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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH**



**Algerian Arabic Varieties Speakers' Errors
in
English Writings
"A Contrastive Error Analysis Study"**

Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for
The Doctorate Degree in

Linguistics

SUBMITTED BY
Mr. HEMAIDIA Mohamed

UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF
Pr. LAKHDAR BARKA Sidi Mohamed

"Members of the Jury"

Présidente : Pr. Khadoudja BELKHENCHIR	Université Oran 2
Rapporteur : Pr. Sidi Mohamed LAKHDAR BARKA	Université Oran 2
Examinatrice : Dr. Louafia BOUKRERIS	Université Oran 2
Examineur: Pr. Ali BAICHE	Université de Tlemcen
Examineur: Pr. Abess BAHOUS	Université de Mostaganem
Examineur : Pr. Zoubir DENDANE	Université de Tlemcen

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Dedication

*In the memory of my father and mother and
the dear young nephew HICHAM*

To my brothers and sisters and their family members

To my wife and children

To all my friends

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

A: Adjective

Ac.: Active

AIE: Addition of Incorrect Element

AA : Algerian Arabic

Ad.: Adverb

Adv.P.: Adverb Phrase

Adj.P.: Adjective Phrase

CA : Classical Arabic

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Cap.: Capitalization

CC.: Coordinating Conjunctions

CCS.: Compound Complex Sentence

CS.: Compound Sentence

Co.S.: Complex Sentence

C.L.R. : Check List Results

C.L.R.D. : Check List Result Discussion

EFL : English as a foreign language

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

E.T.R. : Evaluation Test Results

E.T.R.A : Evaluation Test Result Analysis

FHC : False Hypothesized Concepts
FLL : Foreign Language Learning
FLT: Foreign Language Teaching
Fr.: French
G : Gerund
IP : Infinitive Phrase
IRR : Ignorance of Rule Restrictions
J.T.R: Judgment Test Results
J.T.R.D: Judgment Test Result Discussion
L2 : Second / Foreign Language
Mean. : Meaning
ME : Misordering of Elements
Ms. : Misspelling
MSA: Modern Standard Arabic
N : Noun
NP : Noun Phrase
ORE : Omission of Required Elements
P : Passive
PP : Prepositional Phrase
PP : Present participle
Punct. : Punctuation
Q.R. : Questionnaire Results
Q.R.D : Questionnaire Result Discussion
SC : Subordination Conjunction

SS : Simple Sentence

SIE : Selection of Incorrect Elements

S/V : Subject Verb

T : Tense

TL : Target Language

VP : Verb Phrase

WO : Word Order

WWC : Wrong Word Choice

**PHONEMIC SYMBOLS OF CA (CLASSICAL ARABIC)
&
AA (ALGERIAN ARABIC)**

A) Consonants:

/ b / (ب)	as in / bent / ‘a girl’	(Voiced bilabial plosive)
/ f / (ف)	as in / ftah / ‘he opened’	(Voiceless labio-dental fricative)
/ m / (م)	as in / msaḥ / ‘he cleaned’	(Voiced bilabial nasal)
/ t / (ت)	as in / tefa:h / ‘apple’	(Voiceless alveolar plosive)
/ d / (د)	as in / di:n / ‘religion’	(Voiced alveolar plosive)
/ s / (س)	as in / sri:r / ‘bed’	(Voiceless alveolar fricative)
/ n / (ن)	as in / nsi:m / ‘fresh air’	(Voiced alveolar nasal)
/ z / (ز)	as in / za:wef / ‘bird’	(Voiced alveolar fricative)
/ θ / (ث)	as in / θmania / ‘eight’	(Voiceless dental fricative)
/ ð / (ذ)	as in / ði:b / ‘wolf’	(Voiced dental fricative)
/ ʃ / (ش)	as in / ʃta / ‘winter’	(Voiceless post-alveolar fricative)
/ tʃ / (تش)	as in / tʃi:na / ‘Oranges’	(Voiceless post-alveolar affricate)
/ ʒ / (ج)	as in / ʒbel / ‘mountain’	(Voiced post-alveolar fricative)
/ dʒ / (ج)	as in / dʒuw / ‘weather’	(Voiced post-alveolar affricate)
/ r / (ر)	as in / raaʃ / ‘head’	(Alveolar trill)
/ l / (ل)	as in / la:kin / ‘but’	(Alveolar lateral)
/ k / (ك)	as in / ketba / ‘writing’	(Voiceless velar plosive)
/ g / (غ)	as in / ga:3 / ‘all’	(Voiced velar plosive)
/ χ / (خ)	as in / χa:tem / ‘ring’	(Voiced uvula fricative)
/ x / (ع)	as in / xa:li / ‘expensive’	(Voiceless velar fricative)
/ q / (ق)	as in / qdi:m / ‘old’	(voiceless uvula plosive)

/ħ / (ح) as in /ħulm / ‘dream’	(Voiceless pharyngeal fricative)
/ʕ / (ع) as in /ʕajn / ‘eye’	(Voiced pharyngeal fricative)
/h / (ه) as in /hrab / ‘he fled’	(Voiceless glottal fricative)
/ʔ / (ء) as in /ʔusra / ‘family’	(Glottal stop)

B) Semi- vowels / Weak Consonants

حروف اللين

/w / (و) as in /warda / ‘flower’	(Voiced alveolar lateral)
/j / (ي) as in /jed / ‘hand’	(Voiced palatal semi-vowel)

C) True Emphatics

/ʕ / (ص) as in /ʕaab / ‘he found’	(Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative)
/t̤ / (ط) as in /t̤aja:ra / ‘plane’	(Voiceless valorized stop)
/d̤ / (ض) as in /d̤aw / ‘light’	(Voiced valorized stop)
/ð / (ظ) as in /ð / /ð olm / ‘injustice’	(Voiced valorized fricative)

D) Vowels

/i / as in /qIʕsa / ‘a story’	Front high spread
/æ / as in /hæ:mi / ‘hot’	Front mid-open unrounded
/a / as in /rma / ‘he shoot’	Back low unrounded
/ɑ / as in /rɑ:h / ‘he left’	Back mid-open unrounded
/o: / as in /no:r / ‘light’	Back mid-open rounded
/u / as in /ru:h / ‘soul’	Back high rounded

ABSTRACT

Subject:

Algerian Arabic Varieties Speakers' Errors in English Writings
“A Contrastive Error Analysis Study”

The present doctoral thesis aims at investigating the main causes behind the grammatical errors the Algerian students at university tend to make in their written production. Based on the contrastive error analysis procedure, the focus is made on the contrast and comparison of the two basic morpho-syntactic systems of English and Arabic to predict and explain the unnatural word combination as well as the morphological errors extracted from a selected sample of 260 essays written by students at the Economic and Management Faculty in Tiaret University. Students' incorrect shift of various grammatical structures and word formation errors clarify clearly the evidence of Arabic interference into English as a result of the structural differences between the systems of both languages. This would put the stress on the hypothesis that learners' already acquired knowledge affects their performance in L2.

Key Words:

Error analysis - Contrastive analysis – Grammar – Syntax - Morphology - Interlanguage
Language interference and transfer

GENERAL
INTRODUCTION

“As you begin to take action toward the fulfilment of your goals and dreams, you must realize that not every action will be perfect. Not every action will produce the desired result. Not every action will work. Making mistakes, getting it almost right, and experimenting to see what happens are all part of the process of eventually getting it right.”

Jack Canfield (2010)

Topic:

The main objective of the English courses of the syllabus designed to the scientific streams in the Algerian university is to help learners improve their reading and writing skills according to the programme which has been researched, documented and organized in accordance with academic rules. The need to use English properly with some degree of sophistication is clearly felt among university lecturers who see it as a suitable instrument to explore different domains, mainly those which concern science and technology.

Students find it necessary to learn to communicate in English with people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and for different purposes. They may also need it for acquiring some knowledge in some domains such as mathematics, social studies, science, economics and business which are world-widely used.

Thus, besides learning to speak this language, they are required to produce specific writing forms such as essay, composition, summary, and research paper. However, the task to do so may not be so easy because different obstacles confront both teachers and students willing to attain those objectives. Students’

writing errors demonstrate clearly the evidence of their lack of potential to write freely in a language which is not theirs.

Experiences have always proven that a great number of them not only fail to create correct sentences in isolation, but also cannot arrange them to become organised texts. The main reason behind this problem may lie in the difference between Arabic and English grammatical systems. This may include different word-formation and sentence structures. The field research of this study is purely linguistic where a comparison is drawn between Arabic and English grammars so as to identify the similarities and differences which may indicate a plausible prediction of the source of errors in students' EFL different writings.

Motivation:

The incentive behind this research work derives from our curiosity and desire to explain and predict students' grammatical errors and their behaviour in writing. This will be attempted through a careful comparison and identification of the structural differences between Arabic (L1) and English (L2), This reflection wants to see if contrastive and error analysis procedures, suggested in the perspective drawn in a previous work of magister, can be effective in the analysis of those errors drawing out lessons from the weaknesses, gaps of students' process of writing, would then improve didactic objectives in classroom situations as experienced in the context of Tiaret University.

Theme:

The use of English has sparked the interest of educators in different fields. There is a clear fact that this language has become

an important instrument for transferring and exchanging knowledge and skills because of its worldwide use.

However, the poor performance of most Algerian students in English, mainly in writing, has been explained as a major cause of failure in the academic achievement in Algerian universities. Their lack of the necessary vocabulary as well as the difficulties they face in grammar lead them to fail in conveying accurate written messages.

The easiness and the difficulty that these students find in their learning enterprise are determined, to a large extent, by the similarity and the difference of the systems of L1 'Arabic' and L2 'English'. Accordingly, there might be some similarities between these two languages, yet, as demonstrated by some linguists, they differ significantly in the form, meaning and distribution of grammatical structures. The comparison of the grammatical systems of the two languages has yielded a possibility of explaining and predicting students' snags in writing. Accordingly, the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description and comparison of the language to be learnt with the native language of the learner.

The present research work aims to investigate the main causes behind the grammatical errors the economic science stream university students at Ibn Khaldoun Tiaret University tend to make in their written production. Based on the **contrastive analysis** procedure, it focuses on the contrast and comparison of the two morpho-syntactic systems of English and Arabic to predict and explain the unnatural word combination as well as the morphological errors. It investigates factors influencing students' writing in English. This would be based on a variety of dimensions namely the students' L2 writing ability, their writing strategies and their L1 metalinguistic knowledge impact responsible for students'

faulty inferences about the rules of L2. Thus, **error analysis** approach is also used in the study to predict these inferences and reinforce the points left unpredicted by the contrastive analysis approach. Its use is also meant to diagnose the different types of errors, their sources, description, classification, nature and categories.

Observations:

The study clarifies issues related to the errors the economic science stream students make in their writing assignments. Those errors which are spotted in their written works, mainly at the morpho-syntactic level, are attributed to their ignorance of the immense differences between the linguistic system of Arabic (L1) and that of English (L2). This reflects their lack of competence which accompanies them and hinders their written performance.

Most students very often translate the forms of words and their distribution in sentences to L2 (English) in the same way they are processed in L1 (Arabic). The incorrect shift of various grammatical structures and word formation errors show the evidence of Arabic English interferences as a result of the ignorance and disrespect of the structural differences of the two languages. This would bring to a non-sense or a change of meaning because, most of the time, the structure of L2 neither has a similar form in L1, nor indicates the same meaning nor is it similarly distributed in the system of L2. This would stress the hypothesis that "*Processing mode of learners affects their performances in L2.*" Schumann (1998: 247)

Research questions:

The theoretical and empirical examination of the issues related to students' English writing errors intends to draw a clear

picture of L2 common writing strategies students generally use as well as the source of their errors. Remedial strategies are also suggested to avoid those errors and improve students' writing abilities.

To set forth in a coherent study of the stated phenomenon, a main research question is asked:

Is L1 'Arabic interference' the principal cause of students' English writing problems?

This question implies three sub-questions:

1) Is this interference due to the differences that exist between the grammatical systems of Arabic and English?

2) In addition to L1 interference, are there any other kinds of errors students usually make?

3) Does L1 socio-cultural and educational context where students learn to write have negative effects on their writing performance?

These questions are asked in order to:

- * Investigate the source of hindrances that students face in writing.
- * Find out the causes behind these snags.
- * Suggest some possible remedial works and solutions to overcome students' deficit in writing.

For this purpose the following hypotheses are suggested as tentative answers to the above inquiries.

Hypotheses:

L1 'Arabic interference' is, to a large extent, the main cause of students' English writing problems.

1) The difference that may exist between the grammatical systems of Arabic and English is the principal cause of this interference. Learners make faulty inferences 'thinking' of the different grammatical rules of L2 (English).

2) Other than interlingual interference errors, there are other kinds of errors, those referred to as intralingual errors within the target language itself. These errors fall in two types: 'syntactic errors' including sentences, phrases or clauses, and 'morphological errors' including the formation of words, such as word inflections and derivations.

3) The socio-cultural and educational contexts where students learn to write also have negative effects on their writing performance.

Methodology:

The method of investigation consists in an analytical study of a sample group of students at the Economic & Management Sciences Faculty in Tiaret University where deficiencies in students' writings were spotted during our three years' teaching at the different departments of the faculty. The three methods of investigation are:

1) A questionnaire administered to students at the faculty of Economic Sciences to highlight issues on their behaviour in

writing in L2 (English); i.e., the different ways they use to write in this language.

2) A students' written evaluation/judgment test (composition) analysed at the level of the morpho-syntactic systems of L1 and L2. The aim is to identify, describe and control the phenomenon of grammatical errors, formulate insights about them and gather enough evidence to confirm or infirm the hypotheses drawn above.

3) A type of observational and validating procedure through which 25 teachers from the secondary school and university levels were asked to state the common causes behind students' weaknesses in different English writings.

PROCESS:

This research work includes a general introduction and six chapters:

The General introduction is devoted to the aims of the research and to a brief discussion of the subject.

Chapter one is a theoretical review. A large part of it is devoted to the explanation of the concepts which are directly or indirectly related to the notion of 'error'. It deals with contrastive analysis and error analysis, as important approaches in describing and identifying students' errors. It also gives a technical review of "error" in the context of its origin and influence on L2 learning process. It explores the scope of error analysis (EA) in the target language acquisition and sheds light on students' behaviour in learning. Several examples of students' errors are introduced with their possible causal factors so as to better understand the phenomenon.

Chapter two provides a comparison and illustration of the morphological systems of Arabic and English. It is meant to describe Arabic and English morphological systems in order to identify the similarities and differences between them. The process of comparing both systems involves the analysis and descriptions of the elements of morphology: the inflection, derivation and compounding of different parts of speech. These descriptions cover the form, meaning and distribution of morphemes.

Chapter three is a contrastive analysis study of Arabic and English syntax, comprising illustrations and examples provided for different cases. It provides a contrastive study of the syntactic structures including different language items such as the form, the meaning and the distribution of words in sentences so as to check whether or not the structure of L2 has a similar form in L1, it indicates the same meaning and is similarly distributed in the system of L1. The study also deals with points like sentence types, parts of speech that constitute the minimal elements of sentences and analyzing questions using the different auxiliaries or interrogative pronouns.

Chapters two and three provide an answer to the research question about whether or not L1 interference is due to the structural differences between the grammatical systems of Arabic and English.

Chapter four is about context in FL learning, in general, and writing in particular. It deals with points like the nature of writing, L1 impact on L2 writing, context of culture affecting students' acquisition of L2 writing, students' background knowledge, as well as L1 context in L2 acquisition. All these points are studied to provide an answer to whether or not L1 socio-

cultural context where students learn to write has negative effects on students' performance.

Chapter five studies the results and analyze the collected data of the investigation. It deals with the investigation in the form of data and data analysis, which are represented in the form of tables, graphs, and statistic figures. They also state the facts as they are observed and pave the way to the possible interpretations of students and teachers' data results through the three methods of investigation including the questionnaire, the validation test and the checklist. This is to answer the research question number three about the other possible kinds of grammatical errors students usually make in addition to L1 interference.

Chapter six means to reach conclusions from which possible remedial works and recommendations can be suggested. It is where the main limitations of the study are set out and followed by pedagogical and research implications. It ends with some concluding remarks and recommendations with respect to the contributions this work may offer at the level of different forms of English writings. It is hoped to bring extra changes, adjust and improve course content selection and methodological procedures that may increase students' motivational force to enhance their innate drives and develop their writing quality.

Finally, a general conclusion on the findings and future prospects is supplied.

In agreement with my supervisor, the MLA system of referencing and bibliographical presentation has been implemented in this thesis form and conception.

CHAPTER

ONE

Chapter I: Theoretical Review: Cross-linguistic Influence and Learner's Errors

Introduction

I.1. The Notion of Error

I.2. Error and Mistake

I.3. Approaches to the Study of Errors

I.3.1. Contrastive Analysis Approach

I.3.2. Error Analysis Approach

I.4. Description of Errors

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I.5.1. Intralingual Errors

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Conclusion

“An error in learning L2 in speech as well as in writing is the use of a linguistic item such as a word, a grammatical item, a speech act in a way a native speaker regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.”

Richards and Schmidt, (2002:184)

Introduction

Since the late sixties, a considerable number of researches have been conducted in the field of L2 acquisition. The complicated process of language learning has attracted continuing interest from researchers in Linguistics, Psychology, and Education. The major psychological task has been the investigation of how learners acquire L2 as well as the exploration of their cognitive processes in learning so as to predict and then explain encountered flaws, and finally think of and suggest the suitable material to be used in teaching.

The application of the linguistic and psychological theories to the study of L2 learning have extended to the discussion of learners' errors as originated from learners' incomplete competence in L2 grammar or L1 interference. Such errors are related to two known approaches: the contrastive approach, deeply rooted in behaviourism and structuralism, claims that the principal obstacle to L2 acquisition is the interference of the L1 system to the L2 system, and thus suggests a scientific and structural comparison of the two languages in question in order to predict and describe the confronted issues. The error analysis approach which claims that contrastive analysis is unable to predict a great number of errors, assumes that errors are produced by learners making faulty inferences about the rules of the target language.

The first chapter aims to give a theoretical review of “error” in the context of its origin and influence on L2 learning process. It explores the scope of EA in target language acquisition and sheds light on learner’s behaviour in learning. Several examples of learners’ errors are introduced with their likely causal factors so as to better understand the phenomenon.

I.1. Notion of Error

Error is the most natural thing attached to human beings. A child learning his native language, an adult native speaker, or a foreign language learner; they all make errors both in comprehension and production.

In the foreign language process, error has, most of the time, been regarded as a negative thing indicating failure and obstructing progress and, thus should be avoided. The idea of ‘error’ as an effect to be avoided was supported by the ‘behaviourism approach’ that sees this phenomenon as “*bad habits*” formed as a result of ineffective teaching and, therefore claims that if they are repeated they become habitual. For behaviourists’ learning theory, old habits hinder or facilitate new habits; that is why errors are unwanted. This approach maintains that errors would never be committed in the first place if it were hoped to achieve a perfect teaching method.

A different conception from the behaviourists’ is the one which considers ‘error’ essential to the learning process, for without it there is no progress. This conception finds a more realistic attitude towards errors which are no longer a reflection on the teaching methods, but are rather indicators that learning is taking place, i.e., the evidence that language acquisition is working. So, errors are no longer bad, but as

natural as those that occur in learning a first language, and a learner errs because he is evolving in a new language system through which he is testing his knowledge of the new encountered data.

Chomsky's idea that a child generates language through innate universal structures is based on the conception of trial and error. The infant is born with an innate predisposition to acquire language; i.e., he possesses an internal mechanism of unknown nature which enables him to construct a grammar of a particular language. Yet, his grammar will be corrected progressively and the error he makes promotes his progress and improvement in learning. The child slowly but surely learns to produce what is acceptable speech in his native language (Brown, 2000: 217).

L2 learning may not be the same process with L1 in trial and error nature. The learning process might be obstructed if the learner does not make errors which might enable him to benefit from the various kinds of their feedback. So, error is seen as something positive, not a problem. For most applied linguists, it is the most important source of information about the nature of a learner's language knowledge. By predicting, describing and classifying his errors in linguistic terms, it is possible to draw an image on the features which cause learning difficulties. Thus, errors are indispensable since making them can be a device the learner uses in order to learn (Selinker, 1992:150). For Dulay, Burt, Krashen (1982:138) "*People cannot learn a language without first systematically committing errors.*"

The investigation of errors can be at the same time diagnostic and prognostic. It is diagnostic because it can tell us the learner's 'state of language' (Corder, 1973: 270) at a given point during the learning process and prognostic because it can tell course organizers to reorient language learning materials.

Another conception considers error to be the result of the social-cognitive interaction. This means that error carries a cognitive process as well as a social and cultural component which make it vary in different societies.

I.2. Error and Mistake

A distinction, however, is made between an error which results from incomplete knowledge, and a mistake which is caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness or some other aspects of performance. Corder states that

“an error is a result of a learner’s lack of competence; a mistake however, occurs when this learner fails to perform their competence.”

(1967: 9)

For Crystal (1992:125), errors which reflect systematically the level of competence achieved by a learner are contrasted with mistakes, which are performance imitations that a learner would be able to correct.

Mistakes are very often described as lapses. A mistake refers to a sort of performance error; it is a failure to make use of an unknown system. Everybody makes mistakes in both native and second language situations. Native speakers can recognize and correct such mistakes (lapses) which are not the result of the deficiency in competence, but the result of imperfection of producing speech (Brown, 2000: 217). For James (1998:83) an error cannot be self corrected; whereas a mistake can be corrected especially if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker.

Errors are deviances that are due to deficient competence, i.e. the knowledge of the language, which may or may not be conscious. These errors which are systematic result

from deficient competence and thus, cannot be corrected. Mistakes are due to performance deficiencies and arise from lack of attention, slips of memory, anxiety possibly caused by pressure of time, etc. They are not systematic and readily identifiable and self correctable. (Corder 1973: 259).

To most language dictionaries, error and mistake are synonymous; however, it is not the case in error analysis approach; each term is reserved for something rather different. Corder (1967) in Robinett & Schachter (1986: 168) stresses the problem of distinguishing learners' mistakes from learners' errors, the thing that requires a much more sophisticated study and analysis of learners' encountered difficulties. Corder (ibid) refers to errors of performance as 'mistakes' which are not significant to the language learning process. Errors, for him, provide evidence of the language system the learner is using. Corder (1973: 257) makes a clear-cut distinction between erroneous utterances that deserve consideration and attention and occasional mistakes comprising slips of the tongue or slips of the pen made by native speakers, and which are easy to correct. For example:

- a) It's a bit- it isn't- I mean, I wouldn't really care to have one just like that...
- b) It didn't bother me in the sleast...slightest

a) and b) are examples of mistakes very often made by native speakers or even those non-natives who know L2 quite well. Yet these 'lapses and slips' can be overcome because they are not systematic errors. These latter are very serious and would result in different learning problems because of the learners' imperfect knowledge of the code and the rules of the TL which they have not yet internalized. The following are examples of errors the non-native learners tend commit:

- a) He gaved her an orange.
- b) Tell me what did you do.
- c) She worked hardly.

a), b) and c) are examples which reveal the underlying knowledge of the learner who seems to be in his transitional competence, Corder (1967 in Robinett & Schachter, 1986: 168). Errors demonstrate clearly that the learner is using a system of language that is not the right one, yet it is an important step for him to reconstruct the knowledge of the language he is learning.

I.3. Approaches to the Study of Errors

For most specialists in the field of teaching, errors are no longer “bad habits”. They are clues to what is happening in the learners’ mind. They are regarded as a natural phenomenon that must occur when learning a first or a second language and that all beginners learn by making mistakes (Shaughnessy, 1977: 5). Zamel (1981: 146) thinks that errors indicate not that the student has not yet learnt but rather s/he is in the process of doing so. Yet the most important thing is how to diagnose the nature and the quality of those errors to seek for the possible causes beyond them, i.e., to build up an image of the features of the language causing problems to the learners, and finally decide for the possible and adequate remedial work to help them overcome their L2 acquisition problems.

Along the years, studies in L2 acquisition have focused on the nature and sources of errors. Researches show that error sources might be psychological, cognitive,

or sociolinguistic. For that reason, two different linguistic approaches have emerged for the description and identification of learners' problems.

