>to</u> live in a clean district and <u>to</u> protect people.

The omission of the preposition 'of ' in sentences (100) and (101) is an effect of mother tongue interference. In Arabic 'of' is omitted. Sentence (100) could be like this in Arabic: /usisat li taghiir hayate al-nas/

(it was) created to tranfom life (the) people.

(It was created to transform the life of the people.)

Thus, the pupil applies this structure to the structure of English producing ungrammatical structures. If the pupils are taught the difference between the two structures they would not probably make such errors.

Analogy is another factor that plays an important role in the production of errors. The omission of the preposition 'of' in sentence (102) is a clear example. The pupil may have thought that 'because' does not take a preposition in a sentence like: 'He is absent because he is ill', he applied this in sentence (102). In sentence (103), it is assumed that the pupil is thinking in French because of the French word 'plaisir'. However, this does not justify the absence of the preposition in this sentence. The absence of 'with' could be then due to the incomplete acquisition of linguistic knowledge related to prepositions. The omission of the preposition 'to' in sentences (104) and (105) is the result of Arabic or Kabyle interference. The fact that in Arabic and Kabyle the infinitive of verbs is used without any preposition has caused the pupils to omit this preposition in English.

The absence of certain prepositions is sometimes due to the pupils' lack of knowledge of certain given structures and arrangements present in the English language. Teachers should explain to pupils the differences between the English and Arabic or Kabyle structures and study prepositions in English contexts where they are not needed in Arabic or Kabyle and vice versa.

Use of a preposition when one is not required

The following are some examples of errors caused by the use of a preposition when one is not required:

106/ 'When did you start the association?' 'In the last year'

107/ The association started for two years ago.

108/ I would asking for you some coitions.

109/ Can I ask for you question.

110/ What is the date of you started the association?

Correction

106/ 'When did you start the association?' 'We started it last year'

107/ The association started two years ago.

108/ I would like to ask you some questions?

109/ Can I ask you some questions?

110/ On which date did you start the association?

The insertion of prepositions in the sentences above is attributed to L1 interference. Some of the errors in this category are caused by Arabic verbs which require the presence of a preposition to be associated with. In sentence (106) and (107) the Arabic verb corresponding to the English verb 'start' is 'badaa' which is always used with the prepositions 'fi' (which means 'in') or 'moonthoo' (which means 'for').e.g:

/badaa   al-amala   fi al-ama   al-madi /

Started (he) (the) work   in (the) year (the) last.

(He started work last year.)

The fact that pupils seem to think in terms of Arabic has resulted in the addition of these prepositions which is ungrammatical in English. The addition of the preposition 'for' in sentences (108) and (109) and the preposition 'of' in sentence (110) seem to be

the result of random and haphazard use of prepositions. This unclear use of prepositions is probably one of the distinct characteristics of Foreign Language learning. Consequently, when writing their interviews in English, pupils have been faced with the challenge of choosing the appropriate preposition in the right contexts. Thus being not sure of what preposition to use, and hoping to solve this problem, the pupils have relied on the literal translation or simply they have selected the preposition that has sounded best to them.

1.7. Adjectives

In the present research, not many errors concerning adjectives have been found. Seven examples found in the corpus can not be considered as a large data to explain accurately the origin of these errors. This is probably due to the fact that the proposed subject in the BEM English exam did not incite the pupils to use many adjectives. The only category discovered in the data is the adjective-noun order. The number of errors in this category is shown in the following table:

Table 7: Errors in the use of adjectives.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Adjective-noun order	76	7

The following are some examples of errors related to the Adjective-noun order:

111/ We find stady the peoples poor.

112/ We give the food for the familly poor.

113/ The masacre in the wars because the Bombs Nuclear.

Correction

111/ We help poor people to study.

112/ We give food for poor families.

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113/ War massacres are due to <u>nuclear bombs</u>.

In Arabic or Kabyle, the adjective follows the noun (D'alverny, 1986: 25). These adjectives agree in gender, number and quality with the nouns they modify. Likewise, the adjective agrees with the noun in being definite or indefinite. For example:

In Arabic /Al-manzilu al-djamilu/

In Kabyle Axxam igcevhan.

(The) house (the) beautiful.

(The beautiful house.)

The case of English is the opposite of Arabic or Kabyle. This explains in a general sense the frequent occurrence of common errors consisting in mixing adjective-noun word order. The primary cause of the deviant utterances in the earlier mentioned sentences is, of course, L1 interference. Sentences (111), (112) and (113) have the same kind of errors: placing the noun before the adjective. In so doing, the learners have followed the structure of Arabic or Kabyle and have transferred it into English which has resulted in the erroneous structures mentioned above.

2. Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors are not the result of interference from one language to another. Their origin is found in the learnt language itself which is, in this case, English. They show the learner's competence at a particular stage and determine some of the features of rule learning and Foreign Language learning. In this research, the errors are explained in terms of the following sources: (1) overgeneralization, which means that the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of this knowledge of the learnt rules, (2) simplification and ignorance of rule restrictions, which is the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply: incomplete application of rules; and (3) false-concept hypothesizing. The intralingual errors identified in this study are classified into the

following categories: wrong verb form, nouns, state verb concord, and subject-verb agreement.

2.1. Wrong Verb Form

The use of correct tenses and correct verb forms is highly problematic for middle school pupils in particular and Algerian EFL learners in general. The incorrect use of tenses in English is due to the differences in the tenses between Arabic or Kabyle and English. Because of the absence of any auxiliary system in Arabic and Kabyle, the continuous and the perfect tenses do not exist in these languages. Hence, pupils tend to confuse the continuous form and the simple form. Errors committed in this section are classified into the following categories: wrong tense, infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, prepositions, ed-deletion, absence of verb, use of 'ed' with do in questions, and 'ing' deletion. These errors are summarised in the following table:

Table 8: Errors in the wrong verb form.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Wrong tense	76	46
Infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, and prepositions	76	18
ed-deletion	76	15
Absence of verb	76	9
Use of 'ed' with do in questions	76	5
ing deletion	76	3

Wrong Tense

The following are some examples of errors caused by the wrong use of tense:

114/ My first participation in this association is in 2002.

115/ Why do you create an associan?

116/ Its created probably 1 month in 03/ 05/ 2007.

117/ Who <u>create</u> you this association.

118/ It <u>had</u> three different activities.

119/ How many members <u>participated</u> in this association?

120/ What <u>do</u> you <u>do</u> in this moment?

121/ This association <u>exist</u> for tree years.

122/ When your schoolmates <u>has create</u> this association.

123/ I <u>had lesten</u> that you have created an association in your school.

Correction

114/ My first participation in this association <u>was</u> in 2002.

115/ Why <u>did</u> you <u>create</u> an association?

116/ It <u>was created</u> probably a month ago, on 03/ 05/ 2007.

117/ Who <u>created</u> this association?

118/ It <u>has</u> three different activities.

119/ How many members <u>participate</u> in this association?

120/ What <u>are</u> you <u>doing</u> at this moment?

121/ This association <u>has existed</u> for three years.

122/ When <u>did</u> your schoolmates <u>create</u> this association?

123/ I <u>heard</u> that you have created an association in your school.

Tense substitution errors are the most frequent errors produced by the subjects of the present study. In fact, English tenses constitute a great difficulty for EFL learners in general. The reason behind this difficulty is stated by Larsen-Freeman as follows:

> The meaning of tenses entails a language specific way of dealing with time and the relationship of events and interlocutors to time. Because tense systems are language specific, it is not surprising that ESL/EFL learners have a great deal of difficulty mastering the English tense aspect system. (Larsen-Freeman, 1991: 61)

Arabic distinguishes between two tenses. '*Strictly speaking there are two tenses of the verb: the imperfect (used for incomplete actions in the present or the future) and*

the perfect (for completed actions in the past).' (Ezzeldin and leng, 1988:110). Similar situation exists in Kabyle. However, some English tenses do not exist in Arabic or Kabyle. It should be noted that some errors in the wrong use of tense are due to mother tongue interference, and that others are due to intralingual sources. Sentences (114), (115), (116) and (117) require the past simple instead of the present simple. Since the past exists in the Arabic and Kabyle languages and refers to the same kind of actions that the English past simple expresses, it can be concluded that errors in the earlier mentioned sentences are not the result of mother tongue interference. The reason for these errors is probably due to false concept hypothesising or to the hurry, knowing that in an exam-like atmosphere, stress is a factor of destabilising the pupils. In sentences (118) and (119) the present simple is substituted for the past simple. Since the Arabic imperfect form is the equivalent of the present simple in English (Ezzeldin and leng, 1988:110), these errors are not considered as negative transfer. This error is due to incomplete acquisition of the target language rules or to false concept hypothesising. In sentence (120) the pupil fails in using the present continuous. This is because of the non existence of this tense in the Arabic and Kabyle languages. This error could be ascribed to mother tongue interference. Interference from the French language is also detected in this category. As stated earlier on, when the pupil does not find an adequate structure in his native language that fits the English context he/she uses structures directly from French. Sentences (121), (122) and (123) are clear examples of this transfer. Sentences (121) and (122) are translated like this:

1/ L'association   existe   depuis trois ans.

The association   exist   for   three years.

(The association has existed   for   three years.)

2/ Quand-est-ce que vos camarades   ont créé   l'association ?

When   your classmates have created   the association ?

(When did your classmates create the association ?)

Infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, and prepositions

The following are some examples of the errors in Infinitive not used after some verbs, modals, and prepositions:

124/ I'm very happy to <u>organizing</u> this.

125/ Do you want to <u>speaking</u> for this.

126/ We agree with they to <u>stopped</u> the station.

127/ can you <u>going</u> with me in my school?

128/ I will <u>created</u> an association.

129/ We must always <u>cleaned</u> the places, to live in a clean district.

Correction

124/ I'm very happy to <u>organize</u> this.

125/ Do you want to <u>speak</u> about this (association)?

126/ We agree with them to <u>close</u> the station.

127/ Can you <u>go</u> with me to my school?

128/ I will <u>create</u> an association.

129/ if we want to live in a clean district, we must always <u>clean</u> public places.

In English, infinitives with 'to' are used after some verbs such as: want, decide, intend etc. However, infinitives without 'to' come after the modal verbs 'can', 'may', 'must', 'shall', 'will', etc. On the other hand, infinitives with 'to' can also follow adjectives associated with feelings or states of mind such as: afraid, ambitious, anxious, glad, pleased (Murphy, 1994: 26- 40). On the other hand, in the Arabic language the imperfect form of the verb is used for the English gerund and the infinitive with and without 'to' (Hajjar, 1986:120).

E.g1: /yuhibu ann yaqraa al-kutuba/

Likes(he) reading books.

(He likes reading books.)

E.g2: /yuridu ann yalɛaba/

Wants(he) to play.

(He wants to play.)

However, in the sentences above the confusion between the infinitives, the gerund forms and the past simple exclude L1 interference. In Sentences (124), (125) and (126) the errors are definitely not interlingual errors since the infinitive in English corresponds to the imperfect (simple present) in Arabic. Thus the word 'to' should be followed by the infinitive, and not by the gerund or the past simple. In sentences (127), (128) and (129), the modal verbs 'can', 'will', and 'must' are followed by a gerund instead of an infinitive. Pupils confuse between infinitives and gerunds because of the ignorance of the English rules. Thus, these errors are due to intralingual sources.

ed-deletion

Most of the errors involving ed-deletion are not in the use of the simple verbs but rather in compound verbs. The following are some examples of the errors in the ed-deletion:

130/ We <u>have do</u> it.

131/ I <u>haven't understand</u>.

132/ <u>We have paint</u> them too.

133/ Because the planet <u>is very pollut</u>.

134/ This association <u>was creating</u> in 2002.

135/ We try <u>to clean pollute</u> places.

Correction

130/ We <u>have done</u> it.

131/ I <u>haven't understood</u>.

132/ <u>We have painted</u> them, too.

133/ Because the planet <u>is very polluted</u>.

134/ This association <u>was created</u> in 2002.

135/ We try <u>to clean polluted</u> places.

All the sentences mentioned above comprise ungrammatical structures. These errors can't be explained in terms of L1 interference. They are due to the ignorance in the use of the past participle in English. In sentences (130), (131), (132), (133) and (134), the pupils probably thought that 'have and 'be' are markers of the tense and so; they left the verb in the infinitive form. In sentence (135), the pupil used the infinitive 'pollute' thinking that it is needed because of the other infinitive 'to clean'. Thus, he failed to see that 'polluted' is needed because it functions as an adjective for the word 'places'. The reason lying behind this error is caused by the incomplete acquisition of the target language rule.

Absence of verb

The following are some examples of errors caused by the absence of a verb:

136/ I would asking for you som coition.

137/ I would created an association

138/ Would you give me an information about your association, please?

139/ I would like,whay are you creat this association?

Correction

136/ I would <u>like </u>to ask you some questions, please.

137/ I would <u>like</u> to create an association.

138/ Would you <u>mind</u> giving me some information about your association,

   please?

139/ I would like <u>to know</u> why you have created this association.

In sentences (136), (137), and (138) the pupils have omitted the verb 'like' after the modal verb 'would', thinking that it was not necessary since they have used the verbs 'ask', 'create' and 'give'. These deviant utterances are not a case of mother

tongue interference, but the lack of mastery of English grammatical norms could be a plausible reason. Indeed, the pupils seem not to know the structure 'would like + infinitive' which is used in many different situations such as: asking for something (the case of the above sentences), offering something, inviting, etc. It seems that this structure has not been thoroughly studied during the four years of English study. In sentence (139) the absence of the verb 'to know' is probably due to the limited number of words known by the pupil.

Use of 'ed' with do in questions

The following are some examples of the errors in the use of 'ed' with do in questions:

140/ When did you <u>started</u> this association.

141/ When did they <u>decided</u> to create this organization?

142/ When do you <u>started</u> this association?

143/ When do you <u>began</u> the organisation?

Correction

140/ When did you <u>start</u> this association?

141/ When did they <u>decide</u> to create this organisation?

142/ When did you <u>start</u> this association?

143/ When did you <u>begin</u> the organisation?

Because of the absence of the auxiliary system in Arabic, these errors cannot be traced as L1 interference. In sentences (140), (141), (142), and (143), the pupils used 'did' and 'do' with the past simple of the verbs 'start', 'decide', and 'begin'. For all the structures, false concept hypothesising is viewed as the main reason for the production of these errors. The pupils learnt that when asking questions in the past, 'did' should be used before the main verb. However, they assumed wrongly that the mark of the past should be present on the main verb forgetting that 'did', the past of 'do', is itself in the

past simple. Thus, the infinitive should be used after it. More practice of this structure can lead the pupils to better understand the rule and avoid such errors.

Ing-deletion

The following are some examples of the errors in the ing-deletion:

144/ We like <u>live </u>in a clean district.

145/ I am very interesting to <u>starred</u> in this magazine.