I.3.1. Contrastive Analysis Approach

According to contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), errors occur as a result of interference when the learners transfer native language habits into the L2. It is believed that a negative transfer takes place especially when the mother tongue and the TL differ from each other. Consequently, this makes applied linguists devote their research to the comparison of the native language and the target language so as to make possible predictions and then explanations about those errors.

The term 'contrastive analysis' is especially associated with applied contrastive studies advocated as a means of predicting and explaining learners' L2 acquisition problems. It is an investigative approach based on the systematic comparison of languages, i.e., it involves the comparison of the systems or subsystems of two or more languages in order to determine both the similarities and the differences between them. Its aim was to seek

- a) why some features of the TL are more difficult to acquire than others.
- b) the presence or absence of the rules in the compared languages.
- c) which element or class of elements in L1 are equivalent or different from the ones of L2, or vice versa.
- d) for the best teaching materials based on CA to facilitate L2 learning.

Prior to the 1970s, Contrastive Analysis was extensively used in the domain of L2 acquisition. Its main interest was the systematic comparison of two languages with the strong belief that this comparison would result in a more effective teaching

pedagogy in case it is taken into consideration. Fries favours the implication of the contrastive analysis approach and claims that

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

(1972: 9)

According to the contrastive analysis hypothesis, errors occur as a result of interference when the learner transfers L1 habits into L2. It is believed that interference takes place when L1 and L2 differ from each other. Thus, the teaching problems, for linguists such as Lado (1957), Benathy, Trager and Waddle (1966) & Fries (1972), are to be approached scientifically by using the methods derived from structural linguistics in order to characterize the syntactic structures of sentences in terms of their grammatical categories and surface arrangements.

Lado (1957) was the first to provide a comprehensive theoretical treatment and to suggest a systematic set of procedures for the contrastive study of language. He stresses the tight relation between contrastive analysis and language teaching. The most known version is that linguistic comparison is based simply on similarities and differences of the L1 and L2. Lado (1957:1) maintains that a student who starts to learn a foreign language will find easiness to acquire the elements which are similar to the ones in his native language; on the contrary, those which differ will be extremely difficult.

This conviction that linguistic differences could be an important procedure to predict learning difficulties results in the notion of the “*contrastive analysis hypothesis*” (CAH). This hypothesis, intimately associated with behaviouristic idea that language

acquisition is formed through habit formation, claims that positive transfer occurs if the two languages are similar; if they are different, negative transfer, or interference would result (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991:53).

Contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) has been stated in two versions:

a) Strong (predictive) version

It is the early formulation of the CAH which starts with a cross-linguistic comparison of two languages. This version, supported by Lado (1957) and Fries (1972), claims that prediction of difficulties in learning L2 could be based upon a comparison of two languages, i.e., L2 errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between L1 and L2, and that the source of those errors is attributed to L1 interference. Wardhaugh (1970: 124) states that the strong version predicts that the majority of L2 errors are due to negative transfer.

b) Weak (explanatory) version

The formulation of the weak version is to identify which errors are the result of L1 interference, and thus, it explains the errors after they are made. This version also admits the existence of other possible sources of errors other than those resulting from L1, and aims at formulating a diagnosis instead of a priory prediction. Wardhaugh 1970 in Robinet & Schachter 1986:10) maintains that the weak version starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the similarities and differences between them.

However, both the strong and weak versions have been criticized in their approaches. For Wardhaugh (1970: 13) the strong version relies on a weak linguistic theory; similarly, the weak version is unsatisfactory because it does not predict anything except its identification of the already occurred errors. Besides, the empirical evidence accumulated in the mid- and late 1970s points out that the strongest CAH version that “*all errors made in learning could be attributed to interference by LI*” could not be sustained because many errors predicted by CA are not observed in learners’ language. Moreover, CAH has some problems for the simple reason that it is grounded in the behaviourist view of language. This view which was seriously challenged by Noam Chomsky’s (1959) classic review of ‘Skinner’s Verbal Behavior’ adds a sort of discredit to CAH.

Other linguists do not totally reject CA in error investigation, yet they minimize its role. Richards states that

“Contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of interlanguage interference. Many errors, however, derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition and the mutual interference of items within the target language. These cannot be accounted for by CA.

(1971a: 214)

Despite the negative reaction of several analysts to CAH weaknesses, contrastive studies remain an important procedure in the description of learner errors. Language teaching has obtained considerable outcomes from the application of CA which remains one of the important theories in the field of L2 acquisition.

I.3.2. Error Analysis approach

Thanks to S. Pit Corder (1967), error analysis gained its place as a scientific method in linguistics and became a recognised part of applied linguistics. It is considered as a more established approach as an alternative to contrastive analysis. The approach influenced by behaviourism sees that the delimitation of second language structures obstruct learning process as a result of the differences existing between the structures of L1 and the ones of L2, which results in L1 negative transfer. However, for EA, errors are not only due to the transfer of the learner's native L1. They could be fully described in terms of the TL, without the need to refer to the learner's L1. This means that EA deals with the learner's performance in terms of the cognitive processes he uses to decode the input he encounters when learning L2.

For (Ellis 2000: 48), EA provides a methodology for investigating learner's language and thus it constitutes an appropriate starting point for the study of his L2 acquisition. EA claims that a careful study of errors committed by L2 learners would provide factual empirical data rather than theoretical speculation for developing a syllabus or a model of second language acquisition (Schachter & Celce-Murcia in Robinet & Schachter 1983: 272)

Another concept of error analysis is given By Brown (2000: 220). He defines the term as the process of observing, analyzing, and classifying the deviations of the rules of the second language and then revealing the systems operated by the learner. It seems that this concept is the same as the one proposed by Crystal (1992:125), i.e., error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the

principles and procedures provided by linguistics. The definitions above clarify that error analysis is an activity to identify, classify, interpret or describe the errors made by someone in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or in writing a language sentences.

Formerly, not much focus was put on the role of learners' errors in L2 learning acquisition. Linguists used to observe them, divide them into categories, and see which ones were common and which were not, i.e., the main focus of the analyst was on the actual error, that is the 'product'. Yet, now the shift has gone from the product to the 'process' behind it. In error analysis, many studies (Corder, 1967, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974; Hatch, 1978; Larsen Freeman, 1975, Ellis, 2000) show that the main investigation has been on why the learner makes errors. This has led to changes in attitudes towards errors which should not, any more, be seen as something to be avoided, but something that needs to be analysed with great care. Error analysts distinguish between errors which are systematic and mistakes which are not. They often seek to develop a typology of errors by:

- a) describing the nature and types of learners' errors.
- b) providing evidence of how language is learnt or acquired.
- c) diagnosing the strategies or procedures the learner employs in the discovery of the language.

However, many studies (Schachter, 1974; Kleinmann, 1977; Tarone, 1981 James, 1998) have shown that EA fails to explain the "avoidance" phenomenon (one of the learner's strategies in learning) which is considered as a serious learning problem. A

learner uses a form that is simpler than the one he finds difficult in the target linguistic element (this may be a particular sound, word, or structure), especially if the construction of the hypothesis about the TL in the learner's mind is completely different from that of the NL. Brown (2000: 128) defines the term 'avoidance' as a common strategy that can be broken down into several subcategories, mainly at the syntactic or lexical levels. He illustrates the point in the following examples:

L: I lost my road.

NS: You lost your road?

L: Uh, ... I lost. I lost. I got lost.

Because the learner is not able to come up with the word 'way', he totally avoids the lexical item 'road' in the last sentence. In this case, EA, without priori predictions, fails to draw conclusions about the phenomenon. (Schachter in Robinet & Schachter, 1983: 360).

Whatever the weaknesses claimed to belong to its field of study, EA achieved considerable popularity in the 1970s, replacing contrastive analysis (Ellis, 2000: 68). It often tries to give a full description to the process of foreign language acquisition, in general and to learners' common learning strategies, in particular. It has greatly contributed to the field of FL teaching and learning, and is considered as a reliable approach to the study of errors (Ellis, 1994; Corder, 1967; Brown, 2000)

I.4. Description of Errors

The notion “error” is used in psycholinguistics and is of two types:

I.4.1. Speaker’s errors: are conscious or unconscious deviations from the intended form of the utterance. They are types of errors which may lead to the addition, deletion, or substitution of sounds and morphemes known as “slips of the tongue” or “slips of the brain” (Corder, 1973: 257); and are made in the false starts, pauses and non-fluencies of speech. They can occur at the syntactic, morphological, lexical and phonological levels as a result of the learners’ ignorance of the rules of L2. Besides, speakers very often make speech errors when they are nervous, tired or anxious. Hockett explains that:

“whenever a speaker feels some anxiety about possible lapse, he will be led to focus attention more than normally on what has just been said and on what he is just about to say.”

(1973: 97)

1.4.2. Hearer’s errors: are noticeable in the process of acquisition, mainly when the hearer misunderstands the speaker’s utterance.

Ellis (2000: 51-52) provides a clear example of how learners’ errors are described, identified and analysed. The primary step requires the selection of the corpus of language from which errors are identified after making a distinction between errors and mistakes. The errors are then classified as overt and covert (Corder, 1971a, in Ellis (ibid: 52). An overt error can be easily spotted and identified because the deviation in form the learner makes is very clear, as when one says “*I seen a film yesterday*” instead

of “*I saw a film yesterday.*” A covert error occurs in utterances where it is seen as superficially correct, but in fact it is not what the learner intends to say. An example on that is the utterance “*I was stopped*” instead of “*I stopped*”. In the same process (Brown, 2000: 220) makes a major distinction between ‘overt’ and ‘covert’ errors. For him overtly erroneous utterances are completely ungrammatical at the sentence level; while covertly erroneous utterances are grammatically well-formed at the sentence level, yet they are not interpretable within the context.

I.5. Sources of errors

Most of the studies in the domain of error analysis classify learners’ error into categories, and used them as the basis for preparing lessons and materials so as to remedy such errors. Lee (1957: 77-85) proposes that errors must be corrected at all learning stages, i.e. beginning, intermediate, and advanced, so that the errors which are still being made by advanced learners, for example, can be distinguished from those being made by beginners. But, why are these errors made? Taylor (1986 in Ellis, 2000: 57) points out that error source might be psycholinguistic which concerns the learner’s difficulties in the production of L2 as a result of L2 knowledge different system; sociolinguistic, when learners have problems to adjust the language with the new social context; Epistemic, concerns learners’ lack of world knowledge, and discourse sources, concern learners’ inability to organize a piece of information into a coherent text. Brown (2000: 224) maintains that errors arise from several possible general sources, two of which are “*interligual errors of interference from the native language,*

intralingual errors within the target language, context of learning and communication strategies.”

In identifying errors, Richards (1974: 12-22) proposes a three-way classification of errors:

I.5.1. Intralingual errors

They are those originated within the structure of the target language itself and which are caused by incomplete application of rules and failure to clear condition for rule application. Richards defines intralingual errors as 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.”

(1984: 174)

The complexity of rule structure encourages learning problems and all learners, regardless of background language, tend to commit similar errors. In short, these errors occur when learners attempt to use concepts and build up hypotheses about L2 from their limited experience to it. This sort of error can be subdivided into:

A) Overgeneralization errors: These errors are common in both the speech and writing of L2 learners irrespective of their mother tongue. An example on that is the use of the suffix ‘-ed’ for all verbs of English. Moreover, learners very often create a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language (Ellis 2000:59) and this would result in a sentence like ‘*He can sings*’ instead of ‘*He can sing*’.

B) Ignorance of rule restrictions: It is the learner's use of the rules in contexts contrary to where it is expected, as the case of '*He made me to smile*' instead of '*He made me smile*'.

C) Incomplete application of rules: It is when learners fail to fully develop a structure. These kinds of errors are referred to as errors of transitional competence (Richards, 1971a in Ellis 2000: 59), as in the sentence '*The man works hardly*', instead of '*the man works hard*'

D) False concepts hypothesized: resulted from the learner's wrong understanding of a distinction in the target language. For instance, learners tend to say '*I don't know why did he leave*' instead of '*I don't know why he left*'

I.5.2. Interlingual (Interference) errors

They are those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue when attempting to produce the target language in those areas where both languages clearly differ; this being the main concern of the contrastive analysis approach. Errors are regarded as signs that the learner is internalizing and investigating the system of the new language. It is, as seen by different linguists, a significant source of language learners' errors. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 267) define interlingual errors as being the result of language negative transfer, which is caused by the learner's first language influence. This includes phonological, grammatical (morpho-syntactic) and lexical transfer. Cook states that

“the L1 is present in the L2 learners' minds, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not. The L2 knowledge that is being created in them is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge.”

(1991: 589)

According to (Lott 1983 in Ellis 2000: 59) interlingual errors can be subdivided into three categories:

a- Overextension of analogy: It is the learners' misuse of a language as a result of its sharing a feature in L1.

b- Transfer of structure: this concerns a phonological, lexical, grammatical, or pragmatic feature from L1 instead of the one of L2.

c- Interlingual/ intralingual errors: this arises as a result of the absence of a particular distinction in L1, as the case of 'do' and 'make' in Arabic language.

I.5.3. Developmental / Overgeneralization errors

They reflect the strategies by which learners acquire the language. These errors show that learners make false hypotheses about the target language based on limited exposure to it, i.e. the limited data they possess as a result of their limited background knowledge of the target language and culture. These errors are common among L2 learners who, for example, produce verb forms such as 'comed', 'speaked', and 'maked' instead of 'came', 'spoke' and 'made'. Such errors are a natural stage in language learning.

I.6. Classification of errors

All learners make errors in different languages in speech and in writing, even if it is the case of the mother tongue. Some errors have different effects on intelligibility;

they are with little effects in the sense that they do not impede comprehension; others, on the contrary, can bring about serious communication problems.

Errors can be classified according to vocabulary, 'lexical errors'; pronunciation, 'phonological errors'; grammar, 'morpho-syntactic errors', misunderstanding of what the speaker's intention or meaning, 'interpretive errors'; or those of wrong speech, 'pragmatic errors'.

Those experienced in the field of language teaching have always faced problems to locate the exact error made by learners in speech and in certain written productions such as essays. This means that an error cannot always be spotted. Hence, they are still faced with the problem of which error to correct and how to correct it.

Errors have been examined from different sides: the source of the learners' errors, the classification of errors, their effect on the learning process and how to treat them. Burt and Kiparsky (1974:73) make a clear cut distinction between '*global errors*', which affect the overall organization of the sentence, i.e. the overall structure of the sentence making a sentence or utterance difficult or impossible to understand, and '*local errors*' that affect a single element of the sentence, i.e., only a particular constituent, thus it does not cause problems of comprehension. Global errors include incorrect word combination in a sentence; while local errors involve word inflection and derivation as well as the use of articles, prepositions and auxiliaries. Richards and Schmidt (2002:226) give the following examples on both global errors and local errors:

Global error: 1) "*I like take taxi but my friend said so not that we should be late for school.*" (A complete disorder of words, therefore, it would be marked as erroneous.)

Local error: 2) "*If I heard from him I will let you know.*" (Only 'heard' is unsuitable as a verb tense, yet it does not affect meaning).

1.7. Error categories

Language learners' knowledge may be judged by a number and sorts of errors they make. Those which may be regarded as the most important source of information about the nature of their knowledge, i.e. from those errors teachers may be able to infer the nature of their knowledge during their learning process and discover their need.

According to Corder (1973:277), errors fall into four main categories: omission of some required elements, addition of some unnecessary or incorrect elements, selection of incorrect elements, and misordering of elements.

I.7.1. Omission:

A learner of an L2 may omit certain linguistic forms as soon as he finds that the way of producing them is very complex. For example, in cases of the learner who says: "I am here since three o'clock." does not only select the wrong grammatical item, but also shows that he has not learned the function of the auxiliary system in English, the rule would be:

Auxiliary + perfective + tense + since + point-of-time noun

i.e., the verb is in the perfective form when collocated with the prepositional phrase of time: since + point-of-time. (Corder 1973: 278-279)

A learner very often makes omissions, as the case for the third person singular morpheme *-s* as in "*he speak*" English well, the plural marker *_s* as in "*he has three brother*." And the past tense inflection *-ed* is left out, as in "*He help me yesterday*." In

syntax, learners may omit certain elements which are compulsory as in “*must go there?*” instead of “*Must we go there?*” and the definite article ‘the’ as in “*I went to movies*”

I.7.2. Addition:

Learners tend to add redundant elements. In phonetics and phonology, a frequent phenomenon is referred to as “epenthesis”, Crystal (1992:123), and consists of the insertion of an additional vowel. This epenthetic vowel which is taken from the first language pattern can then be added to foreign words. With many learners of French and English, for example, this sort of intrusive vowel has a vowel harmony of the learners’ mother tongue and totally affects the accent of the target language. For example, Algerian learners tend to add the semi vowel sounds /w/ and /j/ in words like ‘bought’ /bɔ:t/ and ‘energy’ /enədʒi/ which are pronounced as [bɔwt] and [ejnədʒi]. Learners also tend not to make the difference between short and long vowels as in ‘leave’ and ‘live’; they usually pronounce both of them as /li:v/, and mispronounce certain vowels such as [u] for /ə/ as in ‘the’ [ðu] for /ðə/

In morphology, learners tend to add the morpheme {s} of the third person singular to the first person singular as in “I thinks” instead of “I think”, and the morpheme {s} of plurality to the singular noun as in “*The books is on the table*” instead of “*The book is on the table.*”

At the syntactic level, learners very often produce wrong combinations. An example of that is the use of the article with a name, as in “*The London Big Bang*” instead of “*London Big Ben*”. Similarly an auxiliary might be added in English as the case of “*does he can sing?*”.

At the lexical level, learners may add unnecessary words as in “*I remained there during two months.*” instead of “*I remained there for two months.*”

I.7.3. Selection:

Learners make errors in pronunciation, morphology, grammar and vocabulary because of their choice of the wrong phoneme, morpheme, structure or vocabulary item.

At the phonological level, learners often substitute a familiar phoneme from the mother tongue for a target phoneme that is completely different and difficult to pronounce. Some Algerian learners, for instance, pronounce /t/ for /θ/. One may say [tɜ:d]/ instead of /θɜ:d/ (third), or [d] for /ð/, as in [dəuz] instead of /ðəuz/ (those), because they are used to pronounce /t/ instead of /θ/ and /d/ instead of /ð/ in their ordinary speech in the AA variety. This is referred to as “*interlingual transfer*” Ellis (2000:51).

In morphology, learners select the wrong morphemes. For example, they may use {est} instead of {er} in comparatives, making a sentence like “*He is oldest than me.*” instead of “*He is older than me.*”, or they may substitute {er} by {more} in the case of short adjectives, as in “*more quick*” instead of “*quicker*”.

In syntax, learners may select a wrong structure. One may say “*I want that he comes here.*” Instead of “*I want him to come here.*” This sort of error may also be due to their negative transfer.

At the lexical level, learners sometimes select words which do not convey their intended meanings. One may say “*If the sense of this word is not clear, ask a dictionary.*” Instead of “*If the sense of this word is not clear, consult a dictionary.*”

I.7.4. Ordering:

In pronouncing certain words, learners may make errors by shifting the position of certain phoneme as in pronouncing the words (constitution) /kənstitju:ʃən/ as /kəntistju:ʃən/, and (facilitate) /fə'siliteit/ as /fə'sitileit/.

At the morphological level, usually there are errors of misordering bound morphemes as in English “*She’s get upping now.*” instead of “*She’s getting up now.*” The learner links the inflection “ing” to the particle of the two-word verb “get up”.

There are also other errors of misordering. One may say “*I think he is a man wise*” instead of “*I think he is a wise man.*” Or “*He’s a dear to me friend*” instead of “*He’s a dear friend to me*”. This means that the constituents of a single noun phrase are split.

At the lexical level, words may be reversed by learners. An example of that is the compound word “*greenhouse*” which becomes ‘*housegreen*’, or ‘*bookshop*’ into ‘*shopbook*’ and so on.

In the classification of learners’ errors, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982:150) used a surface strategy taxonomy through which they attempt to describe the learners’ errors categories.

Category	Description	Example
Omission	The absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance.	She sleeping.
Addition	The presence of an item that must not appear in well-formed utterances	We didn't went there.
Misinformation	The use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure.	The dog ated the chicken.
Misorderings	The incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.	What Kate is doing?

Table I.1. Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Errors
(Categories and examples taken from Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982)

Many erroneous sentences made by foreign language learners result in serious ambiguity. This presents a problem of interpretation mainly for the reader or the listener who fails to grasp what those who attempt to use the language want to say. The close contact between languages mainly in bilingual situations leads to serious errors within which interference and transfer occupy an immense part in the learning process. That is why it is necessary to accurately diagnose the difficulties the learners have and the errors they frequently make. With the results that may be obtained, it would be possible to know precisely what the learning problems are and one can concentrate on how to test them in order to have positive results. To reach this objective, linguists find that error analysis is a way to study the difficulties

I.8. Significance of learners' errors

Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on learner's unsuccessful acquisition of language. It is the process of determining the incident, nature, causes and consequences of error with a clear objective. It seeks suitable and effective teaching and possible remedial measures necessary to improve foreign language learning. In general, it is based on the analysis of learner's errors to obtain a better understanding of the process of second language acquisition (SLA). Corder maintains that:

“A learner's errors...are significant in that they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in the discovery of the language.”

(Corder,1967: 167, cited in Brown, 2000: 217)

Researchers came to realize that the errors a learner makes in constructing a new system of language are to be analyzed and diagnosed carefully because they may contain the keys to the understanding of the process of FL acquisition. This means that from the study of his errors, they can be able to infer the nature of the learner's knowledge and discover what he has to learn. The most important aspect of errors is that they are indispensable as a means for a learner to learn. In his article “The Significance of Learners' Errors”, Corder (1967: 168-169) explains the value of errors in three different ways which can be summarised in the teacher's awareness of the learner's progress, the researcher's investigation for the strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language, and finally for the learner himself

who encounters those errors as being an important device for his progress and development. Brown stresses on the same point when saying that:

“ The fact that learners do make errors and these errors can be observed, analysed and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner leads to a surge of learners’ errors, called ‘error analysis’.

(2000: 218)

According to Dulay and Burt (1974:129-36), errors have played an important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in the examination of L2 acquisition in particular. Researchers see that errors contain valuable information on the strategies learners use to acquire a language. This means that one can determine a learners’ level of mastery of the language through those errors. According to Corder (1967:162-169), the investigation of errors has a double purpose: it is diagnostic because it can tell us the learner’s “état de langue” at a given point during the learning process and prognostic because it can tell course designers to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learner’s current errors.

1.9. Interlanguage as “Learner Language”

The term ‘interlanguage’, adapted from Weinreich’s *Language in Contact* (1953) has great impact on the field of L2 acquisition, namely on the linguistic and psychological side of language. It attempts to explain the process of learners’ L2 acquisition by diagnosing the nature of the linguistic representation of L2 that they form. ‘Interlanguage’ as mentioned by Ellis (2000: 33) was coined by the American linguist Selinker (1972) who claims that L2 learners who have not become fully

proficient form a linguistic system based on L1, but which is different from it and also from L2. In other words, Interlanguage is neither the system of the NL nor the system of the TL, but a system which falls between the two. It is a third code with its own grammar, its own lexicon based on the learner's attempts to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. It is closely related to some types of languages such as pidgin and creole for each having its own grammar and phonology. Yet, what differs between them is that a learner's interlanguage concerns only one speaker, i.e., the learner whose system (interlanguage) changes as soon as he gains more knowledge and becomes more proficient in the language; however, pidgin and creole have many speakers and are developed as a group process. For Ellis (ibid) a learner's interlanguage is

“a unique linguistic system in which the learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which underlines comprehension and production of L2. This system of rules is viewed as a ‘mental grammar’.”

(2000:33)

The learner's grammar, according to him may lead to the omission, overgeneralization and transfer errors, or to adding rules, deleting rules, and reconstructing the whole system of L2, i.e., the learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules which includes the comprehension and the production of L2. This unique linguistic system which the learner draws is seen as evidence of learning strategies.

The concept of interlanguage describes how L2 acquisition takes place, i.e. the type of language produced by L2 learners who are in the process of learning a language. Richards and Schmidt (2002: 267) explain it as a different system from both the mother tongue and the target language, i.e., a system that has a structurally intermediate status

between the native and the target languages (Brown 2000: 215). Ellis (1997: 34) asks different questions to have very precise explanation of the term 'Interlanguage'. These questions are:

*When does input work for acquisition and when does it not?