146/ We try the people to stop <u>pollute</u> and smoking.

Correction

144/ We like <u>living</u> in a clean district.

145/ I am very interested in <u>starting</u> in this magazine.

146/ We try to ask people to stop <u>polluting</u> and smoking.

In sentence (144), the present simple 'live' is used instead of the gerund 'living'. In sentence (145), the past simple 'started' is used instead of the gerund 'in starting'. In sentence (146), the infinitive 'pollute' is used instead of the gerund 'polluting'. These errors are not the result of Arabic interference because in Arabic the pupils would use a noun in the three sentences. In these sentences, intralingual sources such as false-concept hypothesizing and the lack of mastery of English are the source of errors in the verb form use. A contributing factor to these errors could be the omission or neglect of these grammatical structures by middle school teachers. As a result, pupils do not learn that after some verbs such as: like, enjoy, stop, etc the gerund should be used. However, sentences (144) and (146) could be a case of French interference. After the verbs 'like' and 'stop' the pupils have used the infinitives 'live' and 'pollute' thinking about the French rule that says that if two verbs follow each other, then the second one must be used in the infinitive. Consciously or unconsciously, the pupils applied this rule to the previous sentences. As stated earlier, it is sometimes hard to allocate one explanation for each error.

2.2. Nouns

Errors committed in this section are classified into the following categories: Use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun, and use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required. These errors are shown in the following table:

Table 9: Errors in the use of nouns.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun	76	11
Use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required	76	6

Use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun

The following are some examples of errors in the use of a singular noun instead of a plural noun:

147/ The project in the futur is to created the diferent <u>association</u> in Algeria.

148/ What are other <u>project</u> that you have selected.

149/ <u>This activitie</u> are intteristing to people.

150/ They organized many <u>conversation</u> with poppulation.

151/ We are going to organize many <u>journey</u> in the zoo.

Correction

147/ Our project in the future is to create different <u>associations</u> in Algeria.

148/ What are the other <u>projects</u> that you have selected.

149/ <u>These activities</u> are interesting to people.

150/ They arranged many <u>conversations</u> with the population.

151/ We are going to organize many <u>excursions</u> to the zoo.

In English, nouns can be countable or uncountable. The countable nouns are either singular or plural. The plural is formed by the addition of the suffix <u>s</u> to the

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singular to the exception of few irregular plurals. Demonstrative adjectives always agree with the nouns they are modifying (Murphy, 1994: 68). In Kabyle, there are singular nouns and plural nouns (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 49). In Arabic there are singular nouns, dual nouns and plural nouns (D'alverny, 1986:21). It is very hard to predict the plural forms of the nouns in both Arabic and Kabyle. In Arabic for example, plural formation can be divided into two principal types: plurals by suffix and irregular plurals. Plurals by suffix are formed by adding /iin/ or /aat/ to the singular; /iin/ in the case of masculine plural and /aat/ in the case of feminine plural. However, the great majority of Arabic plurals are irregular plurals (D'alverny, 1986:21). They resemble the English irregular plurals in that they are formed by certain combinations of prefixes, suffixes and vowel changes.

Sentences (147), (148), and (149) indicate that pupils have used singular subjects with plural verbs. Although these are errors that involve lack of concord between subjects and their verbs, these errors are categorized as noun errors. The omission of the plural morpheme –s could not be considered a result of mother tongue interference, because English, Arabic and Kabyle commonly use plural nouns by adding suffixes as explained earlier. The reason behind this error could be attributed to the lack of knowledge of certain very important restrictional rules in English. This consequently has led to overgeneralization of rules. For instance, the pupils have probably learnt that 'different' and 'other' can be used with singular nouns, and thus by analogy they have used them with plural nouns. In sentences (150) and (151), the omission of –s might be due to communication strategy of second language learning. The plural 's' in the above examples carries information that is almost redundant. Since the plurality of the noun is conveyed by the word 'many', the learner has avoided using 's'.

Use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required

The following are some examples of errors in the use of s-ending for plural nouns when one is not required:

152/ We help the <u>mens</u> who are poor.

153/ We find study the <u>peoples</u> poor.

Correction

152/ We help poor <u>men</u>. (We help poor people)

153/ We help poor <u>people</u> to study.

Subjects of the present study also have some problems with the formation of irregular plurals. Irregular plurals exist in Arabic and Kabyle and are formed by internal restructuring of the singular (D'alverny, 1986:21). Errors in the use of irregular plurals are, therefore, not due to the absence of this form in Arabic or Kabyle and could either be the result of incomplete acquisition of the target language rule, or due to overgeneralization of the target language rule. In sentence (152), the pupil who has committed this error knows the rule of the plural formation, but is not aware of the fact that the plural of the noun 'man' is constructed irregularly without the suffix 's'. In sentence (153), the pupil is not aware that the word 'people' is in the plural form and the suffix 's' is not necessary in this sentence. This consequently has led to overgeneralization errors since the pupils have extended the rule to an area where it does not apply. Thus, these errors are due to the lack of knowledge of certain important restrictional rules in English.

2.3. State verb concord

The identified error in this category is: Wrong form of 'to be' illustrated in the following table:

Table 10: Errors in the use of the state verb 'to be'.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Wrong form of 'to be'	76	13

Wrong form of 'to be'

The following are some examples of errors in the wrong form of 'to be':

154/ What <u>is</u> your activities?

155/ It was created to stop people doing things that <u>is</u> dangerous.

156/ What <u>is</u> a different activities of the association?

157/ What <u>is</u> her activities?

Correction

154/ What <u>are</u> your activities?

155/ It was created to stop people doing things that <u>are</u> dangerous.

156/ What <u>are</u> the different activities of the association?

157/ What <u>are</u> its activities?

The use of a wrong form of 'to be' in English sentences is found everywhere among EFL learners. Scott and Tucker (1974) explain this sort of error as not being the result of mother tongue interference since this problem is common to all English learners, even native speakers. Similarly, the errors in sentences (154), (155), (156), and (157) cannot be related to L1 interference because Arabic or Kabyle have no equivalent of the auxiliary 'to be' (Mammeri, 1986: 91). The wrong use of the auxiliary is due to the confusion between the various forms of 'to be'.

2.4. Subject-verb agreement

The identified error in this category is in relation to the third person marker. Deviations in this category are of two kinds: Omission of 's/es' marker in third person

present simple, and use of 's/es' as a marker for plural nouns. These errors are shown in the table below:

Table 11: Subject- verb agreement errors.

Error type	Number of compositions	Number of errors
Omission of 's/es' marker in third person present simple	76	4
Use of 's/es' as a marker for plural nouns	76	2

Omission of 's/es' marker in third person present simple

The following are some examples of errors in the omission of 's/es' marker in the third person present simple:

158/ This association <u>protect</u> the environment.

159/ He <u>defend </u>the problem of pupul.

160/ He <u>want </u>one help.

161/ I wish or our association <u>wish</u> for all the adolecents to sucssec.

Correction

158/ This association <u>protects</u> the environment.

159/ the association <u>struggles</u> to solve the problems of people.

160/ He <u>wants</u> some help.

161/ I wish, or our association <u>wishes</u> success for all the teenagers.

The sentences above are incorrect because the pupils have failed to use subject-verb agreement rule. L1 interference is not the cause of these errors because the Arabic language is a fusional language by its tendency to put together many morphemes in a way which can be difficult to segment. Verbs in this language agree with subjects only in gender. Agreement in number is dependant on the word order (Hajjar, 1986:41). In Kabyle, however, verbs agree with their subjects in gender and number (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 50). Thus, the errors committed in the omission of 's/es' marker are due to

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intralingual sources. The best explanation to these errors is perhaps due to the strategy of simplification encouraged by the absence of 's/es' for the other subjects. Middle school pupils have employed simplification of the forms as a learning strategy.