*Why do learners sometimes employ an L1 transfer strategy and sometimes an overgeneralization strategy?

*What makes learners' language so variable?

*What causes learners to restructure their interlanguage?

*Why does this restructuring result in clearly identifiable sequences of acquisition?

*Why do most learners fossilize?

The interlanguage rules are claimed to be shaped by several factors, including L1 negative transfer, strategies of L2 learning and communication, as well as overgeneralization of the target language patterns.

I.10. Psycholinguistic Aspect of Interlanguage

Studies on interlanguage stress the linguistic and psychological aspects of L2 acquisition. The idea of 'interlanguage' is founded upon the assumption that an L2 learner uses a language system which is neither L1 nor L2, and thus, the rules used in the learning process are not found in both languages. This new system which presents an image of the learner's strategies may include language interference, avoidance and overuse.

I.10.1. Language Interference / Transfer

Language interference, also known as cross-linguistic interference or transfer, is based on the influence of the learner's first language on the production of the target language as a result of the similarities and the differences between the TL and the one previously acquired (Odlin 1989: 27). Learners, particularly in the first stages of L2 acquisition, usually transfer items and structures that are different in both languages. This may take place at the phonological, grammatical, and lexical levels. L1 phonological and orthographic processes interfere with spelling L2 words with unfamiliar phonemes or graphemes; miscues in L2 reading can be attributed to native syntactical knowledge; and word order variation, complex noun phrases and other complex structural differences between languages can be misleading to the foreign language learner.

According to behaviourists, L1 interference is the most widely recognized source of foreign language problems as a result of the differences between the system of L1 and L2. Lado confirms this when saying that:

“the student who comes into contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him and those that are different will be difficult.”

(1957: 1)

Language interference is also concerned with transferability of speech acts from one language to another and the extent to which the learner is able to apply his intuitive knowledge of how to use his native language to the foreign language. Learners tend to

translate in a literal word-for-word from one language into another and since not all speech acts are directly transferable between two languages without a change of form that goes beyond literal translation, serious errors are made in the process.

Weinreich (1953: 1) discusses how two language systems relate to each other in the mind of the learner. His key concept is interference, defined as “*those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language.*” By implication, this will be likely to produce errors which led linguists to develop ‘Contrastive Analysis’ in order to predict learning errors by examining differences between L1 and L2.

I.10.1.1.Negative transfer

Perhaps the most known source of foreign language learning errors is that of L1 transfer (Corder 1973: 132). It refers to the errors a speaker introduces into one language as a result of contact with mother language (Crystal 1992:180), although there are cases where the relevant features are similar for both languages and which results in a positive transfer. It is often assumed that most errors are derived from learner’s negative transfer which occurs in any situation where someone has an imperfect command of L2 language, i.e. the learner appears to accumulate structural entities of the TL, yet demonstrates difficulty in organizing this knowledge into appropriate and coherent structures. This would create a gap between the accumulation and the organization of knowledge.

Not all speech acts are directly transferable from a language to another without a change from what goes beyond literal translation; this may lead to serious

misinterpretations among the interlocutors, mainly when the structures of the two languages are distinctly different. In this case, one could predict a relatively high frequency of errors to occur in L2, thus indicating an interference of L1 on L2 (Ellis 1994: 58). Lee says that:

**“the prime cause, or ever the sole cause of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner’s native language’
(1968:180)**

When learning a foreign language, learners use some of the rules they have already acquired in L1 in the production and understanding of L2. This means that they exert some influence using L1 over L2. This influence is frequently apparent in the errors that learners make either orally or in writing. For example, Algerian learners of English make errors like: The man whom I spoke to him is a doctor, which has the same form as in the Arabic /erradʒulu el laði tahaddaθtu maʕahuʔabi:b/. The learners’ L1 not only affects L2 vocabulary and grammar but also its phonology.

I.10.1.1.1. Phonological Interference

When learning L2, the learner very often transfers the phonological system of the source language, i.e., L1. This transfer includes L1 phonemes and their variants, stress and rhythm patterns as well as intonation patterns and their interaction with other phonemes. Therefore, a sound that is infringed by the learner creates a deviation leading to a distortion in L2 pronunciation. This especially happens when L2 sounds are not part of the sound system of L1; i.e., in the phonemic inventory of L1, and thus the difficulty

in this case is more persistent (Lado 1957: 12). When comparing the sound system of English with that of Portuguese, Lado (1957: 13) finds out that Portuguese does not have phonemes similar to the English / tʃ , dʒ , θ , ð , h , r , j , w / as in chew, jump, ether, either, rose, year, wet, respectively. So, Portuguese learners of English have problems in pronouncing these sounds. Weinreich (1966: 20) notes that the majority of French speakers substitute [t] for [d]. Similarly, Many Algerian learners find it hard to articulate certain English sounds namely those which do not exist in Arabic. Hence, they substitute them by the closest ones from the local stock. This substitution may include both vowels and consonants.

The most important difference between Arabic and English in terms of vowels is the number that each language has. Arabic has only three vowels /i/, /a/, and /u/, yet the range of allophonic variation of each vowel phoneme is much greater in English. The Arabic /a/ has allophones within the area limited by [e] as in [erini] (show me), [æ] as in [hæ:t] (give me), [a] as in [ra:h] (he left), and [ʔʌdraka] (he realized). /u/ has the allophones [u] as in [burtuqa:l] (oranges), and [ɒ] as in [qɒl t] (I said). The [i] has the allophone [ij] as in [ijtaʃil] (contact). However, English has 7 short vowels: [ɪ, e, ə, æ, ʌ, ɒ, u]. The English [ɪ] and [u] are slightly higher than the corresponding Arabic vowels. This may bring some difficulties to some learners who usually pronounce the two as [i:] and [u:] as it is the case for the words 'hit' and 'would' which are usually pronounced respectively as [hɪ:t] and [wu:d] and which would create meaning differences since 'hit' is not 'heat' and 'would' is not 'wood'.

In some cases, Algerian learners of English tend to substitute the English monophthongs [ɪ], [ɒ] and [u] for some complex sounds such as [ɪj], [ɒw] and [uw]. A learner may say [hʌnɪj] (honey) instead of /hʌni/, [ejnədʒɪ] (energy) instead of /enədʒi/ and [lɒwk] (lock) instead of /lɒk/, and [duw] (do) instead of /du:/.

In case of consonants, not all of them have the same production in both Arabic and English languages. There are some consonants in CA and in AA which do not have their equivalents in English. English does not have /ħ, ʁ, q, ʕ, χ, ʂ, ʔ, ʔ, ʔ, ʔ/ in its phoneme inventory. Similarly, CA and AA do not have the English consonants /p, v, tʃ/. But this does not mean that all the learners of English fail to produce these sounds. There are many who face no problem to articulate them in words or even in long sentences. Here are some of the cases of the pronunciation problems encountered daily in class.

1) The phonemes /θ/ and /ð/ are dental in both English and Arabic, yet some learners of English have problems in pronouncing the two and usually substitute the /θ/ by /t/ as in [tɜ:sti] instead /θɜ:sti/ (thirsty) and /ð/ by /d/ as in [dəuz] instead of /ðəuz/. This creates a non-sense for some words or changes the meaning of others. The word 'through' /θru:/ is pronounced as [tru:] (true) and 'thine' /ðain/ as [dain] (dine).

2) In English the alveolar lateral /l/ has three realizations: the clear [l] as in late /leɪt/, the dark [ɫ] as in will [wɪl] and the syllabic [l̩] as in cattle [kʌtl̩]. However, Arabic has only one realization, i.e. the clear /l/ in all distributions: initially as in [lahm] (meat/

medially as in [jaʎab] 'he plays' and [jaʎmal] 'he works'. Thus, learners very often find it difficult to pronounce the two different realizations. They make the dark [ɫ] as in 'hell' clear, [hel] and the syllabic [l] as in bottle [bɒtl] also clear, [bɒtəl]. This substitution, however, does not have any negative effect on meaning and on communication, in general, yet this may indicate the identity of the speaker.

3) The absence of the post-alveolar fricative /tʃ/ in Arabic makes learners in some instances substitute it by the post-alveolar fricative /ʃ/ and therefore, a word like 'watch' /wɒtʃ/ is realized as 'wash' [wɒʃ]. This would completely change the meaning of words and hence, bring about serious troubles in communication. In the following two sentences:

- [dəunt tʌʃmi:] "Don't touch me." Instead of [dəunt tʌʃmi:]
- [hiz fəʊnd ə dʌʃ] "He's phoned a Dutch." instead of " [hiz fəʊnd ə dʌʃ]

The two wrongly pronounced words 'touch' and 'Dutch' respectively in the two sentences may divert the listener's attention towards ambiguity since /tʌʃ/ and /dʌʃ/ do not exist in English.

On the other hand, consonant sequences (clusters) also present a serious obstacle for the Algerian learners since CA has no more than two consonants either before or after the prominent vowel (nucleus). In AA the sequence could reach 3 consonants in words like /ndrəb/ (I was hit), i.e. CCCVCC. In English, the maximum would reach three consonants in the onset of the syllable as in 'spray' /sprei/ and four consonants in the coda as in 'texts' /teksts/, i.e. CVCCCC.

1) Algerian learners, though being accustomed to producing the sequence of CC, have some difficulty with the English consonant clusters. CCC initially or finally is usually reproduced as CVCC as [sɛtrɪ:t] 'street' instead of /stri:t/ and [tɛkɛsts] instead of /teksts/. Still longer sequencers as in straight, scrambled are similarly broken up.

2) Other sources of difficulty lie in the learners' incorrect articulation of certain sounds in different distributions. Fortis plosives /p,t,k/, for example, are aspirated initially in the syllable as in [p^hɪn] 'pin', [k^hɑ:d] and [t^hɑ:gət] 'target'. Learners tend not to produce the 'aspiration' feature. Although it is not distinctive in English, aspiration is a feature that helps differentiate initial fortis plosives from initial lenis plosives. Thus, [p] in [pɑ:k] 'park', (without aspiration) would sound like [b] in [bɑ:k] 'bark' and here the problem may arise.

3) /l,r,w,j/ are devoiced after initial fortis plosives /p,t,k/. Learners usually keep the voicing feature as if these sounds were produced in isolation. The word 'play' is pronounced as [plɛɪ] instead of [pl^hɛɪ] and 'twice' as [tw aɪs] instead of [tw aɪs], etc.

4) Length in English refers to "*relative durations of sounds and syllables where these are linguistically contrastive.*" (Crystal 1992:197). Learners are used to add more length to the short vowels in words like 'sit', 'book' and realize them as [si:t] and [bu:k] instead of their correct form [sit] and [buk]. This would make things troublesome and may negatively affect the correct senses of words, the important units in communication.

I.10.1.1.2. Lexical Interference

In the comprehension or production of L2, lexical transfer strategy operates from L1, the main source of learners' problems, mainly when there is no direct correspondence between NL and the TL words. Every word might have a variety of senses and connotations and, thus results in different meanings. This kind of transfer across languages is found in learners who have little exposure to, or have a limited proficiency in L2. There are different types of lexical transfer which may occur at word, phrase or sentence level. It can be manifested at the level of form, meaning, or distribution.

1) Form

The form may include sound segments and stress and varies according to the formality of situation, speed of talk, position in the sentence, etc. Lado (1959: 76) gives the example of the English word 'and' which varies from three segmental phonemes /ænd/ through degrees of reduction, /ənd/, /æn/, /ən/, to one segmental phoneme, /n/.

The form may also include parts of words such as suffixes as _ (a)tion and _al in observation and observational respectively, and which do not have their equivalence in other languages such as Arabic or Turkish. Other lexical forms comprise patterns of separate words like 'call up' 'to phone' (Lado: 1957: 77) which are not permitted in many other languages.

2) Meaning

Meaning of words can be arranged according to the forms they attach to. Those which attach to words as words are called lexical meanings. For instance, the form 'house' is a lexical meaning to 'the building for human habitation'

Linguists study meaning and use it as a criterion to study other aspects of language. Meaning in the context of language necessitates reference to non-linguistic factors such as thought, knowledge, situation and intention. These factors are used in every utterance in people's speech or in any piece of writing. Kramersch states that:

“meaning is never achieved once and for all; it must be conquered anew in every utterance through the verbal actions and interactions of speakers and hearers, writers and readers.”

(1998:25)

The words people exchange in communication are associated with the situational and cultural context in which they occur. Thus, for example an Algerian will not understand the English tourist's question: “ *Would it bother you if I had a chat with you for just a moment?*” unless he knows English and is able to grasp the meaning of each word of this utterance. If one or two words such as “bother” and “chat” are not understood, the message may not be well decoded. The foreigner's request in which words are related to the pragmatic context of their utterance leads, at once, the Algerian to recognize that his interlocutor is not from his society because those non-verbal signs he uses such as smiles, tone, and voice belong to a foreign culture which is not his. Contextualization cues as explained by Kramersch very often evoke the cultural background and the social expectations which are necessary to interpret speech. For her:

“The way in which people use the spoken, written or visual medium itself creates meanings that are understandable to the group they belong to.”

(1998: 3)

Linguists such as (Bloomfield, 1933; Lado, 1959; Fries, 1972) consider the “word” as the basic unit of communication. They measure language learning by how much vocabulary has been memorised. They talk about words in isolation as parts of speech like nouns, verbs, adjectives and so on. These words have exact meaning, mainly when used in sentences. In most languages, each word has more than one meaning in different situations depending on the context in which it occurs and its relationship with other words in the same sentence.

By distribution, is meant the range of positions where words or any other units can occur. The distribution of words determines the change of sentence. In English, for example, a noun can change into a verb or adjective according to the position it takes in the sentence, without a change in its form. In English the word “room” which is a noun has different meanings depending on the position it takes in the sentence. In the sentences:

- a) He wants a double room.
- b) Ask room 18 if they need coffee.
- c) Move along and make room for me.

In sentence a) “room” is a division of a building separated by walls. In b) it refers to the people in one such division of a hotel or large office building. In c) it means space for occupying or moving in.

Lado (1957: 79) stresses the importance of the distribution of words because each language has its own habits of restrictions in distribution. The English word “water”, for example can be used as a noun as in ‘a glass of water’, as a verb as in

‘water the garden’ and as a noun adjunct as in ‘water meter’; however, in other languages this word might have only one usage, as the Spanish word “agua” which is used only as a noun.

Because learners, especially those lacking the intuitive knowledge about L2, tend to make up a sentence, first in L1, and then translate it word-for-word into the L2. This means that some of the rules they already acquired in L1 in the lexical fields are also used when dealing with L2. This would result in what is referred to as lexical interference. Here are some cases introduced by the Algerian learners of English.

1) "*My brother reads in the secondary school*" instead of "*My brother studies at the secondary school*". The word 'reads' is translated from the AA word [jeqra] in [χ u:ja jeqra feli:si].

2) "*I have 16.*" (I'm 16.) In AA one would say [ʃ endi seʃa:ʃ eʃnʃ a:m]. This means that the equivalent of the AA [ʃendi] is 'I have'. The learner, in this case has thought in AA and made a direct translation into English.

3) "*Please, remember me of the score*" instead of "*Please, remind me of the score*" The word 'remember' is an equivalent to [jataðakar]. In English 'remind' is not the same thing. It is 'to make someone remember'. Learners very often substitute 'remind' by 'remember' because they think it provides the same idea.

4) "*She brought twins*" instead of "*She gave birth to twins*". In the case it is apparent that the learner makes a word-for-word translation from AA to English. In AA this would provide [dʒa:bet etwe:m].

5) "*All the house left*" instead of "*All the family left*". This sentence has its source of thinking from the AA [ga:ʃ eda:r ra:hu].

6) "*He plays with money*" instead of "*He's very rich*". In AA this would be [jalʕab bedrahem]. The learner uses his knowledge of AA to express himself in English.

The examples above show that language interference has a negative effect on FL acquisition. These difficulties confronted by learners in expressing themselves may slow down the learning process and result in an undesirable behaviour that may both decrease the learners' motivation and put another heavy burden on the teacher's efforts.

I.10.1.1.3. Grammatical Interference

The most frequent elements shared among different languages to mark grammatical structure are word order, inflection (bound morphemes), derivation forms, etc. with which sentences or utterances are structured in the learner's mind.

In the process of L2 learning, at any given point in the development of a learner's Interlanguage (IL), the learner develops a kind of grammar which might be identical to the one of L1. As the distribution of words is not in the same way for all languages, i.e., word structure does not occur in the same environment, the L1 grammatical structures tend to be transferred to L2. The learner tends to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, the number, gender, and case patterns of his native language (Lado 1957: 58). Here are some examples of grammatical transfer the Algerian learners of English very often make:

1) "*The trousers the new*" instead of "*The new trousers*". This sentence is derived from the AA [eserwe:lezdi:d]. In AA and CA the article is doubled on the qualifier of the

noun (adjective) which is often placed after the noun. In English the adjective is used before the noun.

2) "*Today the see calm*" instead of "*today the sea is calm*". The omission of the linking verb 'is' in the first sentence. The noun phrase existing in AA: [elju:m elbħar zi:n] or CA: [eljawma elbahru dʒami:lun] does not need a 'verb' to make a complete sense. In this case, the learner's sentence is implicitly taken from AA or CA.

3) "*He's big than me.*" instead of "*He's older than me.*" The AA [kbi:r] is 'big' in English, yet it does not provide the same sense as 'old'. There is also the absence of the inflection 'er' which marks comparison. This indicates that the speaker thinks and expresses in his mother tongue.

4) "I'm speaking, no?" instead of "Don't interrupt me!" This sentence has also its derivation from the AA [ra:ni nehdaɾ la].

I.10.1.2. Positive Transfer

Linguists consider Positive transfer as an important part of L2 learning. It helps learners acquire knowledge more easily and function effectively in situations where they could solve the problems they have never seen before. This means that learners relate what they already know of their L1 to what they discover in L2. In this case, the learners' L1 can facilitate L2 acquisition, mainly if the two languages resemble each other. Ellis maintains that:

“If the two languages were identical learning could take place easily through ‘Positive Transfer’ of the native language pattern”

(2000:300)

Learners develop their learning of L2 if they use it correctly. This may happen if the features of L1 correspond to L2 features. In this case, the similarity in features can be a facilitative effect to the acquisition of L2. Lado (1957: 82/83) restricts the term similar to the items that would function as 'same' in both languages in ordinary use although complete sameness may not exist in language behaviour. The similarities, according to him can be classified into "*relatively small number of subgroups or patterns of correspondence*". As an example, he mentions the correspondence between English _tion and Spanish _cion. Other similarities can be spotted in both form and meaning as in the English and French words hotel/hotel, hospital/hôpital, calendar/calendrier, and may also cover the whole distribution of words in sentences as in:

English (1): She has sent the letter by post

French (1): Elle a envoyé la lettre par post.

English (2): That is the man who I met yesterday.

French (2): C'est l'homme que j'ai rencontré hier.

The following table on the next page presents different types of transfer, as adapted

from Schunk (2004, p. 220)

Type	Characteristics
Near	Overlap between situations, original and transfer contexts are similar.
Far	Little overlap between situations, original and transfer settings are dissimilar
Positive	What is learned in one context enhances learning in a different setting. (+)
<u>Negative</u>	What is learned in one context hinders or delays learning in a different setting. (+)
Vertical	Knowledge of a previous topic is essential to acquire new knowledge. (++)
Horizontal	Knowledge of a previous topic is not essential but helpful to learn a new topic. (++)
Literal	Intact knowledge transfers to new task
Figural	Use some aspect of general knowledge to think or learn about a problem
Low Road	Transfer of well-established skills in almost automatic fashion.
High Road	Transfer involves abstraction so conscious formulations of connections between contexts.
High Road/Forward Reaching	Abstracting situations from a learning context to a potential transfer context.
High Road/Backward Reaching	Abstracting in the transfer context features of a previous situation where new skills and knowledge were learned.

Table I.2. : Different types of transfer (Schunk 2004, p. 220)

I.10.2.Avoidance

Avoidance is a tendency for learners to avoid those aspects of production that they consider as a problem. This happens especially when certain features of L1 are different from those of L2. Thus, a learner very often tries to avoid a difficult word or structure and uses a simpler one instead. This phenomenon in L2 learning is termed ‘avoidance behaviour’ (Schachter 1974). Richards and Schmidt (2002: 44) give the example of the learner who is not sure of the use of the relative clause in English. Instead of using the relative pronoun ‘where’ in the complex sentence “*That’s the building where I live.*” He simply cuts this sentence in two simple sentences: “*That’s my building. I live there.*”

Avoidance behaviour has a direct influence on L2 performance. It may be employed at different levels: grammatical, lexical and phonological levels. Learners may leave out a necessary item so as not to run the risk of choosing the wrong one. Schachter (1974) in Robinett & Schachter (1986: 358-359) conducted a study on the number of errors made by some non-native speakers of English. The four language groups he chooses include Arab, Persian, Chinese and Japanese learners. The item under study is ‘relative clause production’. The investigation reveals that Chinese and Japanese learners make fewer errors in the use of ‘relative clauses’ than do Persian and Arab learners. Yet, this might be because the number of relative clauses they use is smaller than the ones used by Persian and Arab learners. The difficulty they encounter as a result of the different ways the clauses are structured in both Chinese and Japanese makes them adopt the avoidance strategies as a sole resort to avoid possible errors. Schachter puts the stress on this point saying that:

“It is plausible and I think correct to suppose that they produce fewer relative clauses in English because they are trying to avoid them, and that they only produce them in English when they are relatively sure that they are correct, which would also account for the extremely small number of errors they make.

(1974: 359)

Accordingly, one may conclude that avoidance behaviour results from various causes related to the similarities and the differences between the L1 and L2.

I.10.3. Overuse

Overuse or ‘over-indulgence’ (Levenston 1971) is one of the learning strategies used in L2 acquisition. The learner uses the forms he knows rather than trying out the ones he is not sure of. This strategy which may be concomitant of ‘avoidance’ includes ‘overgeneralization type of intralingual processes. Ellis (2000: 305) mentions the learner’s overgeneralization of the regular past tense inflection to the irregular verbs in L2 English as the case of “costed” instead of “cost”. Overuse for him can also appear as a result of the learner’s transfer from L1; very often a consequence of the avoidance or underproduction of some difficult structures.

I.10.4. Fossilization

Fossilization is a term that refers to a permanent obstruction of progress in the process of L2 acquisition. It is considered as a natural stage for many learners to go through despite all efforts for a better learning. It includes those items, rules and sub-

systems that L2 learners tend to retain in their interlanguage relative to a particular L2 regardless of the age of the learner and the kind of instructions and explanations he receives in the TL (Selinker 1972: 215).

The phenomenon of fossilization, following a period where learning takes place, is most saliently manifested phonologically, syntactically and lexically in the speech of even those who have learnt an L2 quite well. For Selinker (1972: 212), the majority of L2 learners cannot overcome interlanguage fossilization, i.e., the number of L2 learners who are considered to develop the different language skills in the same way as the natives do is considered to be very small. This means that it is extremely rare for learners of L2 to achieve full native-like competence. Some examples of fossilization might include the following:

In syntax: - one may say:

‘I no understand good’ instead of ‘I do not understand well’

In morphology: - one may miss the inflections of words as in:

‘She dance’ instead of ‘she dances’

In phonology: - there might be a substitution of one sound by another as in the example of the French learners of English who use the uvular [ʀ] instead of the post alveolar /r/.

Thus they may say: [ʀed] instead of /red/

These errors and others seem to resist whatever the number of years spent in L2 learning. Learners may continue to make progress in certain areas of study, yet return again to the same errors. Many advanced learners of English, for instance, could communicate with great skills and make only few errors; however, they still do not

master the past perfect tense of the English verb, or know the difference between the gerund and the present participle...etc.

Some linguists argue that native-like performance in L2 is not possible in a certain level of proficiency, and fossilization phenomenon could be a result of a learning environment that is far from being suitable to the conditions needed to the learning process.

Conclusion:

In the first chapter, some theoretical concepts in foreign language learning are presented so as to shed light on the notion of 'error'. These linguistic approaches are contrastive analysis, and error analysis. Contrastive analysis covers different parts of language: phonology, morphology and syntax. Some examples of contrast are dealt with to demonstrate the differences that may exist between two or more languages. Error analysis is defined as a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable form produced by the learner of a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics.

Errors in foreign language learning, especially in English are the cases which are difficult enough to avoid. Many aspects of language lead learners to commit errors. Some of these aspects, discussed in this chapter, are interference, overgeneralization, induced errors, and interlanguage strategies of learning like, avoidance, overuse and fossilization. These strategies, according to different linguists, have a negative influence on L2. Thus, and for a better understanding of the process of FL acquisition, contrastive analysis and error analysis approaches are seen as suitable means for identifying and

determining the kind of incident, nature, cause, and consequence of these errors so as to seek the possible remedial measures necessary to improve L2 learning.

Despite the negative reaction of several analysts who mark some opposing views on CA and EA, these two approaches remain very important in the study of errors, since language teaching has found answers to many issues from the application of both approaches.

CHAPTER TWO



Chapter II: Arabic Versus English Morphology: Illustration and Comparison

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II.3.3.5. Similarities and Differences

Conclusion

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

Fries (1945: 9)

Introduction

Most linguists, (Lado, 1957; Benathy, Trager and Waddle, 1966 & Fries 1972) agree on the fact that the most suitable language teaching material is based on a contrast of the two linguistic systems of L1 and L2. This may include the study of the vocabulary, grammatical, or phonological systems or sub-systems of both languages. The identification of the linguistic differences through a careful comparison of learners' L1 and L2 might lead to a diagnostic analysis of the possible difficulties that learners might encounter in L2 learning situations and predict the kind of errors which appear so regularly in their output.

The contrastive analysis hypothesis claims that the problems of any foreign language acquisition are due to the differences that exist between the learner's L1 and L2. A big number of learners tend to repeat the same linguistic errors in their work. Those errors, for the strong version of this hypothesis, appear as a result of learners' L1 negative transfer, i.e., learners apply their L1 linguistic rules when learning L2.

The main task of contrastive analysis is to compare the structure of both languages including their linguistic systems to diagnose where the differences may lay so that L2 teachers and foreign language syllabus designers could focus on the content where languages differ, and use the adequate methods of reinforcement as a remedy to the produced errors.

Chapter two is meant to describe Arabic and English morphological systems in order to identify the similarities and differences between them. The process of comparing the two systems involves the analysis and descriptions of the elements of morphology: the inflection, derivation and compounding of the different parts of speech. These descriptions cover the form, meaning and distribution of morphemes.

II.1. Arabic and English languages

Arabic and English belong to two different language families. They are not cognate, i.e., genetically related. While Arabic is a member of the Semitic language family, English descends from the Indo-European language family. Arabic is written from right to left with a cursive style and joined letters; while English is written the opposite way. Besides, the most important difference lies in the way these languages are written, i.e. each one has its own script characters. Phonologically, they vary extensively not only in the range of the used sounds, but also in the importance of vowels and consonants in expressing meaning. English has 20 vowels and 24 consonants; yet Arabic counts 6 vowels: 3 short vowels and 3 long vowels and 28 consonants in its phonemic inventory. Short vowels have different allophones depending on the preceding consonants. Their diacritics can be summarized in a) elidable Hamza 'همزة الوصل'/hamzatu al-waṣl/, b) 'الفتحة'/al-fatḥa/ ' /a/, 'الكسرة'/kaṣra/ ' /i/, 'الضمة'/al-ḍama/ ' /u/, /ʔa-ssuku:n/ 'السكون'(zero vowel), represented by the sign /ْ/ put at the end of the word, and /ʔaʃ-ʃedda/ / / 'الشدة' 'gemination', to put the stress on the pronunciation of certain sounds, mainly in the middle of words.

Classical Arabic (CA) 'العربية الفصحى' /ʔal-ʕarabijaʔalfuʕha/is the official language of all Arab countries. It became one of the world's main literary languages with the expansion of Islam. It is the language of Arabic literature and publications as well as the formal mass media such as radio, television and newspapers in all Arab states.

In Algeria, classical Arabic exists alongside with various spoken dialects such as Algerian Arabic variety 'Arabic descended dialect' and Berber. These varieties vary from region to region, from east to west and from north to south, and are used by most of the Algerians in their day-to-day needs.

English is becoming a worldwide language. Besides being the mother tongue of more than "365 million" people around the globe (Wikipedia 2015:1), it is described as the first global lingua franca, the common medium used in the whole world for general communication. It is also used by "510 million" people as a first or second foreign language nearly in all regions of the world. It is the official language used in different institutions to promote international relations, worldwide business, scientific and technical research, since it is well equipped to handle the concepts and terms of modern sciences and technologies. Most of the world's literatures are first published in this language and readily available in nearly all libraries.

In Algeria, the study of English has become compulsory for all learners without exception. Its integration in the curriculum has helped to increase the number of its users who have become aware of the importance of this language so as to comply with the changes taking place in all domains of life. However, English language teaching, according to some educators, has not brought many successful results. On the contrary, most of Algerian learners

still face problems and the time they devote for the study is not enough. This makes Laraba believes that:

“a great majority of Algerian students learning English as a foreign language are fairly poor manipulators of English both orally and its written form. Of course there are some brilliant exceptions among under graduates and younger teachers.”

(1988: 79)

To overcome the difficulties which hinder the efforts made by teachers as well as learners, different programmes have been administered in the Algerian educational system so far and various syllabi have been designed for all levels. This is supposed to bring about positive changes in the learners' performance in speaking and writing in this language.

At university level, Algerian learners of English face the task of mastering content area in scientific subjects such as mathematics, physics, technical sciences, social sciences and business where most of the world's scientific literatures are written in English. Thus, learning English can help students deal successfully with their academic demands and perform well in their disciplines. Learners then are required to produce specific writing genres such as essays, summaries and research papers. However, experiences have always proven that a number of Algerian learners count many problems in their writings. They not only fail to create correct sentences in isolation, but also cannot arrange them to become texts. The main reason behind the problem may lie in the different grammatical elements of Arabic and English. This may include their word-formation and sentence structure.

To diagnose learners' deficiencies in writing, a comparison of Arabic and English grammars is under study, so as to identify the similarities and differences, which can be either a source of

ease or difficulty in EL learning. The present chapter, as already been mentioned, is devoted to the first part which exposes a comparison of English and Arabic morphology.

II.2. Arabic versus English Morphology: Illustration and Comparison

Morphology is the sub-field of grammar which deals with the formation and alteration of words. It examines how linguistic units such as words and their subpart morphemes (affixes: prefixes infixes and suffixes) combine. For example, why, in English, 'walk+ed' is acceptable, yet 'ed+walk' is not, while in other languages such affixes can be found wholly inside the stems they attach to. In general, morphology is the inflection and derivation of words.

Arabic and English are not cognate languages, i.e., genetically related. They are considerably different especially in classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. Inflection is a change in the form and shape of words to indicate certain grammatical relationship such as gender, number, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison. This is done by joining a grammatical category to its beginning or end. Parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs may be identified by the inflection they undergo.

II.3. parts of Speech

In grammar, parts of speech which are referred to as 'lexical categories', 'grammatical categories' or 'word classes' are linguistic categories of words. In English, like in Arabic, there are eight parts of speech: noun 'الاسم' /ʔa-lism/, pronoun 'الضمير' /ʔa-

ḍami:r/, adjective 'الصفة' /ʔa-ʃifa/, verb 'الفعل' /ʔa-lfiʕl/,
adverb 'الظرف' /ʔa-ḍarf/, preposition 'حرف جر' /ħarf dʒar/
conjunction 'أداة عطف' /ʔada:t ʕaʔf/, interjection 'أداة تعجب' /ʔada:t
taʕadʒub/.

II.3.1.Nouns

Nouns are inflected for:

- a) gender 'الجنس' /ʔa-lʒins/(masculine or feminine)
- b) determination 'التعريف' /ʔa-taʕri:f/ (definite or indefinite)
- c) number 'العدد' /ʔal-ʕadad/ (singular, dual or plural)
- d) case 'الحالة' /ʔal-ħæ:la/ (nominative, genitive, or accusative).

First, nouns are normally in their simple form. For example, 'معلم' /muʕalim/ 'teacher' would be declined as /muʕalimun/ (nominative singular indefinite), and then gets the definite article /ʔal/ to have the word /ʔal-muʕalimu/ 'المعلم' (nominative singular definite). The same case is for the feminine noun 'معلمة' /muʕalima/ 'female teacher' which would be declined to 'معلمة' /muʕalimatun/, (nominative singular indefinite), and then to the word 'المعلمة' /al-muʕalimatu/, and so on.

In English, the inflection of nouns is referred to as declension. Nouns are inflected for number to express the plural form. Thus, the word 'car' can stand alone for singular, yet it becomes plural when the suffix "s" is added to it. Other nouns are inflected by bound morphemes such as 'es' and 'ies', as in 'boxes' and 'activities' respectively.

II.3.1.1. Gender

In Arabic, gender is masculine or feminine. If the noun is animate, then gender would correspond to natural sex; thus 'ابن' /ibn/ 'son' and 'حصان' /hiṣā:n/ 'horse' are masculine, yet 'بنت' /bint/ 'daughter' and 'فرص' /faraṣ/ 'mare' are feminine. There are cases where the feminine is marked by the feminine suffix 'ة' /a/, as in 'بقرة' /baqara/ 'cow' or the full form /atun/, as in 'بقرة' /baqaratun/.

For inanimate nouns, the feminine also has a feminine suffix as the case of 'طاولة' /ṭa:wila/, or 'طاولة' /ṭa:wilatun/, 'table', while the masculine noun is marked with or without suffix. For example: the word 'بيت' /bayt/ 'house' can either stand without a suffix, the case when it is not followed by any vowel, and is ended with a sort of ending vowel called 'السكون' /esuku:n/; or with the suffix /un/ as in 'درس' /darṣun/ 'lesson'.

In English, gender is a set of class, or set of classes which do not always refer to sexual gender. It governs the forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives and articles. For the third person singular, gender is indicated in the masculine 'he', the feminine 'she' and the neuter 'it'. These personal pronouns may refer to nonhuman such as a 'ship' and 'dog' which are indicated by 'she' and 'he' respectively. However, the word 'baby' takes the pronoun 'it' which also refers to things like 'beauty', 'bus' and 'world'. The other pronouns 'I, you, we, they' are unmarked for gender.

In Arabic the neuter gender does not exist, it is often substituted by the third person 'he' or 'she'. The Arabic learner of English would err when he substitutes 'she' and 'he' for 'it', as in:

- A) I cannot carry this bag; she is too heavy.
- B) A lion is a wild animal; he is very dangerous.

II.3.1.2. Determination

In Arabic determination concerns nouns with or without a definite article and covers the following points:

1) The noun is definite if it is preceded by a definite article marked with the suffix 'ال'/?al/, as in:

'القمر' /?al-qamaru/ 'the moon'.

2) The noun can be modified by a following definite noun in the genitive, as in 'بيت الفقير' /baytu alfaqi:ri/ 'the poor's house'. In case of Arabic, the modified noun does not take the article 'ال' 'the', contrary to English where both nouns are preceded by 'the'. Thus, the Algerian learner would omit the definite article 'The' before the word 'house' in the following sentence:

'The house of the poor'

'بيتُ الفقير'

baytu | alfaqi:ri

House of | the poor

II.3.1.3. Number

In Arabic number distinguishes different nouns based on number 'العدد' /al-ʕadad/. Nouns are singular 'مفرد' /mufrad/, dual 'مثنى' /muθanna/ that consists of "two persons or items", or plural 'جمع' /dʒamʕ/ "more than two." The unmarked form is singular as

in: 'صورة' /ʃu:ratun/ ‘a picture’. The dual is marked by the suffix /-a:ni/ as in: 'صورتان' /ʃo:rata:ni/ ‘two pictures’. The plural number is indicated in two ways: for masculine, the suffixation /-u:n/ as in 'سائقون' /sæ:ʔiqun/ ‘drivers’, and /-a:t/ suffixation for the feminine, as in: 'معلمات' /muʕalima:tun/. Other noun plural forms can be:

1) constructed from the singular noun itself by adding the internal vowel change ' ' /u/. These plural nouns are referred to as ‘broken plurals’ 'جمع التكسير' /dʒamʕ atakʃi:r/. For example:

'درس' /darʃ/ ‘lesson’ 'مدينة' /madi :na/ ‘town’
 'دروس' /duruʃ/ ‘lessons’ 'مدن' /mudun/ ‘towns’

2) constructed by adding several phonemes to the singular noun. For example:

'قائمة' /qa:ʔima/ ‘a list’ 'حمام' /ħammæ:m/ ‘a bath’
 'قوائم' /qawa:ʔim/ ‘lists’ 'حمامات' /ħamæ:mæ:t/ ‘baths’

The nouns above are formed in the same way as the English irregular nouns. Example of the English plural nouns patterns are:

foot / feet 'قدم' /qadam/ 'أقدام' /ʔaqaðæ:m/
 leaf / leaves 'ورقة' /waraqa/ 'أوراق' /ʔawræ:q/

In English, there are two forms: singular and plural. The singular form indicates one person, thing or animal, yet the plural form denotes two or more. Nouns, pronouns, verbs are marked for number; conversely, adjectives and the definite articles are not. Thus, we say

- a book / a man (sing. nouns)
- two bookṣ / three mẹn (pl. nouns) (books & men are marked for number)
- a long river / long rivers
- three red balls (the adjective ‘red’ is not marked for number)

In the present tense, if the noun is singular, the verb takes the suffix-s, or its variants (es, ies, ...) and if the verb is plural, the verb takes no suffix. Verbs in the past tense do not have singular or plural forms.

II.3.1.4. Case

Case is a grammatical category used in the analysis of word classes (or their associated phrases) to identify the syntactic relationship between words in a sentence, through such contrasts as nominative, accusative, etc. (Crystal 1991: 47) i.e., the relationship of a noun, pronoun, or adjective to other words in a grammatical construction shown by word order in sentences.

For Arabic nouns, there are three cases:

II.3.1.4.1. Nominative case (المرفوع) /al-marfu:ʕ/, (the raised): for definite singular nouns and broken plurals, it is marked as a ' ʕ ' /-u/ 'الضمة' /ʔaḍḍamma/, while /ʔaḍama/+/nunation /-un/ for indefinite nouns.

'الحصان' /ʔal-ħiʂa:nu/ 'the horse'
 'حصان' /ħiʂa:nun/ 'horse'

The dual and regular masculine and feminine plural are formed by adding /-æ:ni/, /tæ:ni/ and /-u:na/, /-æ:tu/ to the noun respectively.

'اللاعبان'/læ:ʕibæ:ni/ 'two players' (definite/indefinite)

'معلمتان'/muʕalimatæ:ni/ 'the two teachers' (def./indef.)

'اللاعبون'/læ:ʕibu:na/ 'players' (def./indef.)

'المعلمات'/ʔal-muʕalimæ:tu/ 'the teachers' (definite only)

Note: The regular feminine plural in the indefinite is formed by adding /-æ:tun/ to the noun, as in 'معلماتٌ'/ muʕalimæ:tun/ 'teachers'

II.3.1.4.2. Accusative case (المنصوب)/al-manʕu:b/

(the erected): for singular nouns and broken plurals, its mark is an ' /-a/ 'الفتحة'/fathā/ for the definite or /fathā/+nunation 'أَ' /-an/ for the indefinite.

'المديرة' /ʔal-mudi:rata/ 'the headmaster'

'مديرًا'/mudi:ran/ 'headmaster'

The dual and regular masculine plural are formed by adding the suffix /-ajn(i)/ and /-i:n(a)/

'المدرستان' /ʔal-mudarisæjni/ 'the two teachers'

'المدرسون' /ʔal-mudarisi:na/ 'the teachers'

The regular feminine plural is formed by adding /-æ:ti/ in the definite and /-æt(in) in the indefinite form.

'المغنيات' /ʔal-muʕanijæ:ti/ 'the singers'
'مغنيات' /muʕanijæ:tin/ 'singers'

II.3.1.4.3. Genitive case /ʔal-madzru:r/ (المجرور)

(the dragged): definite singular nouns and broken plurals are marked by a 'كسرة' /kaʕra/ /i/, while indefinite nouns are marked by /kaʕra/+nunation /-in/.

'القسم' /ʔal-qismi/ 'the classroom'
'الأقسام' /ʔal-aqsæ:mi/ 'the classrooms/
'قسم' /qismin/ 'a classroom' 'أقسام' /ʔaqsæ:min/ 'classrooms'

The dual and regular masculine plural are formed by adding the suffixes /-æjn(i)/ and /-i:n(a)/ respectively.

'كاتبين' /kæ:tibajn(i)/ 'two writers'
'الكاتبين' /ʔal-kæ:tibi:n(a)/ 'writers'

The dual and regular feminine plural is formed by adding /-tæjn(i)/ and /-æ:t(in)/ respectively.

'طائرتان' /ʔa:iratæjn(i)/ 'two planes'
'طائرات' /ʔa:ʔira:t(in)/ 'planes'

II.3.1.5. Case Inflection

In English, cases of inflectional morphemes are called 'declensions' for nouns and pronouns, 'conjugation' for verbs, and 'comparison' for adjectives. In CA spoken form most final short vowels and those followed by a nunation suffix /-n/ are unreleased; thus most case endings are not pronounced at all, word order alone is sufficient to indicate syntactic function. For example:

ذهبتِ الممرضةُ إلى العملِ

‘The nurse went to work’

ḏahabat(i)		ʔalmumariḏa(tu)		ʔila		ʔalʕamal(i)
(She) went		the nurse		to		work

The final vowel /i/ in /ḏahabati/, the suffix /tu/ in /almumariḏatu/ and the final vowel /i/ in /ʔalʕamali/ take most of the time pausal forms in spoken Arabic, yet this has no effect on meaning. In English, as stated before, there is no case inflection of singular nouns as well as verbs which remain in the past with all personal pronouns.

II.3.1.5.1. Noun/Verb Agreement

In CA, there are two different rules of agreement which correspond to both human and non-human nouns. That is to say, verbs, adjectives and pronouns agree with the nouns they refer to in person, number and gender, as well as for attributive adjectives, in their definiteness. In the sentence:

ركبتِ الطفلة الصغيرة دراجتها

‘The young girl got on her bicycle’

rækibat		aḷ-ḷiflatu		as-saʕi:ratu		dara:dʒata <u>ha</u> :
She got on		the girl		the young		bicycle her

CA verb 'ركبتُ'/rækibat/ ‘got on’, the noun الصغيرة /as-saʕi:ratu/, and the pronoun suffix ها/ha:/ are all third person feminine singular, agreeing with the noun /aḷ-ḷiflatu/ ‘the girl’ which is third person, feminine, singular, definite. The combination of words and the word formation in CA (pronoun as a suffix with the

noun in one word /dara:dzataha:/) and English (separate noun and pronoun ‘her bicycle’) are different.

In CA, if the noun refers to a plural, the plural form is modified by a plural adjective, pronoun, and verb. For example:

'هم عمال جيديين'
 ‘They are good workers’
 hum | ʕumma:l | dzajidi:n
 they | workers | good

In the example above, the plural form of nouns is correct, yet there are cases where the adjective is made plural, especially if the noun it modifies is plural, in the same way Arabic nouns and adjectives are inflected for gender and number. Thus, instead of ‘good workers’, the phrase ‘goods workers’ is often found in learners’ written works.

All other plural inanimate nouns take feminine singular agreement. This is referred to as “deflected agreement” applies to all agreement contexts, i.e. those of verbs, adjectives or pronouns.

1) 'شاركتُ العديد من المنظمات في.....'
 ‘Several organizations participated in’
 ʃa:raket | ʕalʕadi:d | mina | almunaɖamæ:t | fi...
 (She) participated | several | from | organizations | in ...

2) 'الموارد الطبيعية هي...'
 ‘The natural resources are...’
 al-mæwæ:rid | aʔ-ʔabi:ʕia | hija
 the resources | the natural | she

Because many plural nouns take feminine singular agreement in CA, the learner will automatically apply the same agreement of the different parts of the sentence for the new structure in English. (“ḥaḍarat / She participated”, “hija/she”).

II.3.1.5.2. Noun/Adjective Agreement

Adjectives in Arabic are usually placed after the noun they modify, and therefore, they agree with their corresponding nouns in gender, number, case and state. There are some adjectives which are formed by a suffix added to a noun to give an adjective meaning. This derivational process involves specific transformation applied to a root or a word of a specific form. There is also what is referred to as 'النسبة' /nisba/ /ij/ as in the adjective 'الجوي' /dʒawij/ ‘concerning the weather’, from the noun 'جو' /dʒaw/ ‘weather’, or the adjective 'تونسي' /tu:nesi/ ‘Tunisian’ from the noun 'تونس' /tu:nes/ ‘Tunis’.

'إنه يحب أغاني الشعبي'
 ‘He likes folk songs’
 inahu: |juḥibbu| |ʔaʁa:ni| aʃ-ʃaʕbij
 (He) |likes| |songs| |folk

Adjectives are inflected for degree. A good example of their inflection is the comparative and the superlative forms of these adjectives. The comparatives usually are indefinite; while the superlatives are definite. A suffix can be added to an adjective to form another adjective as in the case of the comparative and superlative forms where 'أ' /ʔa/ and 'الأ' /ʔal-ʔa/ are added as prefixes to the adjectives. The adjective 'كبير' /kabi:run/ ‘big’ will be inflected to 'أكبر' /ʔakbar/ ‘bigger’, then to 'الأكبر' /the biggest/

in the superlative form. The following variants may illustrate this point:

1) Adjective (big)

'هذا منزل كبير'

'This is a big house'

hæ:ða	ʔal-manzilu	kabi:run
This	house	big

2) Comparative (1)

'هذا المنزل أكبر'

'This is a bigger house'

hæ:ða	ʔal-manzilu	ʔakbar
This	house	bigger

3) Comparative (2)

'هذا المنزل أكبر من ذلك'

'This house is bigger than that one'

hæ:ða	ʔal-manziluʔ	akbar	min	ða:lika
This	house	bigger	from	that

4) The superlative

'هذا المنزل هو الأكبر'

'This house is the biggest'

hæ:ða	ʔal-manzilu	huwa	ʔalʔakbar
This	house	(he)	the biggest

The four examples above demonstrate that comparative and superlative of adjectives cause certain problems to learners, especially when inflected to express degree. The incorrect word order (“the house big / bigger”, “he the biggest”) and the wrong

use of certain words ('from' instead of 'than') are typically transferred from learner's L1.

II.3.1.5.3. Noun/Pronoun Agreement

Pronouns show distinctions of person, number and gender, and are always indefinite. In Arabic, there are cases where pronouns can be:

(1) Independent used as subject or predicate in equational sentences as shown in the examples below:

1)		2)
أنا معلمٌ		من أين أنت؟
I am a teacher		Where are you from?
ʔana muʕalimun		min ʔajna ʔanta?
I(am) teacher		from where you?

(2) Suffixes take the function of objects of verbs or prepositions, or possessors of nouns. For example:

1) 'دخل بيته في الليل'		2) 'عملها صعب'
'He entered his house at night'		'Her work is difficult'
daɣala bajtahu fi ʔalajli		ʕamaluh a : ʕaʕbun
(He) entered his house in night		her work difficult

(3) The independent pronoun is sometimes used to provide emphasis, as in:

'ما هو إسمك أنت؟'
'What is your name?'
mæ:huwa ʔismuka ʔanta?
What (is) your name you?

Learners usually displace prepositions to the beginning in equational sentences (“from where” /min ʔajna/), and locate the pronoun at the end (“where you” /ʔajna ʔanta/). They also incline to place the pronoun after the noun (“your name you” / ʔismuka ʔanta) and make disturbances in sentence word-distribution. They also substitute the preposition ‘at’ by ‘in’ , as in: ‘**in** night’ instead of ‘**at** night’ .