Use of 's/es' as a marker for plural nouns

The following are some examples of errors in the use of 's/es' marker for plural nouns:

162/ Because they <u>wants</u> to live in a clean district.

163/ We create the affiches of people who <u>likes</u> cleaning the earth.

Correction

162/ Because they <u>want</u> to live in a clean district.

163/ We make advertisements of people who <u>like</u> cleaning the planet.

In these two sentences the 's/es' suffix is wrongly used with plural subjects (they, people). These errors are not due to L1 interference. Overemphasis in language teaching may be a possible explanation. This overemphasis has led the pupils to use 's/es' with all the subjects.

3. Interpretation of the findings

Upon analyzing the data, (655) errors have been determined to be used for further investigation. Then, these errors have been distributed among 11 major categories. After conducting a frequency count, it has been found that the main source of errors still made by Algerian middle school pupils are interlingual errors (523, 79%) which are significantly higher than intralingual ones (132, 21%). The most common areas of errors which have been found in the interlingual errors are: spelling (184, 28%), auxiliaries (80, 12%), articles (65, 10%) and pronouns (65, 10%). In the field of intralingual errors , the most common error has been wrong verb form (96, 15%).It can be noted that the pupils' interlanguage is still strongly influenced by the Arabic or Kabyle grammar systems because the learners still transfer L1 rules into FL. For example, in the category of pronouns L1 interference is very strong with the application

of the rules especially in the sub-category 'the wrong use of pronoun'. In this sub-category, 33 errors out of 65 have been found. The following remaining categories are listed in the order of highest frequency to lowest: interlingual errors: lexical and semantic errors (63, 9%), prepositions (59, 9%), and adjective (7, 1%). Intralingual errors: nouns (17, 2%), Auxiliary concord (13, 1%), and subject-verb agreement (6, 0.91%). The following table summarises the total number of errors in each category:

Category	Number	Percentage
Interlingual Errors		
Spelling	184	28%
Auxiliaries	80	12%
Articles	65	10%
Pronouns	65	10%
Lexical and Semantic errors	63	9%
Prepositions	56	9%
Adjectives	7	1%
Intralingual Errors		
Wrong verb form	96	15%
Nouns	17	2%
Auxiliary concord	13	1%
Subject-verb agreement	6	0.91%
	655	

As stated earlier, one of the major reasons for conducting this research has been to try to detect and identify the most frequent errors still occurring in the new English program after the implementation of the third school reform. Due to the fact that there are many reasons that play an important role in the occurrence of an error, this study uses Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and the theory of interlanguage to explicitly explain the causes of the above types.

In the light of the results of the study, it appears that there are a number of sources that result in the committing of the errors. The interference from the Arabic and Kabyle languages constitute the primary source of errors committed by the Algerian middle school pupils. Other essential causes include the pupils' inadequate mastery of the English language which leads sometimes to the overgeneralisation of the rules and other times to false hypotheses about certain structures in English. In addition, the pressure of the exam had probably played a significant role in the making of the different errors. The findings of this study are important in evaluating the new English curriculum. It allows the teachers to look at the most frequent errors and organize the new English program to focus more on the errors that trouble pupils the most.

Spelling

The spelling patterns in this study reveal a significant proportion of phonetically inaccurate spelling. This is due to the fact that neither Arabic nor the Kabyle is written with the same letters as the English language. It has been noticed that the pupils' problems lie in their lack of manipulation of phonemes. It has been noticed too that the vowel phonemes in English are more difficult to acquire than the consonant phonemes. Vowels are difficult to learn. The lack of association between the letter and its corresponding sound makes this linguistic information difficult to process. Thus developing affective strategies will help to strengthen the association between these sounds /symbols relationships. In other words instruction in phonemic awareness is necessary for pupils. Fortunately, the new English program includes such instruction. Thus, it is the teacher who is responsible for this instruction.

Auxiliaries

When studying the pupils' use of the different auxiliaries, it's clear to see that the first difficulty has been the absence of auxiliaries 'do' and 'be'. Thus, according to table 2 (chapter II) the 'Absence of 'do' in questions' and 'absence of 'be' and 'to be''

constitute the two major sub-categories in this second category. The failure to apply do-insertion and the omission of 'be' are due to the absence of these grammatical points in Arabic or Kabyle. However, the lack of concord between subject and auxiliary is due to intralingual sources.

To minimize the errors associated with auxiliaries, Wakaad (1980) suggests the following points:

1/ To overcome the problems which occur in the area of auxiliaries, teachers should isolate structures which can result in cross association, i.e. interference with each other when contrasted. Thus distinction should be made between primary auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries and many exercises should be given on each category.

2/ Emphasis should be laid on the pattern

Subject + be + object

The house   is   big.

3/ To prevent errors in the lack of concord between subject and verb, the pupils should be given adequate practice.

Articles

As shown in table 3 (chapter II) articles are the third most difficult grammatical point for the subjects of this study to acquire. Whitman (1974) claims that the English article system has always been considered as one of the most problematic area to overcome in teaching English grammar to foreigners whose mother tongue uses articles in a different way. Errors with articles consist of the following sub-categories: Use of the definite article when one is not required, use of the indefinite article when one is not required, absence of the definite article, and absence of the indefinite article. The definite article 'the' has particularly been omitted and erroneously placed in a number of sentences. For example, 'the' has been used with nouns when the pupils refer to them in a general sense. When looking at the indefinite article 'a' or 'an', it can clearly be

observed that the pupils wrongly use them before plural nouns and uncountable nouns in addition to excluding them with singular and indefinite countable nouns. A great number of these errors are the result of mother tongue interference.

To minimise errors associated with the articles, Wakaad (1980) suggests the following:

A. 1. Practice on the use of the absence of the definite article with nouns when they are used in a collective sense.

2. Practice on the use of the absence of the definite article with nouns when they are used in a general sense.

3. Nouns like food, information etc… take no indefinite article, but can be used with a definite article.

4. Expressions of time such as next, last etc…take no article.

B. Teaching material should give practice in the usage of articles. Nouns requiring 'the' should be introduced first. Nouns used in a general sense that do not take 'the' should be introduced later.

C. Nouns should be taught in contexts and not in lists.

Pronouns

According to the result of this study shown in table 4 (chapter II) pupils tend to confuse the different pronouns of English. For instance, pupils do not distinguish between personal pronouns and possessive pronouns. They confuse between personal pronouns used as subjects and personal pronouns used as objects. Intensive exercises should be provided on both types of pronouns after explaining the function of each.

Another main problem noticed in the corpus is the lack of the distinction between human and nonhuman things. These errors as explained previously are due to the literal translation from Arabic or Kabyle to English. This is why, Exercises dealing with human and non-human things should be provided, otherwise pupils will continue

to interfere their mother tongue with the English language. Another serious problem among Algerian pupils is the omission of the pronoun especially when the pronoun is used as subject. For example 'is situated in New York city'. Since Arabic or Kabyle interference is responsible for this error, pupils should be taught that a declarative sentence always starts with a noun or pronoun.

Lexical and semantic errors

According to table 5 (chapter II) 'use of French' and 'wrong use of a word to express a certain meaning' are the most important errors in this category. The lack of vocabulary led the pupils in certain cases to use the French language hoping to get the right word. In other cases, probably because of learning only one sense of a word results in vocabulary misplacement and collocational clash. It is thought that all second or Foreign Language learners probably begin by assuming that for every word in their mother tongue there is a single translation-equivalent in the second language or foreign language (Blum-Kulka and Levenston, 1983). Learners often create inappropriate nuances in their choice of lexical items because they are unaware of the many senses that English words can have, and the further conditions and relations they enter to. In the present study 63 lexical errors have been found which constitute 9% of the whole corpus. According to the examples given in this chapter, it seems apparent that the lack of appropriate knowledge of other polysemic words and their collocability with other words has affected learning and has consequently resulted in lexical misplacement, and miscollocation.

Knowing which words go together is an important part of understanding meaning within the cognitive framework of Foreign Language learning and teaching. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), learners should be made aware of communication problems they might face, and of devices they can use in order to solve them; thus a process of 'consciousness-rising' should be a part of Foreign Language

teaching. It is therefore, preferable to highlight and establish essential background for different senses of a word and its collocations, and to provide pupils with systematic procedures for word deviations and contextual inferences than to teach long lists of vocabulary items. In other words, full semantic description of function and form is necessary. It is not sufficient only to know the meanings of individual words. Pupils need to be consciously made aware of differences, and the different skills that language learners use in sentences-production processes, word perception, word formation and word combinations and collocations.

Special attention to collocational relations and word polysemy will lead to better performance of the pupils. Seal argues that '*part of what a second language learner needs to know, then, in order to combine individual lexical items is whether they collocate and with what degree of frequency.*' (Seal, 1991). He further adds that '*such knowledge would clearly facilitate the learner's ability to encode language, since when selecting items to co-occur with other items, the learner would be aware of the restricted range of possibilities.*' It would be easier for the learner to encode or decode a message when he/she possesses the useful knowledge of collocational ranges and senses of words.

Prepositions

Prepositions constitute an area that needs to be particularly emphasised. The problems with prepositions that have been observed are classified into headings such as 'wrong use of prepositions', 'absence of a preposition when one is required', and 'use of a preposition when one is not required'. These sub-categories consist of prepositions which have served to express relationships in space, to express time and a number of different prepositions that are needed by certain verbs and nouns. Based on the results, it has been concluded that in the case of prepositions, pupils rely on transfer to select the appropriate preposition since there is no one-to-one correspondence between

prepositions in English and Arabic or Kabyle. For example, in Arabic the preposition (bi) corresponds to five prepositions in English (by, with, at, for, in) (Hajjar, 1986: 60).

E.g: 1/ /kana bilmabna/

He was in the building.

2/ /kana bilmadrassa/

He was at school.

3/ /akala biyadihi/

He ate with his hands.

4/ /iʃtara al-qalam bi 5 dananiir/

He bought the pencil for 5 dinars.

5/ /dahaba ila al-madrassa bisayara/

He went to school by car.

In Kabyle the preposition (-s) corresponds to (to, through, from, with.). (Nait Zerrad, 1995: 165).

1/ Tazzalen s axxam.

They run to the house.

2/ yekcmed s taq.

He came in through the window.

3/ yusad si Franssa.

He came from France.

4/ sefdit s ufus.

Clean it with your hands.

For these reasons

1/English teachers, whose native language is Arabic or Kabyle, can use the pupils' L1 for structures that use equivalent prepositions in both languages.

2/ When there are verbs or expressions in the L1 and FL that take different prepositions, or that have no equivalent in one of the languages, teachers should point out these differences to their pupils.

3/ Also, rules help pupils choose the correct preposition. Thus, teachers should attract the pupils' attention to rules that simplify the use of prepositions. Pupils need to know, for example, that certain adjectives such as <u>angry</u> and <u>pleased</u> do not take the same prepositions in English as they do in Arabic or Kabyle; and thus they should not try to translate literally the Arabic or Kabyle prepositions. Some meaningful exercises are useful in this respect.

4/ Concerning the omission of prepositions, the pupils should know that whereas some contexts in Arabic or Kabyle do not need preposition, the same contexts in English need them. Listing those contexts in both languages might help pupils to realize the differences between the two languages.

5/ In addition, when more than one preposition is possible for the same verb, instructors need to explain the differences. The data show that to help pupils master prepositions, teachers must continuously expose them to correct prepositional usage because the repeated occurrence of a structure leads the pupils to use the correct preposition.

Wrong verb form

According to table 8 (chapter II), the two chief difficulties observed in this corpus are: 'the use of a wrong tense' and 'infinitive not used after some verbs, modals and prepositions'. To elaborate on this, there have been many cases where pupils fail to recognise the distinction between the present simple, the past simple and the present perfect. They also fail in providing the infinitive form of verbs particularly after the preposition 'to' and after modal verbs.

1/ To overcome the problem of confusing the present simple and the present progressive, it is suggested to study the present tense only after the present progressive has been introduced. Clear explanations and exercises are basic to the understanding of the present progressive and the present simple.

2/ Since the present perfect has no equivalent in Arabic or Kabyle, teachers should create real situations to make sure that the context is sufficiently clear to enable the pupils to grasp the meaning of the tense.

3/Distinction should be made between verbs that take infinitives with 'to', modal verbs that take infinitives without 'to', and verbs that take gerunds. Plenty of material should be given to make the distinction clear.

Nouns

The acquisition of the regular plural morpheme-s according to table 9 (chapter II) causes some problems for Algerian middle school pupils although Arabic or Kabyle pluralise nouns. The omission of the morpheme-s can not be attributed to mother tongue interference. Moreover, the use of 'many' causes problems for the learners as it has been shown in this chapter. Like Arabic or Kabyle, 'many' in English is associated with the plural. The corresponding word to it in Arabic is (kathir) and in Kabyle is (atasse). Both of them are used with plural nouns whether masculine plural or feminine plural. E.g

In Arabic: /katir min al-kutub/

In Kabyle: attasse ntkettavin.

(Many books.)

Thus, lack of concord between numerals and nouns are areas that need much practice. The use of singular nouns after some, many etc are errors that need some concentration on the part of pupils to prevent. Some practice will help pupils overcome this difficulty.

Subject-verb agreement

As indicated in table 10 (chapter II) the subjects of this study have some difficulties in acquiring the regular third person singular morpheme-s. This problem could not be the result of mother tongue interference because in Arabic or Kabyle, verbs agree with the subject in person, number and gender as explained earlier. It is believed that the omission of –s in the third person singular may be due to the heavy pressure of all the other verb forms.

Brown (1973) indicates that the omission of the third person singular morpheme-s is one of the common errors made by all learners of English as a second/foreign language. This could be due to the fact that Foreign Language learners have some difficulties in hearing the –s at the end of the third person of the regular verbs. In addition, mastery of the use of the third person singular morpheme is a late acquisition in children learning English natively. The reason underlying this problem might be that, as Brown indicates, 'there is no semantic exclusively associated with the third person and the information that is associated with it is almost always redundant' (Brown, 1973: 340). Since the subjects already indicate the person and number of the verb, this morpheme is a redundant feature in English, and the redundant items of a language are not acquired until the later stages of language learning. To overcome this problem sentences involving the use of third person singular number and a verb in the present simple must be separated from those involving other persons and a verb in the same tense. It is easier to begin with non-third verb.

It has been proven that the areas that still constitute serious problems for Algerian middle school pupils are those areas of contrast between English and Arabic or Kabyle. The results of our Error Analysis have revealed that first language interference is a major source of errors of Algerian middle school pupils. In fact, the number of errors which could clearly be attributed to mother tongue interference is quite big.