(4) Demonstrative pronouns 'أسماء الإشارة' /ʔasmæ:ʔu ʔal-ʔifa:рати/ . Unlike in English, demonstrative pronouns in Arabic have a different form for singular, dual, and plural. They change to agree with the gender or the noun. They also indicate relative nearness or remoteness in space or time: 'هذا' /hæ:ða/; 'هذه' /hæ:ðihi/ “this” 'ذلك' /ðæ:lika/; 'تلك' /tilka/ “that”. The dual forms 'هذان' /hæ:ðæ:ni/ (masculine) and 'هاتان' /hæ:tæ:ni/ (feminine) are represented by the English plural “these”, while the plural 'هؤلاء' /hæ:ʔulæ:i/(both feminine & masculine) and 'أولئك' /ʔulæ:ʔika/ (no gender distinction) find their equivalence in the English plural “those”. Examples of demonstrative pronouns can be as follows:

<p>1) 'من ذلك الرجل؟'</p> <p>‘Who is that man?’</p> <p>men ðæ:lika ar-radʒulu?</p> <p>Who that man?</p>		<p>2) 'هؤلاء النسوة ممرضات'</p> <p>‘Those women are nurses’</p> <p>hæ:ulæ:i ʔanniswatu mumariða:t</p> <p>Those women nurses</p>
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Demonstrative pronouns ‘this’ and ‘that’; ‘these’ and ‘those’ are equivalent in their distribution in both English and Arabic; although Arabic demonstratives are greater than those of English. Thus, the Arabic speaker might produce the same word order except for his missing or wrong use of certain prepositions (as shown in the examples above).

(5) Reflexive pronouns: In both Arabic and English, a reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is preceded by the noun or pronoun to which it refers, i.e., its antecedent, within the same clause. In Arabic, reflexive pronoun is expressed by one and only one word; it is 'الذفس' /nafṣ/ (one-self), for all personal pronouns with a change in word suffixation to indicate either the singular form or plurality. Similarly, in English, the word 'self' which is preceded by the possessive pronoun keeps either the singular form 'self' or takes the plural form 'selves'. Because of these similarities, correct word-combinations are made by Arab learners of English. For example:

1) 'نظرت إلى نفسها في المرآة'

'She looked at herself in the mirror'

naḍarat	ila	nafsiha:	fi	almirʔæ:t
She looked	at	herself	in	the mirror

2) 'نحن أنفسنا أخذنا القرار'

'We ourselves took the decision'

naħnu	ʔænfusana	ʔitaḡaðna	ʔalqara:r
We	ourselves	took	the decision

In case of reflexive pronouns, words are correctly distributed in the sentences of both Arabic and English; hence no serious errors can be made.

(6) Relative pronouns in English link two clauses in a single complex sentence. They substitute nouns. These nouns may be subjects or objects. The same pronouns can be used for singular, dual or plural forms. In Arabic, a relative pronoun is referred to as 'إسم الموصول' /ism ʔal-mawṣu:l/ (a noun of the connected), and has

the characteristics of a noun, namely gender, number and grammatical case. Relative pronouns such as 'الذي' /ʔal-læði:/ (masculine), 'التي' /ʔal-læti:/ (feminine) can be used for both human and nonhumans, contrary to English which uses 'who' for humans and 'which' for nonhumans. Moreover, the singular, the dual and the plural forms have different relative pronouns in Arabic. The table below illustrates the point.

Gender	Singular	Dual	Plural	English
Masculine	ʔal-læði: الذي	ʔal-læða:ni (subject) الأذان ʔal-læðæini (object) الأذين	ʔal-laði:na الذين	Who
Feminine	ʔal-læti: التي	ʔal-lata:ni (subject) اللثان ʔal-lataæini (object) اللثين	ʔal-læ:ti اللاتي ʔal-læ:i اللائي ʔal-lawæ:ti اللواتي	Who

Table II.1. Arabic subject/object relative pronouns

These relative pronouns can be somewhat used in the same way as those of English, yet sometimes they change in form to suit the antecedent. For example:

1) 'الرجل الذي ساعدني طبيب'

'The man who helped me is a doctor'

ʔar-radʒulu		al-læði		sæ:ʕadani		ʔabi:bun
The man		who		helped me		doctor

هذا هو الكتاب الذي اشتريته' 2)

'This is the book which I bought'

hæða	huwa	al-kita:bu	al-læði:	iʃtaraitahu
This	<u>he</u>	the book	which	I bought <u>him</u>

In cases of relative pronouns, learners tend to add a separation subject pronoun and also an attached object pronoun after the verb. The linking verb 'to be' is most of the time unused.

(7) Interrogative pronouns: In Arabic interrogative pronouns which are used to form questions about any details, are all indefinite. Like in English, these pronouns are placed initially in sentences. Except for the pronoun 'أي' /aj-ju:/ (which) with the suffix /u:/, all other pronouns do not show any case inflection, and are used in a similar way to the English interrogative particles. They also do not change for different genders or numbers.

1) ماذا تعمل في الحياة؟	2) مع من التقيت؟
'What do you do in life?'	'Whom did you meet?'
ma:ða: taʃmal fi ʔalhaja:t?	maʃa men iltaqaita
What (you)do in life?	With who(m) you meet?

It might be clear that the initial position of English interrogative pronoun is displaced and put after the preposition in the same way it is structured in Arabic. In this case of interrogative sentences learners very often do not consider the use of auxiliaries such as "do" (in example:1), and "did" (in example:2).

(8) Numerals (Cardinal numbers) 'الأعداد' /ʔal-ʔaʃdæ:d/: they are sub-class of nouns in Arabic. Numerals and nouns share the same inflection. The numbering system of Arabic is different from the one of English, and this would create certain problems to the Arab

learners of English, especially with plurality of nouns. After the numerals 3 to 10, Arabic language uses a plural noun, yet it uses the singular after any numeral larger than ten, and for one hundred, one thousand and one million.

<p>1) 'سبعة كتب'</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Seven books</p> <table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">sabʕatu</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;"> </td> <td style="padding-left: 5px;">kutub</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">Seven</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;"> </td> <td style="padding-left: 5px;">books</td> </tr> </table>	sabʕatu		kutub	Seven		books	<p>2) 'ثلاثة عشر كتاب'</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Thirteen books</p> <table style="border-collapse: collapse; margin-left: auto; margin-right: auto;"> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">θalaθata ʕafara</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;"> </td> <td style="padding-left: 5px;">kitæ:b</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding-right: 5px;">Thirteen</td> <td style="border-left: 1px solid black; padding: 0 5px;"> </td> <td style="padding-left: 5px;">book</td> </tr> </table>	θalaθata ʕafara		kitæ:b	Thirteen		book
sabʕatu		kutub											
Seven		books											
θalaθata ʕafara		kitæ:b											
Thirteen		book											

In counting items in Arabic, separate rules are obtained for the stated numerals. This would result in interference. In such constructions, Arabic learners of English tend to say “three hundred book” which results from their direct translation of 'ثلاثمائة كتاب' /θala:θu miʔati kitæ:b/.

(9) Verbal Nouns: 'أسماء الأفعال'. In English as well as in Arabic, they express the underlying notion of a verb and include both infinitives and gerunds, as in the case of ‘to agree’ and ‘agreeing’ which means 'الموافقة' /al-muwafaqatu/, with no plural form in both Arabic and English, since it is an abstract word. However, certain problems sometimes occur when Arabic learners try to expand the verbal noun to a phrase.

'المشي يتطلب اللياقة' 1)		
‘Walking requires diligence’		
ʔal-maʃj		jataʔalab
Walking		requires
		ʔal-lija:qatu
		diligence

ضحك جون في القسم سبب له عقوبة' 2)

'John' s laughing in class caused him punishment'

ḍahik John		fi		al-qism		sebaba		lahu		ʕuqu:batun
laughing John		in		class		caused		to him		punishment

In example two, the incorrect inversion of the verbal adjective 'laughing' with the omission of the genitive ('s) shows clearly that Arab learners of English usually have deficiencies with the English verbal nouns especially when they are used in possessive case.

II.3.1.6. Similarities and Differences

Grammatical 'Gender' in Arabic requires that nouns and adjectives should be inflected to indicate whether they are masculine, feminine, or neuter. This inflection does not exist in English which uses some lexical items instead for gender purpose. Male and female pairs of words such as man/woman; boy/girl are marked for sex rather than gender (see Palmer 1971: 189). This means that the features belonging to such common nouns are lexical features denoting sex and not grammatical features denoting gender. There are cases where suffixes such as -ess are used to make male-female distinction as in waiter/waitress; yet these suffixes are considered as a case of derivation and not a grammatical gender. The occurrence of gender classes in Arabic is an obligatory choice compared to English where there is no choice. Arabic requires a choice with every noun, adjective, verb and demonstrative pronoun. Many nouns in Arabic have a personal dual gender. For example:

'معلم' /muʕalim/ (masc.) 'معلمة' /muʕalima/ (fem.) 'teacher'
 'طبيب' /ṭabi:b/ (masc.) 'طبيبة' /ṭabiba/ (fem.) 'doctor'

Contrary to Arabic which has the definite article 'ال' 'ʔal' , and the indefinite article made by no article morpheme but by pause form (نكرة التّنوين), English has two articles: the definite article 'the' and the indefinite articles 'a' and 'an' . This means that there is no Arabic equivalent to the English 'a' and 'an' . The 'boy' in English would have the Arabic equivalent 'الولد' /ʔal-waladu/; whereas; 'a boy' is to be translated as 'ولدٌ' /waladun/. Similar to the English definite article 'the' , the Arabic definite article 'ال' 'ʔal-' can be used for both countable and uncountable nouns. However, the indefinite articles 'a' and 'an' which are used only with countable nouns have their equivalent Arabic indefiniteness by deleting the article 'ال' 'ʔal-' from the noun. Unlike in English, this indefiniteness would cover both countable and uncountable nouns. For example:

English:	a radio	(count. n.)
	water	(uncount. n.)
Arabic:	'كتاب' /kita:bun/	'book' (count. n.)
	'ماءٌ' /mæ:ʔun/	'water' (uncount. n.)

Arabic 'number' 'العدد' has three features including the singular, dual and plural forms; whereas English has only the singular and plural forms, and does not make any special designation for the dual form which is represented by the plural form instead. In Arabic, nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns whether demonstrative or relative are marked for number and in all cases they show number agreement. Singular subjects take singular

verbs; dual subjects take dual verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs. Similarly, in English, nouns, pronouns, verbs and demonstratives are marked for number; however, and contrary to Arabic, adjectives and the indefinite articles are not.

Arabic exhibits vigorous ‘case’ and mood inflection, yet this case contains only three features compared to English. These features which include six noun/adjective declensions (endings) are the nominative case, the accusative case, and the genitive case; all these cases are indicated by word-ending, as in: المديِرُ/المديِرُ/مديِرُ/مديِرُأ/مديِرُ/مديِرُ (/mudi:r/mudi:run/mudi:ran/mudi:rin/almu di:ru/) ‘headmaster’, and vary according to Arabic gender and number. Conversely, in English, the five features including the nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, and vocative do not have their case-ending and are indicated only by grammatical relation, i.e., placement of words in a sentence. This could be explained in the following examples:

- Nominative case: ‘The baby’ in ‘The baby cries’ (Case of subject of a finite verb)
- Accusative case: ‘the baby’ in ‘She carries the baby’ (Case of direct object), or ‘the baby’ in ‘She looked at the baby’ (Case of object of the preposition).
- Dative case: ‘the baby’ in ‘She gave milk to the baby’ (Case of the indirect object)
- Genitive case: ‘the baby’ in ‘The baby’s clothes’ (case denoting the possessor or owner)
- Vocative case: ‘baby’ in ‘Come in, baby’ (case denoting the person being called).

In the subjective case, nouns and pronouns are used as subjects of the verb and nominative complement. In the accusative case, nouns and pronouns function as objects of verbs and of the preposition.

II.3.2. Verb

The Arabic verb system 'الفعال' /ʔal-fiʕlu/ is very complicated compared to others in languages such as English. Verbs in Arabic are based on a root made up of three or four consonants, along with changing vowels in between to communicate the basic meaning of the verb. The affixes (prefixes and suffixes) added to the verb specify grammatical functions such as tense, person, number and gender, in addition to changes in meaning of the verb that embody grammatical concepts such as tense (perfect or imperfect); mood (indicative, subjunctive, imperative), and voice (active or passive).

II.3.2.1. Tense

There are two tenses in Arabic: the perfect 'الماضي' which denotes completed action in the past is inflected by means of suffixes:

'They married'

'تزوجوا' /tæzæwadʒu:/

The imperfect tense 'المضارع' /ʔalmuʔa:riʕ/ (non- past time) which is paralleled to the English 'present' is inflected by means of suffixes and prefixes:

'He eats a lot'

'يأكل كثيرًا' /jaʔkulu kæθi:ræn/

There is no future tense corresponding to the time-tense relation for present and past. The future tense is rendered by adding an initial future particle /s/ (سَ) as in : /sajuʕa:diru/ (سَيُغَادِر) , or (سوف يغادر) /sawfa juʕa:diru/ 'he'll leave'.

The imperfect/perfect tense aspect prefix and suffix have different variants. Their distributions are shown on this table:

Pronoun	English	Imperfect	English	Perfect	English
ʔana أنا	I	ʔaktubu أَكْتُبُ	write	katabtu كَتَبْتُ	wrote
ʔanta أنتَ	You (male)	taktubu تَكْتُبُ	write	katabtu كَتَبْتُ	wrote
ʔanti أنتِ	You (female)	taktubi:na تَكْتُبِينَ	write	kabati كَتَبَتْ	wrote
ʔantuma: أنتِمْا	You (dual Male)	taktuba:ni تَكْتُبَانِ	write	katabtuma: كَتَبْتِمْا	wrote
Pronoun	English	Imperfect	English	Perfect	English
ʔantuma: أنتِمْا	You (dual female)	taktubna تَكْتُبْنَ	write	kababtuna كَتَبْتْنَ	wrote
Huwa هُوَ	He	jaktubu يَكْتُبُ	writes	kataba كَتَبَ	wrote
Hija هِيَ	She	taktubu تَكْتُبُ	writes	kabat كَتَبَتْ	wrote
Nahnu نَحْنُ	we	naktubu نَكْتُبُ	write	kabna كَتَبْنَا	wrote
Pronoun	English	Imperfect	English	Perfect	English
huma: هُمَا	They (dual female)	taktuba: تَكْتُبَا	write	kabata: كَتَبَا	wrote
Hum هُمْ	They (male/female)	aktubu:na يَكْتُبُونَ	write	kabu: كَتَبُوا	wrote
Hunna هِنَّ	They (female)	jaktubna يَكْتُبْنَ	write	kabna كَتَبْنَ	wrote

Table II.2. Standard Arabic imperfect/perfect tense aspect prefix and suffix

In Arabic, the imperfect time describes a current state or circumstance. The following are some of the actions that it denotes.

1- Habitual action:

'هو عادة ما يستيقظ باكراً'

'He usually gets up early'

huwa		ʕæ:datan		ma		jastajqɪdu		bæ:kiran
He		usually		/		(he) gets up		early

2- Continuous action:

'إنه يدرس الرياضيات'

'He's studying maths'

ʔinahu		jadruʂu		ʔal-rija:dijæ:t
He		studies		maths

3- General state:

'يتحدث الإنجليزية جيداً'

'He speaks English well'

Jataħadaθu		ʔal-ʔingli:ziatu		dʒajidan
He speaks		English		well

4- Prediction about future (usually with the prefix /sa-/ (سَ))

'سيغادر غداً'

'He is leaving tomorrow'

sæjuʂa:diru		ʂadan
He is leaving		tomorrow

In English and in the present simple, only the third person singular is marked for tense by adding the suffix which corresponds to the verb as in:

He playss chess {-s } ; she carries a heavy bag {-ies } , he boxes well {-es } , etc.

In the past simple the verb has two forms: regular and irregular.

The regular form ends with the suffix {-ed } as in 'arrived'.

The verb suffix {-ed } is pronounced [t] after a voiceless consonant as in 'talked' . The suffix {-ed } is pronounced [d]

after voiced consonants as in 'cleaned', and it is pronounced

[-id] after the alveolar plosives /t/ or /d/ as in 'shouted'. The

irregular verb takes different forms in the past. While some verbs

keep the same form of the present as the verb 'hit', some form their

past by changing the internal vowel, the case of the verbs

'give'(gave), 'see' (saw), 'dream' (dreamt).

II.3.2.2. Voice

In both Arabic and English active 'المبني للمعلوم' /ʔal-mabni:

lilma ʕlu:m/ and passive 'للمجهول' /ʔal-mabni:

lilmadʒhu:l/voice are merely two forms of the same verb. In the

active form, the verb is the agent, i.e., performer of the act; and in

the passive form, the subject is the recipient of the action. In

English, voice is shown by the use of the auxiliary verb and the

past participle of the verb followed by the rest of the sentence.

In Arabic, the passive voice is indicated by internal vowel

change immediately after the initial consonant in the verb; it is the

' ' /ʔu/ vowel used in all tenses. For example the verb 'ضَرَبَ' ' ' ' ' /ʔu/

‘ḍaraba’ (hit), in the past, would have the following transformation from active to passive:

Past simple

Active form: 'ضَرَبَ الْوَلَدُ الْكُرَةَ'

‘The boy hit the ball’

ḍaraba	ʔal-waladu	ʔal-kuratu
hit	the boy	the ball

Passive form: 'ضُرِبَتِ الْكُرَةُ مِنْ طَرَفِ الْوَلَدِ'

‘The ball was hit by the boy’

ḍuribat	ʔal-kuratu	min ḥarafi	ʔal-waladi
was hit	the ball	by	the boy

In the present, a passive tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person, masculine or feminine singular or plural base form. This includes the 'تْ' /t/, 'يْ' /j/ + /u/ as in:

1) 'تُضْرَبُ الْكُرَةُ بِالْقَدَمِ' /tuḍrabu ʔal-kuratu bi ʔal-qadami/ ‘the ball is hit by foot’ 'الكرة' /ʔal-kuratu/ (singular feminine)

2) 'تُحْمَلُ الْحَقَائِبُ عَلَى الْأَكْتَافِ' /tuḥmalu ʔal-ḥaqa:ʔibu ʕala ʔal-katifi/ ‘the bags are carried on shoulders’ /ʔal-ḥaqa:ʔibu/ (plural feminine)

3) 'يُشْرَبُ الْمَاءُ بَارِدًا' /juʃrabu ʔal-ma:ʔu bæ:ridæn/ ‘water is drunk cold’ . /ʔal-ma:ʔu/ (singular masculine)

4) 'يُؤْخَذُ اللَّصُوصُ إِلَى السِّجْنِ' /juʔḫaðu ʔal-loʃu:ʃ ʔila ʔesidʒni/ ‘thieves are taken to jail’ /ʔal-loʃu:ʃ/ (plural masculine)

The examples above show that in Arabic passive sentences start with verbs; in English they are initiated with nouns or pronouns.

The active and passive forms in Arabic are virtually identical, differing only in short vowels. The passive voice is used less frequently in Arabic writing than in English, and hardly at all in every day speech. This would be the cause of learners' wrong passive sentence constructions.

II.3.2.3. Mood

Grammatical mood is a feature of verbs in which verbal inflections are used to allow speakers to express their attitude toward what they are saying. The usage of verbal inflections functions with pronominal pronouns which denote number, gender, and case, and therefore constitute an inseparable part of the verb.

Arabic has five moods: indicative (المثبت) /ʔalmuθabat/, subjunctive (المنصوب) /ʔalmanṣu:b/ , imperative (الأمر) /ʔal-ʔamr/, jussive (المجزوم) /ʔal-madʒzu:m/ and energetic (التوكيد) /ʔatawki:d/.

a) Indicative asserts facts. It is marked by the suffix /-u/ as in:

'أنا أدرسُ' /ʔana: ʔadrusu/ 'I study'. This suffix has two variants: 'أنتم تدرسونَ' /ʔantum tadrusu:na/ 'you study' , and 'هم يدرسونَ' /huma: jadrusæ:ni/ 'they study'. For example:

'المدرس يقرأُ والطلبة يكتبونَ'

'The lecturer reads and the students write'

al-mudarisu		jaqra <u>ʔu</u>		wa		aḵḵalabatu		jaktubu:na
The lecturer		reads		and		the students		write

In English, verbs are marked for the indicative mood in the present third person singular by adding the suffix /-s/, /-es/, /-ies/ as in: he ‘speaks’, she ‘hurries’. However, verbs in the past tense form are not marked for the indicative form as in: he ‘went’, she ‘arrived’, etc. For example:

1) ‘She carries a bag on her shoulder’

تَحْمِلُ حَقِيْبَةً عَلَي كَتْفِيْهَا'

taħmilu		ħaqibatun		ʕala		katifæjha:
She carries		a bag		on		her shoulders

2) He arrived late to the station

' وَصَلَ مُتَأَخِّرًا إِلَى الْمَحْطَةِ'

waşala		mutaʔaħiran		ila		ʔal-maħaṭati
He arrived		late		to		the station

b) Subjunctive ‘المنصوب’ denotes an action without regard to completion. It makes no assertion of fact. In Arabic, the verb in its imperfect aspect ‘المضارع’ /al-muḏa:riʕ/ has a subjunctive form called ‘المنصوب’/al-manṣu:b/. The subjunctive is signaled by the inflection ' ' /-a/ instead of ' ' /-u/ of the indicative form. Verbs which have ' ' /-a/ in the indicative lose it in the subjunctive.

In Arabic, whether it is in the perfective or imperfective form, the subjunctive is used in that-clauses after Arabic 'أن' /ʔan/(that) in the same way for both tenses. For example:

- 1) أُرِيدُ أَنْ أَكْتُبَ /ʔuri:du ʔan aktuba/ ‘I want to write’
- 2) أُرِدْتُ أَنْ أَكْتُبَ /ʔaradtu ʔan aktuba/ ‘I wanted to write’

Similarly, the English subjunctive is used in the same way for both tenses in that-clauses after verbs and adjectives such as: require, demand, insist, propose, necessary, etc. for example:

- 1) 'It is required that they go to the bank early.'
- 2) 'It was required that they go to the bank early.'