However, other sources such as overgeneralization of the target language rules, incomplete acquisition of the target language rules, a false concept hypothesized, as the result of using inadequate strategies by the subjects such as simplification, are also responsible for a certain number of errors. This result is quite understandable since the English language in Algeria is only introduced in the middle school level in year 7 after 6 years of primary school.

Knowledge of those errors as well as their sources should allow teachers to make better decisions on the ordering of the grammatical items and the emphasis to be done on each according to the result of this study. Emphasis must be put on problems that come out from learning the target language. The contrast between the native language of learners and English syntactic structures should be discussed with the pupils in order to avoid the errors that arise from the contrast. On the other hand, the time devoted for each item should be considered too.

According to the present study, teachers should emphasise the areas that cause problems and are the cause of errors in the pupils' writings such as the omission of auxiliaries be, do, etc, the use of infinitives, gerunds and tenses. Other problems such as the wrong use of the definite article 'the' when referring to things in a general sense should be emphasised too. This error is caused by interference from Arabic or Kabyle to English. Thus adequate time should be given to the teaching of this grammatical point that causes such interference. Pronouns by themselves constitute one of the most frequent problems for Algerian middle school pupils. In the corpus, the pupils showed a clear confusion between the use of pronouns for persons (she, he) and the pronoun for things (it). Thus those areas should not be ignored. Those difficulties in each category should be completely explained, practiced in context and tested to make sure that they are understood.

Indeed, the new series of middle school books which are based on the competency based approach elaborated by syllabus designers and used by teachers since 2003 are suitable for pupils since they deal with variety of subjects that pertain to the Algerian environment. In attempting to implement the competency based approach, syllabus designers put under the use of the pupils a rich program based on problem-solving situations. Thus, in order to achieve higher motivation, the program contains tasks that are relevant to the pupils' needs and learning styles. At the end of the fourth year of English the pupils are expected to express their ideas and organise them in a logical and clear way without much help from their teachers. To reach this goal the new material should be explored in a better manner by teachers. Like this, the pupils' errors could be gradually eradicated or simply the pupils could perform without many errors.

However, the new series of school books lack materials that deal with the problem of interference from Arabic or Kabyle, especially in the area of grammar. Although many researchers prohibited the use of L1 in the classroom, others see a role of L1 and claim its use as a communication strategy (Sheen. 2001). A special classroom use of the L1 is the translation of FL texts into the L1, a procedure that is not used anymore, because of its association with the Old Grammar Translation Method (Owen.2003). However, some studies have revealed that today's translation activities have nothing to do with the old method which occurred in a non-interactive classroom with few activities besides, and which only offered boring texts to translate (Owen.2003).

According to van Else & al (1984), showing the lack of correspondence between L1 and the target language forms can promote understanding of the language being learnt. It is a natural linguistic phenomenon for a learner to use positive and negative language transfer of the L1 in interlanguage, and translation offers one way to highlight these similarities and differences. Translation can also be used to learn new FL

vocabulary, and it can draw the teacher's attention to the words and structures that need to be practiced (Van Els & Al, 1984). Owen (2003) insists on the use of L1 to FL translation as a guided writing exercise for beginners, using process approach activities such as writing practice, dictionary work, and peer-correction opportunities. According to him the following principles support the use of translation for Foreign Language Learning:

1. Translation uses authentic materials. Pupils can be given relevant material from the real world, and with translation teachers can select the most appropriate types of sentences.

2. Translation is interactive. Translation should not be done only for the sake of translation. It can encourage communication through classroom discussion with the teacher and among the pupils through group work.

3. Translation is learner-centered. Learner-centred classrooms place pupils at the centre of classroom organisation and respect their learning needs, strategies, and styles. In learner-centred classrooms, pupils can be observed working individually or in pairs and small groups on distinct tasks and projects. The teacher allows for questions and feedback as pupils negotiate the meaning of language.

4. Translation promotes learner autonomy. Translation can motivate the pupils by making them understand the complexity of the FL as well as the different communication and learning strategies. They also discover their own learning styles. Like this they can become more confident, and most important, all this provide them with skills they can use outside the classroom.

For these reasons, translation is considered today as a relevant procedure for the communicative approach to language teaching. Moreover, the new school reform depends partly on the teacher. In deed, the teacher is an important element in the

educational process. The teacher should have the required academic and professional qualifications. A minimum qualification like a university degree in English must be required from teachers who teach in the middle and secondary schools. They should also receive adequate training to embrace the new reform. The teacher training programs have the responsibility for developing English language teachers' ability to assess the needs of learners with respect to the sociocultural context of English language use. Besides, teachers should develop a linguistic tolerance to be able to understand the process of language learning and help the pupils reach proficiency in the target language. Teachers' attitudes towards the pupils' errors need to be changed. They should become more concerned with the processes of language learning rather than the pupils' production of the language. With the new objectives of English teaching in Algeria and the adoption of the new series of syllabuses and textbooks designed by Algerian specialists, it is hoped that English instruction will particularly improve.

Conclusion

In this chapter the errors made by Algerian middle school pupils have been listed and readers have also been given clear explanations for these errors. The results of this study have shown that interlingual and intralingual errors are two major categories of Foreign Language learning. It has been inferred from these results that learners at the pre-intermediate level rely most on language transfer strategies, and that their interlanguage at this level approximates that of the native language. In other words, since the mother tongue is the only linguistic system available to language learners at the beginning stages of learning the target language, learners make more interlingual errors at the beginning.

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General Conclusion

It has been noticed that the learners' unskilled writing is characterised by many errors in spelling, tense, noun plurals, pronoun use, etc, and that in most cases, the compositions are short and lack coherence. Therefore, one may say that the problem of writing in English has reached an alarming standard of weakness. Though this work is not concerned with the pupils' knowledge of the art of writing paragraphs in English, it is their level of proficiency in English that is described since the pupils wrote interviews instead of paragraphs.

The present study may be considered as a further step in the understanding of how EFL learners construct interlanguage, which is a linguistic bridge from L1 to FL. The purpose of the study has been to identify the types of errors in FL written production of Algerian middle school pupils after the implementation of the school reform undertaken in 2003. Moreover, the purpose of the study has also been to analyse the sources of these errors, to identify the types of errors that are still significant, and to what extent errors hinder the pupils' correct use of the English language.

The present work has addressed all errors in grammar found in the written section of the BEM English exam taken in 2007. It is a modest contribution to the understanding of the sources of errors involved in the mental process of EFL learners when they transform linguistic input into knowledge in their attempt to reach native speakers' proficiency in grammar.

The research questions have been constructed on the basis of the recent goals of the Foreign Language teaching curricula implemented by the third Algerian school reform to describe the nature of EFL learners' language. To obtain answers to the research questions, Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis, together with the identification, description, and explanation of interlingual and intralingual errors, have been used.

When the mother tongue is determined as the source of the learning problem, Contrastive Analysis is used. The other problems have been explained by means of Error Analysis techniques and terminology. When the cause has been mother tongue interference, Arabic or Kabyle have been used to explain the errors. In some cases, however, the French language has been resorted to explain the sources of certain errors. Literal translation has been used in some examples to show the differences that lie between the structure of English on the one hand, and Arabic, Kabyle and French on the other hand.

Following Richard's (1974) classification, the errors have been divided into the following: interlingual errors, sometimes called interference errors, since they result from interference of the mother tongue, and intralingual errors, those produced by the learners without referring to the structures of the mother tongue. Thus, while interlingual errors are due to a negative transfer from the source (Arabic, Kabyle or French) to the target language (English), intralingual errors are due to irregularities, complications in the target language and overgeneralizations as a result of partial exposure to it and inability to master it.