' يُريد أن يغادر '

He wants to leave

Juri:duʔ	an	juʕa:dira
He wants	to	leave

Sometimes, subjunctive form brings about some confusion to Arabic learners of English. For example:

'I want him to read and them to listen'

'أريد أن يقرأ هو وأن يسمعوا هم'

ʔuridu	ʔan	jaqraʔa	huwa	wa	ʔan	jasmaʕu:	hum
I want	that	he reads	he	and	that	they listen	they

In Arabic, imperfect verbs takes the suffix ' ' /-a/ 'الفتحة' instead of the indicative ' ' /-u/ 'الضمة' when preceded by the particles /ʔiðen/ 'إذن' 'thus', 'الكي' /likej/ 'so that', 'الن' /len/ 'won't', 'أن' /ʔan/ 'that'. The subjunctive is used in that-clauses 'أن' /ʔan/ as in 'يريد أن يعرف' /juri:du ʔan jaʕrifa/ 'He wants to know'. For example:

'لن تحضر اللقاء'

'She will not attend the meeting'

len	taħdura	ʔal-liqa:ʔu
will not	(she) attend	the meeting

No suffix is added to the English verb. The subjunctive is used in that clauses after verbs such as suggest, insist, demand, require..., or adjectives like essential, necessary, etc. This means that there is no agreement between the subject and the verb in all persons. Sometimes, the modal ‘should’ is added to the verb. For example:

‘He suggests that she go by bus’

‘ يقترح أن تذهب بالحافلة ’

jaqtarihu		an		taḏhaba		bi		ʔal-ħa:filati
(He) suggests		that		(she)go		by		bus

The subjunctive is also used when an unreal meaning is expressed. It is used in conditional clauses after ‘if’ and ‘wish’. For example:

‘I wish I were among the group in London’

‘He looked at me as if he were my boss’

c) The imperative ‘الأمر’ /ʔal-ʔamr/ makes direct positive or negative command to a second person whether singular, dual or plural. It may also signal permission, prohibition, or any other kind of exhortation. In Arabic, imperative verbs are imperfective and denote both present and future tenses. Verbs in this category are usually directed towards second person, (أنتِ) ‘إذهب’ /ʔiḏhab/ (you) go, (أنتِ) ‘إقرئي’ /ʔiqraʔi:/ (you/female) ‘read’, ‘أجلسا’ /ʔadjlisa:/ (you dual) ‘sit’. It is formed by adding the prefix /ʔa-/, /ʔu-/ or /ʔi-/, initial /ʔalif’الف’/ to the base form of the imperfect verb with an internal vowel change. In the negative form the particle /læ:/ ‘لا’ is put initially in the sentence. For example:

'إذهب بعيدا' / ʔiðhab baʕi:dan / 'go away'
 'لا تسوق بسرعة' /læ: tasu:qua bi surʕatin/ 'don't drive fast'

There is also what is called the 'indirect command' and 'negative imperative' in which the verb starts with the prefix 'لـ' /li-/ and 'لا' /læ:/ successively. This is also referred to as 'the jussive' mood 'المجزوم' which is inflected like the subjunctive except that the 'ا' /-a/ of the subjunctive is dropped. For example:

1) 'الـنذهب إلى محطة القطار'

'Let's go to the train-station'

Linaðhaba	ʔila	maħaʕati	ʔal-qiʕa:r
let's go	to	station	train

2) 'لا تغادر غدًا'

'Don't leave tomorrow'

læ:	tuʕa:dir	ʕadan
not	leave	tomorrow

In English, the imperative uses simply the bare infinitive form of the verb which corresponds to the second personal pronoun. The subject of the sentence is usually understood as 'you', except in case when it is used with 'let's, which implies first person 'plural'. For example:

1) 'Open the window, please'

'أفتح النافذة من فضلك'

Iftaħ	ʔa-na:fiðata	min faɖlika
Open	the window	please

2) 'Let's leave now'

الـنـغـادـر الـآن

linuṣa:dira	ʔal-ʔa:na
let's leave	now

The following table illustrates Arabic verb used in different moods:

		/Kataba/ 'كتب' 'He wrote' /jaktubu/ 'يكتب' 'He writes'			
		Perfect action 'الماضي'	Imperfect action 'المضارع'		
			Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
Singular	1 st	katabtu	ʔaktubu	ʔaktuba	/
	2 nd M.	katabta	taktubu	taktuba	ʔuktub
	2 nd F.	katabti	taktubi:na	taktubi	ʔuktubi:
	3 rd M.	kataba	jaktubu	jaktuba	/
	3 rd F.	kabat	taktubu	taktuba	/
Dual	2 nd M.	katabtuma:	taktubæ:ni	taktuba:	ʔuktuba:
	2 nd F.				
	3 rd M.	kataba:	jaktubæ:ni	jaktuba:	/
	3 rd F.	katabata:	taktubæ:ni	taktuba:	/
Plural	1 st	katabna:	naktubu	naktuba:	/
	2 nd M.	katabtum	taktubu:na	taktubu:	ʔuktubu:
	2 nd F.	katabtuna	taktubna	taktubna	ʔuktubna
	3 rd M.	kababu:	jaktubu:na	jaktubu:	/
	3 rd F.	katabna	jaktubna	jaktubna	/

Table II.3. Sample Arabic verb paradigm

II.3.2.4. Person

There are twelve personal pronouns 'الضمائر المتصلة' /ʔa-ḡama:ʔir ʔal-mutaṣila/ in Arabic. They are called separate personal pronouns. They function as subjects and belong to the category of nouns; thus, everything applies to nouns will apply to them. The first person falls in a paradigm of 2 persons: /ʔana:/ 'أنا' 'I' and /naħnu/ 'نحن' 'we'. The second person falls into 5 persons: /ʔanta/ 'أنت' 'you' (male), /ʔanti/ 'أنتِ' 'you' (female), /ʔantuma:/ 'أنتمَا' 'you dual' (male/female), /ʔantum/ 'أنتم' 'you' (plural), /ʔantuna/ 'أنتن' 'you' (plural). The third person comprises 5 persons: /huwa/ 'هو' 'he' (male), /hija/ 'هي' 'she' (female), /huma:/ 'هما' 'they' (dual male/female), /hum/ 'هم' 'they' (plural male), /huna/ 'هن' 'they' (plural female). The dual pronouns 'أنتمَا' /ʔantuma:/ 'you', and 'هما' /huma:/ are shared by both masculine and feminine. Also the first person pronouns 'أنا' /ʔana:/ 'I' and 'نحن' /naħnu/ 'we' are used by both genders.

III.3.2.4.1. Case

Case is a grammatical category that reflects the function of nouns or pronouns in different phrases, sentences or clauses. In Arabic and English, nouns and pronouns and their modifiers are inflected according to the case they are in, i.e., whether they are used as subject or object, etc.

III.3.2.4.1.1. Nominative Case

Except for equational (verbless) sentences where the subject is compulsory to be mentioned, personal pronoun subject in Arabic is usually dropped. The pronominal suffixes in the nominative case may be attached to the imperfect (present tense) verbs, which are prefixes and suffixes as opposed to the perfect (past tense) verbs which are only suffixes:

(1) Imperfect tense:

1) 'أدرس العلوم الطبيعية'

'I study natural science'

ʔadru <u>ʃu</u>		ʔal-ʕulu:ma		ʔaṭṭabi:ʕija
I study		science		natural

2) 'أنتما تتكلمان العربية'

'You (dual) speak Arabic'

ʔantuma:		tatakalama: <u>ni</u>		al-ʕarabijata
You		speak		Arabic

(2) Perfect tense:

1) 'وصلنا متأخرين'

'We arrived late'

wa <u>ʃalna:</u>		mutaʔaḫiri:na
We arrived		late

2) ' هُنَّ شاركنَ في الحفلِ '

'They (female pl.) participated in the ceremony'

huna	ʃæ:rekna:	fi	al-ħafli
They	participated	in	the ceremony

II.3.2.4.1.2. Possessive Case

Possessive pronouns 'ضمائر الملكية' /ɖama:ʔirʔal-milkija/ are 14 and are referred to as attached personal pronouns. i.e., they do not appear as separate words. They are attached to nouns, verbs or particles by means of pronominal suffixes at the end, as in /kitæ:bi:/ 'كتابي' 'my book', /kitæ:buka/ 'كتابك' 'your book', /kitæ:buhu/ 'كتابه' 'his book', /kitæ:buha:/ 'كتابها' 'her book', etc. the pronominal suffixes 'كُما' /kuma:/ 'yours' and 'هُما' /huma:/ 'theirs' are shared by masculine and feminine duals; whereas, 'كُم' /kum/ 'yours' and 'كُنن' /kuna/ are shared by masculine and feminine plurals respectively.

II.3.2.4.1.3. Objective Case

Object pronouns 'ضمائر المفعول' /ɖama:ʔir al-mafʕu:l/ come after verbs and appear as suffixes at the end of these verbs. They refer to the affected part of the verb 'object', as in 'أرني' /ʔærini:/ 'show me', 'ساعدهم' /sæ:ʕadtuhum/ 'I helped them'. Nearly the same forms are used for both the possessive and object pronouns, i.e., in terms of suffixes, except for 'ملكي' /milki:/ 'my' and 'أنا' /ana/ 'me' which appear differently.

Person الضمير	Subject pronoun ضمائر الفاعل	Possessive pronoun ضمائر الملكية	Object pronoun ضمائر المفعول
1 st p. sing.	أنا /ʔana:/ 'I'	عملي /ʔamali:/ my work	ساعدني 'ي' help me /sæ:ʔidni:/
2 nd p. sing. masculine	أنت /ʔanta/ 'you'	عملك /ʔamaluka/ your work	أساعدك 'ك' help you /ʔusæ:ʔiduka/
2 nd p. sing. feminine	أنت /ʔanti/ 'you'	عملك /ʔamaluki/ your work	أساعدك 'ك' help you /ʔusæ:ʔiduki/
3 rd p. sing. masculine	هو /huwa/ 'he'	عمله /ʔamaluhu/ his work	ساعده 'ه' help him /sæ:ʔidhu/
3 rd p. sing. feminine	هي /hija/ 'she'	عملها /ʔamaluha:/ her work	ها'ساعدها' help her /sæ:ʔidha:/
2 nd p. Dual Mas./fem.	أنتما /ʔantuma:/ 'you'	عملكما /ʔamalakuma/ your work	كما'أساعدكما' help you /ʔusæ:ʔidkuma:/
1 st p. Plural masc./fem.	نحن /naħnu/ 'we'	عملنا /ʔamaluna:/ our work	نا'ساعدونا' help us /sæ:ʔidu:na:/
2 nd p. pl. masculine	أنتم /ʔantum/ 'you'	عملكم /ʔamalukum/ your work	كم'أساعدكم' help you /ʔusæ:ʔidukum/
2 nd p. pl. Feminine	أنتن /ʔantuna/ 'you'	عملكن /ʔamalakuna/ your work	كن'أساعدكن' help you /ʔusæ:ʔidkuna/
3 rd p. pl. masculine	'هم' /hum/ 'they'	عملهم /ʔamalahum/ their work	هم'أساعدهم' help them /ʔusæ:ʔiduhum/
3 rd p. pl. feminine	'هن' /huna/ 'they'	'هن' عملهن /ʔamalahuna/ Their work	هن'ساعدهن' help them /ʔusæ:ʔidhuna/

Table II.4. Sample Arabic pronoun paradigm

These pronouns make the paradigms of two forms: nominative and accusative, one pronominal prefix form and three pronominal suffix forms (nominative, accusative and genitive. The pronominal suffix is added to verbs in the perfect tense, while it is combined with a pronominal prefix in the imperfect tense.

English personal pronouns are seven in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of four forms: personal nominative (I, you, he, she ...), personal accusative (me, you, him, them ...), determiner possessive (my, her, their ...), and nominal possessive (mine, his, ours ...). Pronouns also include reflexive pronouns (myself, himself, themselves ...)

One important point which would make the difference between Arabic and English is that separate subject pronouns in Arabic can be omitted completely from sentences in different situations. This is due to the nominal declensions of verbs which make it clear who the subject is. Those declensions are themselves subject pronouns. For example:

Either 1) /ʔana: ʔaʕmalu fi al-dukæ:n/ 'أنا أعمل في الدكان' 'I work in the store.'

Or 2) /ʔaʕmalu fi al-dukæ:n/ 'أعمل في الدكان' 'I work in the store.' The omission of /ʔana: 'أنا'/ 'I' is replaced by the declension /-u/ in /ʔaʕmalu/ 'أعمل'. The omission of Arabic personal pronouns may result in the omission of the English personal pronouns in learners' different writings. For example:

1) أريدُ الحقيقة

'I want the truth'

(ʔana:)	ʔuri:du	ʔa-ħaqi:qata
(I)	want	the truth

2) 'أين سنذهب؟'

'Where shall we go?'

ʔajna		sanaðhab
Where		shall (we) go?

In Arabic, verbs are inflected by the use of suffixes in the perfect tense, as the case of /katabtu/ 'كتبتُ' 'I wrote', /katabta/ 'كتبتِ' 'you wrote' (see table: 02 p 27)

II.3.2.4.2.Number

Arabic includes three kinds of subject pronouns: singular (أنا، أنت، هو، هي), /ʔana:/, /ʔanta/, /huwa/, /hija/; dual (نحن، أنتما، هما), /naħnu/, /ʔantuma:/, /huma:/ and plural (نحن، أنتم، أنتن، هم، هن), /naħnu/, /ʔantum/, /ʔantuna/, /hum/, /huna/. Verbs are marked for number. They are conjugated in terms of two paradigms: perfective and imperfective, i.e. past or non-past; active and passive voice; and four moods in the imperfective (indicative, imperative, subjunctive and jussive). The perfective aspect is formed using suffixes that combine person, number and gender in a single morpheme as in: /ʔantuma: katabtuma:/, 'you wrote' (male/female dual); while the imperfective aspect is constructed using a combination of prefixes and suffixes, as in: /huna jadχulna/ 'هنّ يدخلنّ' 'they enter' (female plural).

1) Perfect tense:

البيتَ دخلوا / دخلنّ هنّ 'هما/هم

'They entered the house'

huma:/hum/huna		daxala:/ daxalu:/ daxalna		al-bajta
They		entered		the house

2) Imperfect tense:

البيدّت/يدخلان / يدخلوا / تدخلنّ هنّ ' هما/هم/

'They enter the house'

huma:/hum/huna	(ta/ja)dχula:ni/ jadχulu:/tadχulna	al-bajta
They	enter	the house

English pronoun 'they' stands for both dual and plural Arabic pronouns.

In English first person pronouns are singular in number (I, me, my, mine, myself) and are used by the speaker to refer to himself. The first person plural (we, our, ours, us, ourselves) are used to refer to people associated in a particular action. The second person pronoun (you, your, yours, you, yourself/ yourselves) has the same forms for both the singular and plural number and addressed to whom one talks to. The third person singular (he, him, his, his, himself/ she, her, her, hers, herself/ it, it, its, its, itself), and plural (they, them, their, theirs, themselves) refer to people or things other than the speaker or writer and persons addressed. Unlike first person and second person pronouns, third person singular pronouns are marked for gender.

1) 'I study history'

'أنا أدرس التاريخ'

ʔana:	adruʃu	ʔattæ:ri:χ
I	study	history

2) 'تحمل رسالة سريعة'

'She carries an urgent message'

tahmilu	sari:ʃatun	risæ:latun
She carries	urgent	message

II.3.2.4.3. Gender

Like nouns, all Arabic pronouns carry grammatical gender, whether they refer to persons, animate or inanimate objects. The first person, whether singular or plural, 'أنا' /ʔana:/ 'I', 'نحن' /nahnu/ 'we' denotes both sex. One can say: 'أنا ولد' /ʔana: waladun/ 'I'm a boy' (for masculine), or 'أنا بنت' /ʔana: bintun/ 'I am a girl' (for feminine). The second and the third person differentiate gender in singular and plural. One may say:

'أنت تلميذ نجيب' /ʔanta tilmi:ðun nadji:bun/ 'you're a good pupil' (masculine), or 'أنت تلميذة نجيبة' /ʔanti tilmi:ðatun nadji:batun/ 'you're a good pupil' (feminine). In the dual, there is only a single form for both the second and the third person: 'أنتما' /ʔantuma:/ 'you/dual' (masc. & fem.), and 'هما' /huma:/ 'they' (mas. & fem.). one may say: 'أنتما معلمان' /ʔantuma: muʔalimæ:ni/ 'you're teachers' (masculine), 'أنتما معلمتان' /ʔantuma: muʔalimata:ni/ 'you're teachers' (feminine). The pronoun 'أنتم' /ʔantum/ 'you/plural' is used for masculine only, as in: 'أنتم طلبة' /ʔantum ʔalabatun/ 'you're students'; while 'أنتن' /ʔantuna/ 'You/plural' is used for feminine, as in:

'أنتن طالبات' /ʔantunaʔa:libæ:tun/. The pronoun 'هو' /huwa/ 'he', for example corresponds to 'رجل' 'a man'; while the pronoun 'هي' /hija/ 'she' refers to 'امرأة' 'a woman'. The two pronouns can also be used for inanimate objects where the relationship between gender and object is arbitrary; thus, we refer to 'كرسي' 'chair' as 'هو' 'he' (masculine), yet to 'طاولة' 'table' as 'هي' 'she' (feminine). The pronoun 'هم' /hum/ 'they / plural' corresponds to masculine, as in:

'هم لاعبون ممتازون' /hum læ:ʃibu:na mumtæ:zu:na/ 'they're excellent players; whereas, the pronoun 'هنّ' /huna/ 'they/plural' denotes feminine sex, as in 'هنّ لاعباتُ ممتازاتُ' /huna læ:ʃibæ:t mumtæ:zæ:t/ 'they're excellent players.

In English first and second pronouns there is no change of form to indicate gender. The pronouns 'I, we, you, etc., are of masculine or feminine gender according to what they refer to. One may say:

I am John. I work in a hospital (masculine)

I am Jane. I work as a nurse (feminine)

You are a good student. You work very hard (masculine)

You are a good student. You work very hard (feminine)

The third person includes different pronouns in singular number for different genders: 'he, she' to indicate whether the person spoken about is male or female and 'it' for neuter. The pronoun 'it' is very often used for objects and animals and is usually used to substitute the word 'baby' in the sentence 'the baby is crying'. In the plural form the pronoun 'they' remains the same for whatever gender is, i.e., masculine or feminine.

II.3.2.5. Similarities and differences

In Arabic there is a single present simple tense, as compared to English which has both the simple and continuous forms. Besides, Arabic has no verb to 'be', nor has it an auxiliary 'do', which both exist in English; instead, personal pronouns are used to compose a sentence. However; the present simple is used in a similar

way for both languages when it deals with statements expressing facts, and habitual activities, as in: 'الشمس تشرق من الشرق' /al-famsu tafriqumina farqi/ which is the equivalent to 'the sun rises from the East', and 'هو دائما يشرب الحليب في الصباح' /huwa dæ:ʔiman jaʔrabu al-ħali:ba fi aʃ – ʃaba:hi/, to the English 'He always drinks milk in the morning.'

English uses 'has' or 'have' plus the past participle to express a past event that has present consequences, as in 'my parents have moved to a new house'. On the contrary, Arabic does not make the distinction between completed actions in the past with or without connection to the present. This may lead to the incorrect use of the present perfect tense. 'I've finished writing' 'إنتهيت من الكتابة' /intahajtu mina al-kitæ:bati/ would be realized as 'I finished writing'.

Unlike in English, Arabic passive voice is not formed with passive auxiliary and participle. It is made by altering the vowel of the active verb. Arabic and English do not exhibit parallel structures for the passive form, i.e. the two languages lack structural adjustments to achieve equivalence in meaning. Moreover, Arabic passive verb is assigned by means of 'affixation' in both perfect and imperfect tenses; English is determined by word order.

In the indicative mood, all Arabic imperfect verbs are inflected by the indicative mood suffix and its variants. The English equivalents are inflected in the present simple by the suffix –s and its variants with third person 'he, she and it'. The other pronouns are uninflected.

Arabic and English subjunctive are used similarly in that clauses, whether it is in the perfective or imperfective form. However, the Arabic equivalent verbs are always inflected in the subjunctive form, and there is subject-verb agreement in number, gender and case.

Arabic has five equivalent pronouns to the English second person 'you'. These pronouns are: أنتَ /anta/ (mas. sing.), أنتِ /anti/ (fem. sing.), أنتمَا /antuma:/ (dual), أنتمْ /antum/ (mas. pl.), أنتنَّ /antuna/ (fem. pl.). Therefore, an imperative sentence in English like: 'Shut the door' would result in five Arabic equivalents: أغلقُ البابَ /ʔɤliq al-bæ:ba/, أغلقِي البابَ /ʔɤliqi: al-bæ:ba/, أغلقَا البابَ /ʔɤliqa: al-bæ:ba/, أغلقُوا البابَ /ʔɤliqu: al-bæ:ba/, أغلقنَّ البابَ /ʔɤliqna al-bæ:ba/. The intended meaning would be selected according to context. However, there are some English equivalents to Arabic indeclinable verb forms that are used as an imperative, as in: 'Beware' 'Be careful' 'حذاري' /ħaðæ:ri/, 'let's go' لِنَذْهَبْ /li-naðhab/, 'come in' 'أدخل' /udχul/, etc. These verbs are referred to as uninflected imperative verbs.

In English some common inflectional categories are: number (singular/plural), tense (past/present), and voice (active/passive). Arabic words are marked for more grammatical categories than are English words. Some of these categories do not function in the same way as in English (such as tense and number, and the inflection for case and gender.)

For gender, Arabic exhibits two: masculine and feminine. This categorizes male/female persons or animals, as well as some things and objects. We use 'هي' /hija/ (she) for 'الطائرة' /ʔa-tta:ira/ (plane), or 'هو' /huwa/ (he) for 'البرج' /ʔal-burǰ/ (tower). English has three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter (neuter refers to things, some creatures and baby-person). This system of classification results in a large class of neuter nouns and two relatively small classes of masculine and feminine nouns, contrary to the Arabic system which results in only two large classes of masculine and feminine nouns. However, in both languages gender distinctions are not made in verbs and adjectives.

For case, Arabic has three case systems: the nominative, accusative and genitive. Their function can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase and in case endings. In English, nouns and pronouns are used in the functions of subject of the verb and nominative complement in the subjective case. In the accusative case, nouns and pronouns function as objects of verbs and of the preposition.

II.3.3. Particles

In grammar, a particle is a word or morpheme which is devoid of any inflection, except in few cases. It functions on the basis of its context, i.e., its meaning may overlap as ‘morpheme’, ‘adverb’, etc; the word ‘to’ can act as a preposition describing direction, as in ‘she has gone to Italy.’ It can also be used with a verb, as in ‘to speak English’, satisfying a grammatical function, but without a defined meaning. In both English and Arabic the meaning of the particle is often understood in the context of the sentence and words before and after the particle. Particles are subdivided on the basis of syntactic function into the following groups: adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections.

II.3.3.1. Adverbs

According to Ramat & Ricca (1994: 6) adverbs are the most problematic major word class because they are extremely heterogeneous in all languages. An adverb is a word that modifies and qualifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, a sentence, a clause, or another adverb. Adverbs usually answer questions such as ‘how?’ , ‘in what way?’ , ‘where?’ , ‘when?’ , and ‘to

what extent?’ Its’ function is called ‘adverbial function’ , and functions nearly in the same way in all languages.

In Arabic, and other than a noun, an adverb can modify any part of language. For example:

1) 'يجري مسرعاً'

‘He runs fast’

jaʒri:		musriʕan
He runs		fast

2) 'أنا لن أدخن أبدا'

I will never smoke’

ʔana:		lan		ʔudaʕina		abadan
I		will not		smoke		never

There are four main types of adverbs in Arabic: a) adverbs of time like: 'الآن' /ʔal-ʔa:na/ (now), 'أمس' /ʔams/ (yesterday), 'فيما بعد' /fi:ma: baʕd/ (later); b) adverbs of place like: 'هنا' /huna:/ (here), 'هناك' /huna:ka/ (there), 'في أي مكان' /fi ʔaji makæ:n/ (anywhere); c) adverbs of manner like: 'جداً' /dʒidan/ (very), 'ببطء' /bi-buʕʔ/ (slowly), 'تقريباً' /taqri:ban/ (almost); d) adverbs of frequency like: 'دائماً' /da:ʔiman/ (always), 'عادة' /ʕa:datan/ (usually), 'أبداً' /ʔabadan/ (never).

In English, however, many adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix -ly, as in ‘widely’ and ‘hopefully’ . Certain words are used as both adjectives and adverbs, such as ‘fast’ , ‘hard’ , and ‘straight’ . There are also a great number of adverbs that are not derived from adjectives, including adverb of time (today, soon, then), of place (here, there, everywhere), of degree (very, much, quite, so, too), and with other meanings (only, just, however, therefore). There are

some adverbs which keep irregular inflection for both comparative and superlative forms (more, most; sooner, soonest; worse, worst; further, furthest). Adverbs indicating manner are usually formed by adding the suffix 'ly' to the adjective as in: 'He listened to the man carefully', yet there are other adverbs which don't carry any inflection, as in the case of frequency adverbs (always, never...).

II.3.3.2. Prepositions

A preposition is a class of words that expresses a relationship between two grammatical elements: it indicates a relationship in space between one object and another (such as the English word in, on, under, toward) and a relationship in time between events, or serves to mark various syntactic functions and semantic roles (such as the case of 'for' and 'of', for example). In the sentence 'He put the hat on his head', the complement of the preposition 'his head', and the object 'the hat' are brought into a relation with one another. A preposition which can never be inflected usually combines with another constituent called its 'complement' to form a prepositional phrase, relating the complement to the context in which the phrase occurs. Thus, for both Arabic and English, a preposition cannot stand by itself. Its meaning can be obtained from its usage in context.

In Arabic, according to Rami & Hanna (1993: 184-185), prepositions 'حروف الجر' /ḥuru:fi ʔaldʒari/ are divided into three classes: the first class consists of prepositions that have the shape of one consonant and one short vowel. These prepositions which are inseparable occur as prefixes to the complement. They are: a) 'بِ' /bi/ (by, in, with), as in : 'كُتِبَتْ بِالْقَلَمِ الْأَسْوَدِ' /katabtu bi-alqalami al-aswadi// (I wrote with the black pen). b) 'لِ' /li/ (to), as

in: 'ذهبت للطبيب' /ḏahabtu liṭabi:bi/ (I went to the doctor's), 'ك' /ka/ (as, like), as in : 'قوي كالأسد' /qawijun ka-alasadi/ (Strong as a lion).