In chapter I, the definitions of Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, interlanguage and errors are provided. Like many other studies, this research work supports the idea that the methodologies of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis are still important for exploring errors in SLA or FL learning. In the 1950s and 1960s, research led to a new approach called Contrastive Analysis. The influence of the mother tongue was thought to be the key to understanding SLA/ FL learning. The method of Contrastive Analysis, which used comparison and contrast between languages to predict areas of difficulties for EFL learners in their learning process, was based on L1 interference theory. Contrastive Analysis assumes that errors occur primarily as a result of interference when language learners transfer their mother tongue habits to the target

language. Interference from L1 is considered to be the main problem that prevents FL learning. The degree of difficulty is also thought to depend on learners' use of L1, especially when there are linguistic differences between the two languages. Today, some scientists and educators still consider the interference between two language systems as especially interesting because it could account for the problems of FL learning and it explores FL learning processes. Contrastive Analysis has also been used in much recent research in attempts to predict the errors that learners would make by identifying the differences that lie between L1 and FL. Some educators have used it to improve pedagogical strategies.

Error Analysis has proved to be an important tool to explore errors as it asserts that they occur not only as a result of negative transfer but also to other factors, due to the learnt language itself, such as overgeneralization, simplification, etc. Error Analysis shows that the learners' difficulties derive not only from their L1 but also from the target language, and it shows the strategy that FL learners use. It also provides a methodology to explore the learners' foreign language and to explore the different sources of FL errors. It is needed to distinguish between the description of errors and the process that is involved in the production of the error. The impact of Error Analysis on recent research is significant because it allows linguists to observe a learner's language development. More importantly, it helps researchers to identify interlanguage, and it helps to solve the problem of fossilization. It has been a very important part of scientific research for several generations of linguists. It has been extensively use in many studies, as well as in the present study, to analyse sources of errors and explore the Foreign Language learning process. Many linguists continue to use Error Analysis to examine the entire linguistic system of FL learners.

Interlanguage is defined as a linguistic grammar bridge in which the learners construct a system that is different from L1 and FL. Interlanguage is a natural process

through which all EFL learners must pass on their way to achieve FL proficiency. This study provides evidence of how EFL learners construct their interlanguage by identifying the different obstructions to their effective use of the English language. it also contributes to the understanding of what interlanguage phase the learners have to go through to achieve target language proficiency. An 'error' has been defined as a linguistic form that does not correspond to any FL norm (partly or completely), and it appears in EFL learners' interlanguage during the transitional process from L1 to target language.

In chapter II, 200 BEM English exams written by middle school pupils under exam conditions have been examined. This study includes all the errors found in the pupils' English compositions. It have been discovered that only 76 copies includes the English compositions. Then, the errors have been identified, categorized, subcategorized and then analysed. The causes of the errors have been elucidated and their numbers have been displayed in tables with their respective sub-categories. The areas of difficulty examined in those compositions are, spelling, auxiliaries, articles, pronouns, lexical and semantic errors, prepositions, adjectives, wrong verb form, nouns, auxiliary concord, and subject-verb agreement. Thus, the areas of difficulties highlighted in this research work are identical to those shown in other studies.

On the basis of the findings of this study, the following implications for teaching foreign languages are to be suggested:

1. All learners rely on their previous knowledge when faced with a new learning task. Thus, the effect of L1 on FL cannot be denied. Foreign language teachers should be familiar with the structure of their pupils' native language in order to be able to understand the errors they make, and to create remedial materials to eliminate them.

2. Because of the unfamiliarity with the target language structure, Foreign Language learners usually make more interlingual errors at the early stages of language learning. Therefore, FL teachers should bear in mind that the mother tongue is a strong source of errors. They should learn how to do contrastive analyses on L1 and FL grammars. This research can be used as a modal to achieve this purpose.

3. Many specialists in the field of second/foreign language teaching are against using the pupils' first language and translation in the classroom because pedagogical techniques such as translation could increase the possibility of the learners' reliance on their mother tongue. However, and according to the present study, it is believed that the errors which are due to the lack of exact correspondence between the pupils' native language and the target language should be brought to the pupils' attention because they will help the pupils to eliminate those particular problems rapidly.

4. Some of the errors FL learners make are intralingual and are due to the presence of several developmental stages in the acquisition of certain structures of the target language. In fact, some of the target language grammatical structures are acquired at the late stages of language acquisition because of their complexity. Accordingly, FL teachers should not teach these late structures at early stages of language learning.

5. Despite years of instruction in English as a foreign language in Algeria, learners do not show much proficiency in English. This fact suggests that in the absence of strong motivation, grammatical explanations, memorisation of vocabulary lists, mechanistic drills do not lead to language learning. The key to language learning is meaningful interaction with the target language. FL teachers have the responsibility to create a rich environment in which the target language should

be used, and where they should not attempt to correct every individual error the learners make.

6. Motivation is one of the most important factors in learning any language. But the learners who learn the target language in their home countries do not usually have the desire to integrate with the people who speak the target language natively. In other words, they are not integratively motivated. Moreover, they are not usually old enough to understand any useful reasons for learning the target language. Therefore, they are not instrumentally motivated. FL teachers should motivate their pupils by helping them to understand the advantages of learning the target language, by creating conditions under which the students must use whatever knowledge of the target language they have acquired, and by taking into account their pupils' interests, expectations, and existing FL competence.

Since this study concentrates only on the production of a written interview by Algerian middle school pupils, a similar research should be conducted to address the problems encountered by pupils when they write other types of discourse, such as argumentation. A comparative study between the findings of this study and the pupils' written problems is recommended. In this way, a clearer picture of the pupils' interlanguage could be drawn.

The subjects of this study are Algerian middle school pupils who completed a four-year course of English. It would be useful to do the same type of study with another group of pupils from the Algerian secondary school with seven years of English learning background in order to have a broader picture of the learning of the English language in the light of the new school reform.

Further research could reanalyse data from the present study and compare results with different L1s. Such an analysis could reveal interesting differences and could help

understand what errors are more significant in the interlanguage of pupils with different L1s.

In order to slow down the process of fossilization and to accelerate FL learning, the following issues should be taken into consideration in future research: (a) how learning takes place when learners move from lower (middle school) to higher FL proficiency levels (secondary school), and (b) how to control errors originating from different sources. The ability to conduct such research requires a replication of the study using a greater number of subjects.

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Appendix 01

/t/	/d/	/id/
Stopped	called	wanted
		decided

written - comprehension:

when, Y am starred, in This magazine
Y will pratiqued, many activities because
its very intersting.
my friends; like you started in This magazine?
me: yes, Y am very intesting to starred
in This magazine, because or so, its very
beast Htom all magazine.
my friends: her names is very beautiful
tham yours; doen't you.
me: no, Sorry my magazine it very, very
beautiful tham yours this why Y doesn't
like yours.
my friends: what did you pratiqued
in your magazine?
me: Y pratiqued the capy- book, the journal.
thanks, you for this questions.

3
i

Activity two:

Reorder the following words to get coherent question

1) When did they decide to create this organisation?
2) How many members has got Greenpeace?
3) What do I have to do to join Greenpeace?