The second class consists of prepositions which are separable, independent and either bilateral or trilateral. The bilateral prepositions are: 'عن' /ʕan/ (from), as in: 'بعيدا عن الأرض' /baʕi:dan ʕani ʔal-ʔarḏi/ (far from Earth), 'في' /fi/ (in, at), as in: 'إنه في الدكان' /ʔinahu fi ʔal-duka:ni/ (He is at the store), 'من' /mina/ (from), as in: 'قطف الولد زهرة من البستان' /qaṭafaʔal-waladu zahratan minaʔalbustæ:ni/ (The boy picked a flower from the garden). Trilateral prepositions include: 'على' /ʕala:/ (on), as in: 'وضع الكتاب على الطاولة' /waḏaʕa al-kitæ:bu ʕala aṭ-ṭa:wilati/ (He put the book on the table), 'إلى' /ʔila/ (to, toward), as in : 'غادر إلى' /ʕadara ʔilaʔal-madrasati/ (He left to school), 'حتى' /ḥata/ (until), as in: 'انتظرت حتى الصباح' /ʔintaḏartu ḥata as-saba:ḥi/ (I waited until the morning). Some prepositions in Arabic like 'على، حتى' / ʕala, ḥata, ʔila, ʕala:/ are used more frequently than others such as 'كي' /kay/ (in order to), and 'خلى' /ḫala:/ (except).

In English, prepositions are greater in number than in Arabic. They can be used with different parts of speech of the same root. For example, we are fond of something ('of' is used with an adjective); but we have fondness for it ('for' is used with a noun). Prepositions in English are either simple (below, on, under, at, in, over, through etc.), or complex, consisting of more than one word (according to, along with, instead of in front of, etc.). However, these different prepositions used with the same word can bring about different meanings, as the case of the verb + particle construction: For example, the meaning of 'look at' would change completely if 'at' is substituted by 'for, up, or after' .

1) 'He looked at the man angrily'

نظر إلى الرجل بغضب'

naɖara | ʔila | ar-raɖuli | biɣaɖabin
He looked | at | the man | angrily

2) 'He looked for the keys everywhere'

'بحث عن المفاتيح في أي مكان'

bahaθa | ʕani | ʔalmafæ:ti:h | fi ʔaji makæ:n
He looked | for | the keys | everywhere

II.3.3.3. Conjunctions

In Arabic, conjunctions (حروف العطف) /hurufu ʔal-ʕaʕfi/ are among the most important tools in connecting sentences. They are particles which connect two words, phrases or clauses together. Properly connected sentences need a good understanding of conjunctions and transitions to provide the adequate meaning. Similar to English, Arabic use of conjunctions is fairly flexible and conveys different meanings depending on its context in the sentence. Words are joined together with each other in grammatical rules such as, nominative, (المعلمُ و الطالبُ) /ʔalmuʕalimuwaʔaʕʕa:libu/ accusative, (المعلم و الطالب) /ʔalmuʕalimawaʔaʕʕa:liba/ and genitive case, (المعلم و الطالب) /ʔalmuʕalimiwaʔaʕʕa:libi/ .

Arabic conjunctions carry a variety of meanings: additive, adversative, causal, temporal, clarification, conditional, and so on. They are found as a result of different combinations of words.

No	Word-combination	Eg. conj. in Arabic	Meaning in English
01	Prep.+noun+prep.	من أجل هذا /min aʒli hæ:ða:/	for this reason
02	Prep.+prep.+noun	بلا شك /bila:ʃak/	without doubt
03	Prep.+n.+prep.+n.	بالإضافة إلى ذلك /bi-ʔalʔiða:fatiʔila ðæ:lika/	moreover
04	Prep.+n.	في حين /fi:hi:n/	yet
05	Prep.+prep.	إلا إذا /ʔila ʔiða:/	unless
06	Prep.+prep.+prep.	حتى ولو /hata: wa law/	even if
07	Prep.+prep.+prep.+n.	وما إلى ذلك /wamæ: ila: ðæ:lika	and so on
08	Prep.+n.+n.	إلى جانب هذا /ila: ʒæ:nibi ðæ:lika/	besides this
09	Prep.+prep.+n.+n.	و على سبيل المثال /waʔala: sabi:li ʔamiθæ:li/	for instance
10	Noun+noun	خلاصة القول /χula:ʂatu ʔalqawli/	in conclusion
11	Noun+ prep.	فضلا عن ذلك /faɖlan ʔan ðæ:lika/	however
12	n.+prep.+prep.	إذا اللهم /ʔala:huma iðæ:/	in condition that
13	n.+prep.+n.	إضافة إلى ذلك /ʔiða:fatan ila:ðæ:lika/	moreover
14	Verb+prep.+n.	زد على ذلك /zid ʔala: ðæ:lika/	besides

Table II.5. Sample Arabic Conjunction Paradigm

In English, like in Arabic, a conjunction may constitute only one word (and, yet, however...), two words (so as, due to, because of...), or phrases (as well as, so as to, despite the fact that...). There are three kinds of conjunctions:

1) Coordinating conjunctions (and, for, but, nor, yet, and so) join two or more items of equal syntactic importance, such as words, main clauses, or sentences. For example, John was sent to jail, for he had committed a crime.

2) Correlative conjunctions work in pairs to join words, or group of words of equal weight in a sentence. There are six different pairs of correlative conjunctions, (both...and, either...or, neither...nor, not only...but (also/as well), and whether...or. For example: we either see the film, or play chess.

3) Subordinating conjunctions conjoin an independent clause and a dependent clause. They include conjunctions like (although, as, as far as, because, before, where, if, that, since unless, whereas...). For example: I want to know if he arrives early at the airport.

II.3.3.4. Interjections

Interjections are single words or phrases (short exclamations) that express emotions or sentiment on the part of the speaker. They are used to express surprise (wow), confusion (Huh), or outrage (Oh, no). They have no grammatical value and are very often used in one's speech. Wierzbicka (1992: 162-165) semantically classifies interjections into three classes depending on the nature of the speaker's mental state or act: emotive (feeling of surprise, pleasure or disgust); volitive (feeling of desire); and cognitive (feeling of understanding). In writing, an interjection is always

followed by an exclamation mark (!). In English as well as in Arabic, pauses like ‘uh’ 'أ' /ʊ:/, ‘um’ 'أَمْ' /em/, ‘Ah’ 'آه' /a:h/ are known as ‘hesitation devises’ . They are extremely common in both languages; speakers use them especially when they don’ t know what to say, or to indicate that they are thinking about what to say.

In both languages, verbs, nouns, or adverbs can be used as interjections. Conventions in English like, ‘Okay, Hi, Sorry, Bye, Good morning, Excuse me, Don’ t worry, That’ s great’ find their equivalences in Arabic 'أجل' /ʔaʒal/, 'أهلاً' /ʔahlan/, 'أسف' /ʔæ:sif/, 'إلى اللقاء' /ʔila-liqa:ʔ/, 'صباح الخير' /ʂaba:ħu-lħajri/, 'المعذرة' /ʔalmaħðira/, 'لا تقلق' /la:-taqlaq/, 'هذا رائع' /hæ:ðæ: ra:ʔiħ/. Some linguists consider ‘yes’, ‘no’, ‘amen’ 'أمين', 'نعم', 'لا' /naħam/, /la:/, /ʔæ:mi:n/ as interjection since they have no syntactical connection with other words and rather work as sentences themselves. Several English interjections contain sounds that do not or very rarely exist in the English phonological inventory, for example ‘Ahem’ /əʔəm/ “attention” ; ‘Shh’ /ʃʃ:/ “Be quiet” ; ‘Ugh’ /ʌʒ/ “discusting” . Similarly in Arabic (different varieties of Arabic), certain sounds like 'اشدش' ‘Shh’ /ʃʃ:/ or 'سسس' ‘Sss’ /ss:/, 'أغغ' ‘Ugh’ /ʌʒ/, 'أبي' /ajj/, are still used, yet they lost their importance in classical Arabic where only a few have survived so far 'هأ' /ha:/, 'وأ' /wa:/, 'يأ' /ja:/.

II.3.3.5. Similarities and differences

Unlike in nouns, verbs and adjectives, no semantic prototype can be identified easily in adverbs. The scope of Adverbs in English is said to be wider than that of Arabic because they not only modify verbs or their time and place of occurrence, but also adjectives, other adverbs or even whole sentences. However, in

both languages most adjuncts are placed final in sentences. In Arabic, after verb, subject, and object as in: 'ساق أحمد السيارة مسرعا' /sæqa ʔaħmadu ʔaʃajaratu musriʔan/ (Ahmed drove the car fast); in English, after subject, verb, and object as in: 'He ate his meal quickly' .

Prepositions are placed before the noun in both Arabic and English, 'on the roof' = 'فوق السقف' /fawqa ʔasaqfi/, 'in front of the house' = 'أمام البيت' /æmæ:mæʔalbajti/. Neither Arabic nor English prepositions can stand by themselves; they get their meaning through their usage in context. Each preposition may serve a variety of purposes, i.e., the same preposition may express time or space and be followed by a noun, an adjective, a verb or even an adverb, and it may be used idiomatically. Although these prepositions have some characteristics in common, they differ in both number and usage. There are only twenty Arabic prepositions, among which there are six most commonly used ('من' /mina/, 'إلى' /ila/, 'على' /ʔala/, 'بـ' /bi/, 'في' /fi:/ 'لـ' /li/ (Abbas H. 1961: 320); while in English there are one hundred and fifty prepositions. Some prepositions that are only one word in English may find their equivalent in two words in Arabic, as the case of 'among' = 'من بين' /min bæjni/, which is sometimes translated by Arab learners as 'from between'. Similarly, some Arabic one-word prepositions may be the equivalent of compound English prepositions, like 'أمام' /æmæ:mæ/ which means 'in front of' .

Arabic and English differ in using cohesive markers (conjunctions): Arabic is said to favour the use of coordination, (وَ /wa/, فَ /fa/, ثُمَّ /θuma/, أَوْ /ʔaw/, أَمْ /ʔam/, بَلْ /bal/ & لَكِنْ /læ:kin/) each of which, usually has multiple functions and meanings to signal the semantic relation between pieces of information; while English uses more subordination, (Aziz 1989: 214-5). The conjunction 'وَ' /wa/ is the most common connective device in

Arabic. It is used to connect words, phrases, clauses and sentences, and is repeated before every item coordinated with the preceded one, contrary to the English 'and' which is usually substituted by coma ','. Subordination is used to indicate the semantic relation that can be expressed by more than one conjunction. This is often seen as a sign of sophistication in English writings, yet coordination is less frequently used. In English, coordination in compound sentences is used to express related thoughts which are more or less syntactically and semantically equal; however, with subordination unequal ideas are expressed, i.e., one clause carries more weight than the other. In Arabic, coordination is more frequently employed than subordination. Both coordination and subordination occur in complementary distribution.

In both English and Arabic, interjections can be grammatically classified as primary and secondary interjections. The English 'Oh!', and the Arabic 'ششش!' /ʃʃʃ../, for example are primary interjections, and are only used as interjections, yet the English 'indeed' and the Arabic 'مكأناك!' /mækæ:nak/ (keep your seat!) are secondary interjections and used in context.

Correspondence between English and Arabic interjections cannot always be found. A certain English interjection may not have its equivalence in Arabic and vice versa. In addition, some of the English and Arabic interjections cannot be systematically classified into emotive, volitive and cognitive. This is because a certain interjection may include more than one of the three classes, as in the case of irony in certain context.

Interjections, whether in Arabic or in English make the meaning of utterances clearer and more noticeable. Some of them have equivalent pronunciation and meanings in both languages. For example, the English interjection 'sh' and the Arabic 'ششش' /ʃʃʃ../

are equivalent in form and meaning. Both of them mean 'keep silent'

Conclusion:

The second chapter deals with a contrastive description of the inflectional morphemes of Arabic and English. The inflectional categories including number, gender, person, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, and comparison are defined under each inflectional category. Parts of speech are listed and determined and agreements between them are stated according to their inflection. For each word, the underlying base or root, and the modified items or affixes are explained. The allomorphs and their distribution are identified. The arrangement of inflected and derived elements and any modification involved are stated, and the meaning of lexical items containing each morpheme or set of morphemes are given in both Arabic and English. All this contrastive work is followed by illustrating examples which clearly show the parts of resemblance and the ones of difference. Similarities and dissimilarities conclude the descriptions given to the different morphological items under study, so as to get a clear image on word-formation in both Arabic and English.

Despite the common points shared by both Arabic and English phonological systems, the comparison made in this chapter shows that the two inflectional systems are different rather than similar.

For further study of the two systems, chapter three is devoted to a comparison and illustration of Arabic and English syntactical structures. This includes different language items such as the form, the meaning and the distribution of words in sentences.

CHAPTER THREE

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III.2.2.6. Similarities and Differences

Conclusion

“We begin with an analysis of the foreign language and compare its structure by structure with the native language. For each structure we need to know if there is a structure in the native language (1) signaled the same way, that is, by the same formal device, (2) having the same meaning, and (3) similarly distributed in the system of that language.”

Lado (1957: 66)

Introduction

The wrong use of English syntactic elements, including different word order in phrases, sentences and clauses, affects negatively the whole scheme of the writing process. Algerian Arabic speakers studying English at higher learning institutions such as universities, whatever the kind of subject they are dealing with, have always been considered for committing writing errors.

The capacity of producing correct and well-formed sentences is a complicated task and remains one of the most controversial issues in EFL writing. On the other hand, an English sentence, the basic syntactic unit, is composed of one or more words belonging to different parts of speech, such as nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, and governed by different grammatical categories, including tenses, aspects, persons, numbers, voice, mood, and so on (see chapter 2). Algerian learners encounter difficulties with the forms, functions and usage of the different parts of speech according to what is required for the English sentence. The problem may lie in the choice between an adjective or an adverb, or how to change a noun into an adjective, and the like.

Chapter four provides a contrastive study of the syntactical structures of Arabic and English. This includes different language items such as the form, the meaning and the distribution of words in sentences so as to diagnose whether or not the structure of L2 has a similar form in L1; indicates the same meaning and similarly distributed in the system of L1. The study will also deal with points like sentence types, parts of speech that constitute the minimal elements of sentences and the analyzing of questions using the different auxiliaries or interrogative pronouns considering intonation. All these items fall together to provide an answer to the research question about whether L1 interference is due to the differences that may exist between the grammatical systems of Arabic and English.

III.1. Syntax

Syntax is the sub-field of grammar that studies the rules and how units including words combine into phrases or sentences. For example, why “*Bill ate the fish*” is acceptable but “*Ate the Bill fish*” is not? Syntacticians investigate what orders of words make legitimate sentences and account for patterns found across sentences, such as correspondences between active sentences “*John threw the ball*” and passive sentences “*The ball was thrown by John*”, and some types of ambiguity, as in ‘*Visiting relatives can be boring*’ which has two readings.

III.2. Arabic Versus English Syntax

Standard Arabic (SA) writing from the right to the left is a feature added to the different complex syntactical features which

characterize this language from other languages, mainly the Indo-European ones whose writing goes from left to right. The Arabic letters 'الحروف' /al-ḥuru:f/ consist of up to four shapes depending on the context they occur in, i.e., according to the preceding and successive letters, as well as the preceding parts of speech. This can be illustrated in the example of the form of the Arabic letter 'ه' which can change into 'ها' /ha:/, as in 'في صوتها' /fi: ṣawtiha:/ (in her voice), and 'هـ' /hu:/, as in 'صوته جميل' /ṣawtuḥu dʒami:lun/, (his voice is beautiful). Besides, there is no capitalization on words, contrary to English where words are capitalized in different situations.

Arabic has also three diacritics representing its vowels: 'الفتحة' /al-faṭḥatu/, 'الضمة' /al-ḍamatu/, 'السكون' /al-suku:n/ (َ، ُ، ْ) which are not necessarily found in ordinary texts, contrary to their presence in the Holy Quran so as to avoid any possible mistake or ambiguity.

English has a SVO form of syntactical structure where the subject comes first, followed by the verb and finally the object, as in 'Jane broke the mirror'. It is this sequence that characterizes English syntax. Arabic syntax, however, is classified as a VSO; an initial verb followed by a subject then an object, as in : 'كسر محمد' /kaṣara muḥamadun al-mirʔæ:ta/ (Mohamed broke the mirror); despite the existence of initial subject in different cases, such as: 'محمد في البيت' /muḥamadun fi: ʔalbajti/ (Mohamed is at home).

III.2.1. Sentence Structure

Leech (2006: 104) describes a sentence as '*the largest unit of language that it is the business of grammar to describe.*' The

structure of this sentence includes all the grammatical elements linked together to express a statement, question, exclamation, request, command, etc. This, in orthographic terms, would be all the items between a capital letter and a stop. The items consist of all parts of speech including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and all what links the constituents at a syntactic level to get a meaningfully correct sentence. The sentence may consist of function words, such as articles, prepositions and pronouns, which have little lexical meaning but most importantly grammatical relationship with other words in the sentence, and content words, like nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs which do not create any problems of understanding, yet function in the same way as function words in the sentence.

III.2.1.1. Arabic / English Simple sentence

In any language, whether Arabic, English, or German...etc, a sentence is seen as the largest unit, having the same grammatical forms of statements. However, each sentence in most cases is built differently according to the norms and rules which govern its structure.

In English, a simple sentence which can take the positive or the negative form is explained as a complete meaningful unit in which the subject and a predicate form the most important parts (Alexander 1990: 4). For example, in 'John hit the ball', 'John and hit' by themselves can syntactically form the simple sentence, although the need for other sentence elements is necessary.

III.2.1.1.1. Affirmative Sentence

Arabic has two types of sentences: nominal and verbal sentences 'الجملة الاسمية والفعلية' /ʔaldʒumla ʔalismiʒa walfiʕliʒa/. A nominal sentence is the one which starts with a noun (NP), as in:

1) 'علي يدرس في البيت'

'Ali studies at home'

ʕali		jadrusu		fi al-bajti
Ali		studies		at home

A verbal sentence starts with a verb (VP), as in:

2 'يدرس علي في البيت'

'Ali studies at home'

jadrusu		Ali		fi al-bajti
studies		Ali		at home

In the first example, the stretch of words is in similar way for both Arabic and English, i.e., Noun + verb + Pr. Ph. An Arabic nominal sentence (SVO) is similar structured to the English sentence; hence, no problem will emerge when writing similar English sentences which start with nouns used as subjects 'المبتدأ' /ʔalmubtadaʔ/.

In the second example, the Arabic sentence starts with a verb, and since no equivalent English sentence starts similarly, this would bring about confusion in writing a similar sentence. A learner very often writes 'Studies Ali at home' instead of 'Ali studies at home'

III.2.1.1.2. Negative Sentence

In English, the word 'not' is used to express the negative form of statements. Negation is limited to the word or phrase it is part of. An auxiliary is often added before the particle 'not' in different tenses. For example:

1) John is not at the airport

'جون ليس بالمطار'

dʒɔ:n	lajsa	bilmaʔa:ri
John	is not	at the airport

2) He did not see the film

'لم يشاهد الفيلم'

(huwa)	lam juʃæ:hid	ʔal-film	.
He	didn'tsee	the film	

In Arabic there are several words used; each one has its proper time and conditions. The words: 'ليس' /lajsa/, 'لا' /la:/ (not) are used before nouns and verbs. 'لم' /lam/ before verbs only to denote a past action, and 'لن' /lan/ before verbs to express a future action. 'ليس' /lajsa/ is used in the present to denote a present action, as in :

1) Present a)

'علي ليس في البيت'

Ali **is not** at home

b)

'ليس علي في البيت'

Ali **is not** at home

'لا' /la:/ is used both in the present and in the future and denotes a negative statement. For example:

2) Present

'لايشرب أحمد الحليب في الصباح'

Ahmed **doesnot** drink milk in the morning.

3) Future

'لايذهب علي معي غدا'

Ali **willnot** go with me tomorrow.

4) Past

'لميلعب مع الفريق'

He **did not** play with the team

The above examples include both Arabic and English negative statements. Some sentences are constructed nearly in the same way, yet the confusing English auxiliary system with its different placements in sentences as well as the various Arabic particles of negation which all denote the English particle 'not' result in serious complexities to the Arabic learner of English. Learners very often start the English sentence with the particle 'Not' in the same way it is typically structured in Arabic. This may lead to both deficiencies in meaning and placement of the particle. The two sentences: 'Not go at home now' and 'Not go with him' demonstrate 1- the wrong placement of 'not' 2- the missing of personal pronouns 'I' and 'she', and the auxiliaries 'do' to indicate the present and 'did' to indicate the past.

1)

'لا أذهب إلى البيت الآن'

'I don't go home now'

la:		ʔaðhabu		ʔila		ʔalbajti		ʔal-ʔa:na
Not		go		at		home		now'

2)

'لم تذهب معه'

She didn't go with him

lam		taðhab		maʕahu
Not		go		with him

III.2.1.1.3. Imperative Sentence

The imperative 'الأمر' (as seen in chapter 3) makes direct positive or negative command to a second person whether singular, dual or plural. It may also signal permission, prohibition, or any other kind of exhortation. In Arabic, imperative verbs are imperfective and denote both present and future tenses. Verbs in this category are usually directed towards second person, 'إذهب' (أنت) /ʔiðhab/ (you) go, 'إقري' (أنت) /ʔiqrai:ʔi:/ (you/female) 'read', 'أجلسا' /ʔadjlisa:/ (you dual) 'sit'. It is formed by adding the prefix 'أ' /ʔa-/, 'أ' /ʔu-/ or 'أ' /ʔi-/, initial /ʔalif'الف/ to the base form of the imperfect verb with an internal vowel change. In the negative form the particle /læ:/ 'لا' is put initially in the sentence. For example:

1) 'إذهب بعيدا'

'Go away'

ʔiðhab		baʕi:dan
Go		away

AS: V + adv.

ES: V + adv.

{ Same S.St. }

2) 'لا تسوق بسرعة'

'Don't drive fast'

læ:		tasu:qua		bi surʕatin
not		drive		fast

AS: Neg. not + Pers. Pr. + V + Prep. + Adv.

ES: Aux. Do + Not + V + Adv.

{ Different S.St. }

There is also what is called the 'indirect command' and 'negative imperative' in which the verb starts with the prefix 'لـ' /li-/, which is similar to the English 'let's'. This is referred to as 'the jussive' mood 'المجزوم' /ʔal-madʒzu:m/ which is inflected like the subjunctive except that the 'ـا' /-a/ of the subjunctive is dropped.

3)

'لنذهب إلى محطة القطار'

'Let's go to the train-station'

li-naðhab		ʔila		maħaʕati		ʔal-qiʕa:r
let's go		to		station		train

AS: Aux.V (ﻭ) + Pr. (ﻥ) + V. + Prep.+ N(adj) + N

ES: V + adv. + V + Prep. + N (adj) + N

{ Same S.St. }

In English, the imperative uses simply the bare infinitive form of the verb which corresponds to the second personal pronoun. The subject of the sentence is usually understood as 'you', except in case when it is used with 'let's, which implies first person 'plural'. The use of the imperative in English is sometimes seen as inappropriate or even impolite or offensive in certain circumstances. Thus, polite speech will instead express the same thing as question or statement. The following statements may illustrate the point:

4) 'Could you come and help me?'

'هل تستطيع أن تأتي وتساعدني؟'

hal tastaʕi:ʕu		ʔan		taʔti:		wa		tusa:ʕidani:
Can/Could you		(to)		come		and		help me

5) 'Open the window, please'

'افتح النافذة من فضلك.'

iftaħ?		a-na:fiðata		min faɖlika
Open		the window		please

In affirmative imperative, including polite requests, nearly all the words are distributed in the same way for both Arabic and English

(eg.1 & 4). This means that there is a complete identification which makes it easy for Arab learners of English to write correct sentences, except for some particles like the Arabic 'أن' /ʔan/ which does not find its equivalence in English, and is sometimes translated into 'to'. However, the problem lies with the negative imperative, where 'not' is used alone without a preceding auxiliary (Eg. 2).

III.2.1.1.4. Exclamatory Sentence

In all languages, exclamations are used to express strong emotions such as surprise, pleasure, disbelief, etc., yet they are not marked because they are syntactically different from other types of sentences. Exclamatory sentences are based more on paralinguistic features such as intonation, tone and voice rather than the sentence structure itself.