Activity three:

/t/	/d/	/id/
stopped	called	decided
		wanted

Part Two:

A: When did you start the association?
B: We started the association since 1 year
A: What's the name of this association?
B: It's called the mates association
A: What did the association do?
B: The association did diferent articles about this school
A: What are you doing . now?
B: Now - we are building a new laboratores and a classes to study mates
A: Thank you
B: Don't mention it

ص 3
X

Activity two:
1) whe did they decide to create this organization
~~2/ How many Greenpeace has got~~
2) How many members Greenpeace has got. ?
3) what do Greepeace join have to do ? ?
Activity three.

[t]	[d]	[id]
want stopped	wanted called.	decided

part two: written Expression

A/ Hello my schoolmates, How are you?
B/ Hi my friend, I have created an associan
A/ why do you create an associan ?
B/ Because we want to lived in clean distric
A/ oh yes that's not proplem we must clean
   that's district.
B/ That's work is dificult works
A/ we are lot of persons we can work in
   goups.
B/ Thanks you fore your idea.
A/ No proplem we'll be abell stope he
   pollution

Part two

Written Expression

A: Hellew How are you?

B: I'm fine thanks.

A: I like have an information for your asociation. can you help me?

B: yes. with a pleaser.

A: when this asociation is started?

B: in 1996.

A: what is her name?

B: Her name is Karima because Her chief her name is Karim

A: what is her objectif?

B: Her objectif is live in clean district and protect a people.

2)-

1. when did they decide to create this organisation ?
2. How many nambers has got Greenpace ?
3. what I have do join do Greepeace ?

II)

A: Hi mister I want say you
becauss I want to know the name of your association?
B. this association is good here name is (X)
A. this is a good name, but you will steppt won day
when you started the association?
B: 10 years perhaps.
A: when you stopptd what will you do?
B: I don't know.
A: thankyou miss I'd passt a good time with you...

Activity Two.

o1. decide / to create/ when/ they/ ?/ organization/did / this.

When to create they this organization decide?

o2. got / many / has/ ?/ members/ Greenpeace/ How.

How has got Greenpeace many members?

o3. I/ Grenpeace/ ?/ join/ have to / to / What / do.

I have to do join What to do Grenpeace?

Activity three

/t/	/d/	/ɪd/
stoped	decided	wanted
		called

part Two.

Written Expression.

A, goo'morning B. can you me repen'ed maig quistion.

B: yes. In very happy this for the you intouvion for me.

A: I'ino can you started in the assosation.

I have say when you started the assotiation.

B: the assotiation started in the ~~Algebel~~. Telemcen.

A: can you me writing name ~~of~~ the this association.

B: his name is Sada.

A: I to finishe my intervion, can you me did the adives.

the association.

B: yes. the association. playing the lot of Activition.

mussic, sport. disset, singer, ... ex.

3↵

Part Two:

A: Hello, can I ask you questions?

B: yes, you can

A: Are you a membre in this association?

B: yes.

A: when did you decide to create hem?

B: In the last years

A: why?

B: because we like live in a clean district

A: what is the name of this association?

B: this name is: "for the clean district"

A: what are you doing for the clean district?

B: we do activities

A: Are you love this association?

B: yes I like hem.

A: thank for your answer

B: thanks

Infinitive	Simple Past
to pollute	pollution
to beginning	began
to become	becomes
to try	tryed

Activity two:

1- when did decide this to create organization they?

2. How has Greenpeace got many members?

3- what I Greenpeace have to going to do?

Activity three

/t/	/d/	/id/
Called	wanted	decided
	stopped	

Part two: written Expression

- How but you?

I'm fine thank you.

- when you started the association?

I start the association in the magazine school

- were is name of the association?

name of the association is magazine school

- what you to the following?

I can use the following close to help you.

* thank you

3 ـ

B) Mastery of language

infintive	simple past
to pollute	polluted
to begin	began .
to become	became
to try	brought .

activity ta : 1) when this organization did decide to create?

2) How members got greenpeace has may?

3) what have to greenpeace to do join do?

activity 3

/t/	d	/id/
stopped	called	decided/wanted

Written Expression

* may schoolmates have cerated an asspiration
and I interview an of its mnembers f our may school
magazin

me : when you started the assaciation

He : in the orbit.

me : what is your mame of th assaciation

He : the asspiration this mame a [struck out].

allimentation

me : thankyou. goodbay.

3

Activity two : we order the following words to get a questions:
1) When they did decide to creat this organization?
2) How many members Greenpeace has got?
3) I have to join what Greenpeace to do?
Activity three:

/t/	/d/	/ɪd/	
called	wented	decided	
stopped			

part two :

The student: Hr Mr deracter, can you spell a moment
         please?
The (deracted) headmaster - yes, can I help you?
The student = yes, I have a questions can you repaid
         to my questions, please?
The (deracter) headmaster - yes, what is it?
The student - when you started you association?
The deracter headmaster - perhaps since two years.
The student - what is the name of this association?
Ble (deracter) head master: it's name is "IZARFANE"
The student - what is the synonyme of "Izarfen"
The (deracter) headmaster: "IZARFEN"'s synonyme is "en france "les droits"
The student - what is the activity wich do this
         association ?
The (deracter) headmaster: it's many activities like to help the
         people to study and to work

and we help the mens who are poor and
we give the food for the family poor ext
The student: Are you helpe all the village or
your village Alan?

The (leracter): we help the people of my village
headmaster   and another villages.

The student : Thanks you for this information

The headmaster: you're welcone student.

Appendix 02

The list of tables

Résumé

Cette recherche est une étape pour comprendre comment les collégiens algériens apprennant l'anglais construisent l'interlangue, qui est défini comme étant un pont linguistique qui relie entre la langue maternelle et la langue cible (Anglais). Cette recherche a pour but de déterminer les types d'erreurs les plus importants, et de déterminer leurs origines. En plus, le but de ce travail est de classer, puis d'analyser les différents types d'erreurs à l'écrit encore commises des collégiens algériens, et cela après l'application de la troisième réforme scolaire entreprise en 2003. Ce travail vise à contribuer à la compréhension des sources d'erreurs qui sont impliquées dans les processus mentaux des apprenants algériens ayant comme première langue le Kabyle ou l'Arabe. 200 collégiens algériens ont participé à ce travail. Après quatre années d'apprentissage de la langue anglaise, le niveau des élèves et supposé être pré-intermédiaire ; les données de cette recherche ont été prises d'une seule source, qui est l'interview écrite par les collégiens algériens durant le premier examen du BEM organisé en 2007. Le total de 655 erreurs analysé dans ce travail a été divisé en deux catégories principales, qui sont les erreurs interlinguales et les erreurs intralinguales. Les erreurs à interlinguales comprennent les erreurs d'orthographe, d'auxiliaires, d'articles, de pronoms, de lexique, de préposition et d'adjectif. Les erreurs intralinguales comprennent les erreurs de verbes, du nom, de l'accord des auxiliaires et l'accord du sujet-verbe. Il est supposé que les causes de ces erreurs peuvent être le résultat des raisons suivantes : l'interférence du kabyle, ou de l'arabe, interférence du français, généralisation des règles, simplification, fausses hypothèses, le manque de connaissance des structures de la langue anglaise, l'insuffisance de la pratique des règles et la pression de l'examen du BEM. Les résultats de ce travail indiquent que l'interférence du kabyle et de l'arabe jouent encore un rôle important dans le processus d'apprentissage et qu'un grand pourcentage des erreurs est dû à l'interférence de la langue maternelle. En plus, ce travail révèle que les erreurs les plus importantes sont celles liés à : l'orthographe, l'utilisation des différents auxiliaires et la forme des verbes. Des suggestions sont proposées sur « comment éliminer ces erreurs ? »

(Interlangue)

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200

655   2007

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.(interlangue)