In Arabic, the used style is referred to as 'أسلوب التعجب' /ʔuslu:b ʔataʕadʒub/ (exclamatory style). The particles used are:

a) 'أفعل' /mæ:/ (what a..), followed by the superlative adjective 'أفضل' /ʔafʕala/, (إسم التفضيل) /ʔsmu ʔtafði:l/, as in: 'أما أجمل هذه الزهرة' /mæ:ʔadʒmala hæ:ðihi ʔazahra/ (what a beautiful flower it is!)

b) 'يا لها' /ja: laha:/ (what a..) followed by 'من' /min/, as in: 'يا لها من سيارة جميلة' /ja: laha: min ʕaja:ratin dʒami:latin/ (what a beautiful car it is!). To denote the masculine 'ياله' /ja: lahu/ is used instead of 'يا لها', as in: 'يا له من رجل طويل' /ja: lahu min radʒulin ʕawi:l/ (what a tall man he is!).

English has two words to start with in expressing exclamation in formal language: 'What' and 'How', as in:

- 1) 'What a strong man he is'
- 2) 'How high those mountains are!'

Both sentences are structured in the way:

What / How + Adj. + N. + V.(be)

In formal English, there are also exclamatory words which can stand by themselves to perform the same emotion as the one used in the above statements. Examples of these words are: 'Wow!', 'Amazing', 'Fantastic!', 'Super!', 'Unbelievable!', 'Congratulation!', 'Oh!', ...etc. These words can also be used in full statements. For example:

- 1) 'Wow, what a big score you made!'
- 2) 'Fantastic, she really did a good job!'

Arab learners of English sometimes confront some problems with this style; the statements are not similarly structured. For example:

- 1) 'ما أجمل هذه الزهرة'

'What a beautiful flower it is'

mæ:	ʔadʒmala	hæ:ðihi	ʔazahra
What	beautiful	this	flower

- 2) 'يا له من رجل طويل'

'What a tall man he is!'

ja: lahu	min	radʒulin	ɬawi:l
What (he)	/	man	tall

In sentences like 1 & 2, learners tend to omit the subject and the verb (to be 'is') in the same way Arabic equational sentences (K.C.Ryding 2005:58) are made (they do not include verbs). In the same process, they add other items such as personal pronouns, and reverse the position of the different parts of speech, as in: 'man tall' instead of 'tall man'.

III.2.1.1.5. Similarities and Differences

1) Arabic nominal sentence (SVO) is structured similarly to the English simple sentence; hence, no problem will emerge in learners' writing.

2) The absence of an equivalent to the English verb 'to be' in Arabic equational sentences in the present tense, as in 'علي غضبان' /ʕalijun ʔaḏba:nun/ (Ali is angry) leads EFL learners, especially pre-intermediate or beginners to write the English sentence without 'to be', as in: 'Ali angry.'

3) Arabic verbal sentence starts with the verb and forms (VSO) pattern, as in: 'يراجع التلميذ دروسه' /jura:dʒiʕu ʔattilmi:ðu durusahu/ (The pupil revises his lessons). English has a (SVO) pattern, i.e., it starts with a subject; thus, sometimes an incorrect word-order is made, as in: 'Revise(s) the pupil his lessons'.

4) In negative statements, Arabic has several substitutions for the particle 'not', yet it employs no counterpart for the English different auxiliaries such as 'be, do, have, can, must...etc'. Moreover, negative particles such as 'لا', 'لم'...etc. are always placed before the verb in verbal sentences, and before the noun in nominal sentences. In English 'not' is placed after the auxiliary in

SVO sentences, as in: 'I do not play the guitar.' Thus, an Arabic sentence such as: 'لا أذهب اليوم' /la: ʔaḏhabu ʔaljawma/ (I do not go today) would be translated literally to provide the English incorrect sentence 'Not (I) go today.' or 'I not go today.'

* Arabic negative particles 'ليس', 'لم' and 'لن' negate the verb only and indicate time-reference. 'ليس' is employed in the present, 'لم' indicates the past ; whereas 'لن' is used to denote the future. In English, however, negation time reference is expressed by the auxiliaries 'do/does' in the present, 'did' for the past, and 'will' or 'to be' for the future. Thus, there is some dissimilarity in terms of negation between Arabic and English. This would provoke certain errors in the construction of English negative statements.

5) Imperative affirmative is similar structured for both Arabic and English, i.e., (V + Adv.), as in 'Go tomorrow.' 'إذهب غدا' /ʔIḏhab ḡadan/. Arabic learners of English will have no difficulties to write this language item correctly. However, the problem arises with negative commands where Arabic statements are initiated with 'لا' (not), yet English statements start with 'Do + not' . Learners usually err by omitting 'Do' , because it does not exist in Arabic. Instead of saying 'Do not shout at me!' they say 'Not shout at me!'

* Arabic imperative 'دعنا نفعل / لنفعل' has its equivalence in 'let's do!' Both statements are patterned in the same way; hence no problem is faced by learners.

6) In exclamatory statements learners tend to omit the verb 'to be', to make the statements formed in the same way as in Arabic.

* Sometimes there is some confusion in substituting ‘how’ (used with adjectives & adverbs) for ‘what’ (used before nouns), mainly when the noun is preceded by an adjective.

III.2.1.2. Compound Sentences

In Arabic, a compound sentence consists of more than one verb (predicate) in two separate simple sentences joined by a coordinating conjunction such as 'و' /wa/ (and), 'ف' /fa/ (so), 'بل' /bal/ (but rather), 'ثم' /θuma/(after), 'أو' /ʔaw/...etc. These conjunctions which have no effect on phonological or syntactic level join the two independent sentences in an additive way in the same way the English compounds are structured. The small difference that exists is that in Arabic the same subject is not repeated in the second sentence, contrary to English which can either keep or remove it. For example:

1)

'علي ساق بسرعة، و وصل إلى العمل في الوقت'

or ساق علي بسرعة، و وصل إلى العمل في الوقت "

‘Ali drove too fast, and arrived to work on time’

Ali		sæ:qa		bi surʕatin		wa		waʕala		ila		ʔalʕamali		fi		ʔawaqti
Ali		dove		too fast,		and		(he) arrived		to		work		on		time

2)

'جون لم يأخذ القطار، بل ذهب بالطائرة'

'John did not take the train, yet (he) went by plane'

John		lam		jaʔxuð		ʔalqiʕa:ra		bal		ðahaba		biʔaʕa:ʔirati
John		did not		take		the train,		yet		(he) went		by plane

Examples one and two show that no big dissimilarity exists between Arabic and English compound sentences, mainly in case of Arabic nominal sentences which start with a subject, in the same way English does. This similarity helps learners to avoid errors belonging to the combination of all sentence elements.

III.2.1.3. Complex Sentences

A complex sentence is composed of one main clause and one dependent / subordinate clause joined by a subordinating conjunction. Arabic subordinate clauses are joined by pronoun complements such as 'بأن' /biʔana/ (that), conjunctive adverbs 'لذلك' /liða:lika/ (thus), relative pronouns 'الذي' /ʔallaði:/, 'التي' /ʔallati:/ (who; which), 'أين' /ʔajna/ (where).

For example:

1) 'قال لي بأنـه التقى علي'

'He told me that he had met Ali'

qa:la		li:		biʔanahu		ʔiltaqa:		ʕalijun
(He) told		me		(that) he		had met		Ali

2) 'ذهبتُ إلى البيت أين كنت أعيش من قبل'

'I went to the house where I had been living before'

ḏahabtu		ʔila		ʔalbajti		ʔajna		kuntu		ʔaʕi:ʃu		min qabl
I went		to		the house		where		I had been		living		before

In English, relative pronouns can be left out, but this does not have any effect on meaning. In Arabic; however, their use is

compulsory. Their omission would either change or deteriorate meaning. A literally translation of the English sentence ‘I bought the car I had seen in the display’ would result in the Arabic sentence: 'إشتريت السيارة شاهدتها في العرض'

ʔiʃtaraita		a-ʃajaratu		ʃa:hadtuha		fi		ʔal-ʕarḏi
I bought		the car		I'd seen		in		the display

The two complex sentences show that Arabic and English start differently, i.e., the first starts with a verbal sentence; while the second with a nominal sentence. Yet, this does not have big influence on learners' writing, except for their possible missing of personal pronouns because in Arabic most personal pronouns are omitted and substituted by a sort of suffixation in the verb, as the case of 'تُ' /tu/ (attached subject pronoun), in 'ذهبتُ' /ḏahabtu/, which means that the pronoun 'أنا' /ʔana:/ is omitted (see chapter 3).

III.2.1.4. Similarities and Differences

- 1) Both Arabic and English compound sentence types include two verbs in the two sentences.
- 2) The words are common in form, indicate the same meaning and are similarly distributed in the system of the two languages.
- 3) English can have the same word-order when omitting the subject (personal pronoun) in the second sentence in the same way it is omitted in Arabic.

- 4) Sometimes coordinating conjunctions can be left out and substituted by a semi-colon for both Arabic and English, the case of the coordinating conjunction ‘yet’ 'بل' /bal/.
- 5) In complex sentences, Arabic starts with a verb that includes an attached subject pronoun in the suffixation 'ضمير متصل' /ḏami:r mutaṣil/; while English starts with a subject.
- 6) Conjunctive adverbs are obligatory and cannot be left out in both language structures.
- 7) Pronoun complement 'أن / بأن' /biʔanna / ʔanna/ in Arabic is compulsory in sentence formation; yet it (**that**) can be left out in English.
- 8) A relative pronoun in Arabic is an essential part in forming relative clauses. i.e., no subordinate clause stands alone without it. In English, its omission or substitution by other pronouns such as ‘that’ for ‘who’ or ‘which’ can be seen in many cases. This does not have any influence on meaning and distribution of words in the clause.

III.2.1.5. Arabic / English question types

Just like English, Arabic has different ways in asking questions using different word questions. English usually needs auxiliaries such as ‘to be’, ‘to do’, ‘to have’ etc., to denote the exact time; however, Arabic uses affixation system based on verb-inflection according to different personal pronouns, as in 'ت' : in

'هل ذهبت بالأمس؟'

/hal ḏahabta bilʔamsi/

‘**Did you** go yesterday?’

'ت' means 'أنت' pers. Pr. (you).

III.2.1.5.1. Yes-No Questions

'هل' /hal/ or 'أ' /a/ are interrogative particles used to introduce a question that can simply be answered with 'Yes' or 'No'. These two Arabic word questions can have their equivalents in the 'large' English auxiliary question system (Yes/No questions) in which the question is initiated with an auxiliary. 'هل' /hal/ or 'أ' /a/ have equivalent functional meaning, but different distribution: 'هل' is used with a wide range of construction; yet 'أ' is restricted in that it is not used before a noun with the definite article (K.C.Ryding ibid: 405). For example:

1) 'Has she left home?'

'هل غادرت إلى البيت؟'

hal		ṣa:darat		ila		ʔa-bajti
(Has)		she left		(to)		home

2) 'أدخلت الملعب مبكرا؟'

'Did you enter the stadium early?'

ʔa-daḫalta		ʔa-malṣaba		mubakiran
Did you enter		the stadium		early

Both sentences illustrate that Arabic does not use verbal auxiliary system contrary to English. This makes EFL learners face some difficulties to form auxiliary questions or to provide answers which expound the underlying auxiliary, i.e., learners are very often confused with the appropriate auxiliary to use, especially the one to denote the exact tense. Moreover, they sometimes add prepositions in the same way they are used to in Arabic.

III.2.1.5.2. Interrogative Word

An interrogative (question word) such as what, who, where, when, whose, why, how, etc. is a function word used in asking questions. In English, they are sometimes referred to as ‘WH words’ because most of them start with ‘Wh’. There are some compound words, mainly when added to ‘How’, as in ‘How long’ ‘How many’, ‘which of’, etc. These words which are asked for specific information find their equivalents in the Arabic pronouns: 'مَاذَا' /ma:ða:/ (what), 'مَنْ' /man/ (who), 'أَيْنَ' /ʔajna/ (where), 'مَتَى' /mata:/ (when), 'لِمَنْ' /liman/ (whose), 'لِمَاذَا' /lima:ða:/, 'كَيْفَ' /kajfa/ (how), etc. There are some words which have two or more equivalents in English, such as 'كَمْ' /kam/ (How much/How many) ; 'أَيْ' /ʔajna:/ (How, Where, When). Except for the Arabic word 'أَيُّ' /ʔaju/ (which /of), all other interrogative words are ‘built words’ 'كلمات مركبة' /kalima:t murakaba/, which neither exhibit case-inflection nor change for genders and numbers. For example:

ماذا تقول؟ (1)

‘What do you say?’

ma:ða:		taqu:lu
What		(do) you say

أين كانوا يسكنون؟ (2)

ʔajna		kanu:		jaskunu:n
Where		(were)		they living

كم من المال عندك؟ (3)

kam		mina ʔalma:l		ʕindaka
How much		money		do you have

Arabic and English start with interrogative words which carry nearly the same meaning for both languages. There is no inversion of word order, usually just the insertion of the question word. The difference that may exist is in term of suffixation for Arabic, and verbal auxiliary for English. Such criteria will obviously lead to learners' omission or addition of some language items that will spoil the form of English sentence structure.

III.2.1.5.3. Negative questions

Arabic negative questions are initiated with interro-negative particles such as 'أليس' /ʔalajsa/, 'ألم' /ʔalam/, 'ألن' /ʔalan/, 'ألا' /ʔala:/, 'هلا' /halla:/. All these have their equivalents in English as follows:

Particle	pronunciation	Equivalent in English
'أليس'	/ʔalajsa/	Don't/Doesn't + per.pr./noun
'ألم'	/ʔalam/	Didn't + per.pr.
'ألن'	/ʔalan/	Won't + pr.pr.
'ألا'	/ʔala:/,	Don't / won't + pr.pr.
'هلا'	/halla:/	Don't / won't + pr.pr.

Table III.1. Arabic interro-negative particles

For example:

- 1) 'ألا تذهبنا معاً؟'
 'Don't you go together?'
 ʔala: | taðhaba: | maʕan
 Don't | (you) go | together

- 2) 'ألبيسَ لَدِيكَ الْوَقْتِ؟'
 'Don't you have time?'
 ?alaysa | ladayka | ?alwaqta
 Don't | you have | time

As shown in the table above, English negative questions are built primarily with auxiliary verbs used initially in the same way Arabic question words are; yet what may bring distinction is that in English, there is subject-auxiliary inversion (aux.+not+S+V), contrary to Arabic which includes no case of inversion. Moreover, perfect tenses are sometimes expressed by imperfect verbs.

III.2.1.5.4. Tag Questions

In nearly all languages tag questions are more common in colloquial spoken usage rather than written language. It is a grammatical structure in which a declarative or imperative statement is turned into question by the use of interrogative fragment (the tag) in order to confirm whether or not the thing being said is right or wrong. In English, a tag question is made up of an auxiliary verb and a pronoun. The auxiliary agrees with the tense of the verb in the preceding sentence, as in 'you look tired, don't you?' i.e., the different auxiliaries are used according to the different tenses. This rule applies for all tenses except for the case when the main verb is 'to be', which requires the repetition of the main verb, not the auxiliary, as in: 'This is really interesting, isn't it? In Arabic, however, there is one formula in tag question. It is made of 'ألبيسَ كَذَلِكَ؟' /?alaysa kaða:lika/ (Isn't it?), which is equivalent to all English tags. For example:

1) 'إنه قادم الشهر المقبل، أليس كذلك؟'

'He will come next month, won't he?'

ʔinahu		qa:dimun		ʔafahra ʔalmuqbil		ʔalaysa kaða:lika
He		will come		next month		(won't he)

2) 'لم يشفى تماما، أليس كذلك؟'

'He hasn't recovered completely, has he?'

lam juʃfa		tama:man		ʔalaysa kaða:lika
not (he) recovered		well		hasn't he

Tag question in English combines two elements that include the repetition of the auxiliary; Arabic uses only a set of phrase which does not change 'أليس كذلك؟'. This phrase is always negative; while in English the tag is negative only if the statement is positive. The dissimilarities in the way the sentences are structured in the above examples show clearly that Arab learners obviously face problems with English tags. The forms of positive and negative statements lead learners to answer with yes, when they mean no, and vice-versa.

III.2.1.5.5. Similarities and differences

1) In asking questions, English and Arabic use different procedures. While the former requires auxiliaries inverted to be placed either in the beginning of the statement or directly after interrogative pronouns; the latter uses interrogative pronouns for all types of questions inserting personal pronouns as affixes in verb-inflection system.

- 2) For yes/no questions, English uses a great number of auxiliaries; while Arabic relies on only two pronouns. The similarity is that both use the auxiliaries initially.
- 3) When asking for specific information, both English and Arabic employ nearly a similar number of interrogative pronouns which usually express the same meaning and used initially for both languages.
- 4) In asking questions, there is no inversion of word-order in Arabic, contrary to English where there is subject-auxiliary inversion.
- 5) Negative questions are initiated with auxiliary verbs in the same way for both languages; yet the subject-auxiliary inversion which exists in English does not exist in Arabic.
- 6) For both English and Arabic, tag questions are more common in colloquial spoken usage rather than written language.
- 7) In tag questions, English uses all the kind of verb and modal auxiliaries; while in Arabic the use is restricted to one and only one set of phrase.

III.2.2. Arabic / English phrases

It is known that a phrase is not a sentence because it lacks a subject and a predicate. It may consist of one or more words. Phrases in Arabic and English can be found in various expressions, idioms, greetings, and in conversations, in general. Phrases include:

III.2.2.1. Noun phrase

Like in English, the Arabic noun phrase 'الجملة الاسمية' /ʔal-djumla ʔal-ʔismiya/ starts with a noun. It may function as

a) Subject:

- 1) 'الليلة مظلمة' (noun)
'A dark **night**'
laylatun | muḏlimatun
night | dark

- 2) 'المشي يتطلب اللياقة' (gerund)
'**Running** requires diligence'
ʔalmaʃju | jataʔalab | ʔallijaqatu
running | requires | diligence

b) Object:

- 3) 'إنه يحمل الحقيبة'
'He is carrying **the bag**'
ʔinnahu | jaħmilu | ʔalḥaқи:bata
He | is carrying | the bag

c) Object of the preposition:

- 4) 'غيومٌ في السماء'
'Clouds **in the sky**'
ʔuju:mun | fi | as-sama:ʔi
Clouds | in | the sky

The examples above show that the four kinds of noun phrases are similarly structured in both languages. Learners may not find difficulties when dealing with English noun phrases.

III.2.2.1.1. Noun phrase as adjectives

In Arabic, A noun phrase may also contain a secondary noun that can function as a modifier (adjective) to qualify the principle noun called the 'head noun' .

1) 'ذاك الشرطي الضابط'

'That police **officer**'

ða:ka		ʔaʃurɬiju		ʔaɖa:biɬu
that		police		officer

The noun modifier in noun phrase can also be an adjectival phrase, a prepositional phrase or a relative clause.

2) 'الشرطي طويل القامة'

'The tall policeman'

ʔaʃurɬi:		ɬawi:lu		ʔalqa:mati
The Policeman		tall		(the height)

3) 'الرجل باللباس الأسود طبيب'

'The man **in black garment** is a doctor'

ʔaradʒulu		bi		ʔaliba:si		ʔalawadi		ɬabi:bun
The man		in		garment		black		is a doctor

4) 'هذا هو الرجل الذي أخبرني بالقصة'

'This is the man **who told me the story**'

ha:ða:		huwa		ʔaradʒulu		ʔalaði:		ʔaxbarani:		biʔalqiša
This		(he)		the man		who		told me		the story

Unlike in English, nouns in Arabic usually come before adjectives 'الخيط الأبيض' /ʔalɬajɬu ʔalʔabjaɖu/ (white thread). This sometimes results in learners' incorrect placement of nouns and adjectives in English. Except this point, words in both Arabic and English noun phrases are similarly distributed in statements (as shown in the examples above). Hence, learners may find some easiness when dealing with English noun phrases.

III.2.2.1.2. Determiners in noun phrases

A determiner is a word that is used to relate a noun to a particular context or situation. A noun phrase may consist of at least a determiner and a noun. In English a determiner may be an article (a, an, the); a quantifier (some, any, a few, many, etc); a possessive (my, your, whose, the man's, etc); a demonstrative (this, that, those, these); a numeral (one, two, etc), or a question word (what, who, how many etc). Arabic consists of two articles: 'الانكرة' /ʔanakira/ (indefinite) without any preceding 'أل' /ʔal/, and 'المعرفة' /ʔalmaʕrifa/ with the definite 'ال' preceding the noun. Other determiners include quantifiers like: 'بعض، قليل، كثير...' /baʕd, qali:l, kaθi:r.../, possessives like: 'هـ' /hu/ in 'عنده' /ʕindahu/, and 'يـ' /i/ in 'سيارتي' /ʕaja:rati:/, demonstratives like: 'هاذا، ذلك...' /ha:ða:, ða:lika.../, numerals like: 'واحد، اثنان...' /wahidun, ʔiθna:ni.../ etc.

'كثيرة الضجيج تزعج'

‘**Much noise** disturbs’

kaθratu		ʔaɖaɖʒi:dʒ		tuzʕidʒ
much		noise		disturbs

'قلم واحد يكفي للكتابة'

‘**One pen** is sufficient for writing’

qalamun		wa:ħidun		jakfi:		lilkitabati
A pen		one		sufficient		(for) writing

Because they are numerous and somehow complex in use and different from those of Arabic, some of the determiners may constitute a problem for Arab learners who, most of the time, omit

or add certain unnecessary elements in sentence structure. The problem may arise especially with possessives and quantifiers.

III.2.2.1.3. Possessive forms in noun phrases

Possessive noun phrases in Arabic are primarily built on suffixes (morphemes) in the genitive and accusative cases of personal pronouns. The two cases are identical for all personal pronouns (all end in ' /u/ 'الضمة' /ʔaḏḏamatu/, and ' /a/ 'الفتحة' /ʔalfathatu/), except for first person singular which ends in ' /i/ 'الكسرة' /ʔalkaṣratu/ (see chapter3). Arabic possessive cases find their equivalence in English possessive 'of' 'my', or genitive 's'.

1) 'هذا سقفُ المنزلِ'

'This is the roof **of the house**'

ha:ḏa:		saqfu		ʔalmanzili
this (is)		the roof of		the house

2) 'سيارةُ علي جديدة'

'**Ali's** car is new'

Ṣaja:ratu		ʕalijun		dʒadi:datun
The car of		Ali		(is) new

3) 'لبست قميصي الجديد'

'I wore **my** new **shirt**'

labistu		qami:si:		ʕaldʒadi:d
I wore		my shirt		new

Arabic and English possessive noun phrases are usually patterned in the same way, yet word suffixation in Arabic (n.+ pr.)

in the genitive and accusative cases may pose problems to learners when dealing with this language item. The different parts which form the possessive in English are separated from nouns they modify.

III.2.2.1.4. Similarities and differences

- 1) Both Arabic and English noun phrases exert the same functions: they can be used as subject, direct and indirect object, and object of the preposition.
- 2) Words in both Arabic and English noun phrases are similarly distributed, except in case of Arabic adjectives which are usually placed after nouns.
- 3) In noun phrases, English adjectives can have different positions according to their nature of type, i.e., possessive, colour, quality...
- 4) Arabic and English possessives are structured differently. The former is based on word-suffixation (according to the used personal pronoun); whereas the latter is made of separate parts that marks possession or genitive.
- 5) Determiners are not all common in both languages: demonstratives and numerals may constitute the same form; yet quantifiers and possessives may not.

III.2.2.2. Verb phrase

In Arabic, a verb phrase 'جملة فعلية' /dʒumla fiʕliya/ is a phrase that starts with a verb which can precede a noun, an adverb, a prepositional phrase followed by an object, a second verb in the imperfect form, or a clause, etc. In English, it is the part of a sentence that contains the main verb followed by the rest of sentence components. This is sometimes called the predicate which

can be a direct, indirect object, or a complement, and all provide information about the action (verb) in the sentence.

1) أراك فيما بعد '1)

'See you later'

ʕaraka		fi:ma: baʕd
See you		later

2) يكتب باليد اليسرى '2)

'He writes with the left hand'

jaktubu		biljadi		ljusra:
(He) writes		with hand		left

3) بدأ يعمل في البستان '3)

'He started working in the garden'

badaʔa		jaʕmalu		fi		ʔalbusta:ni
(He) started		working		in		the field

The four examples illustrate some constructions of verb phases in both Arabic and English. Both of them start with a verb that can be followed by another verb, a noun, a pronoun, an adverb, a prepositional phrase, a complement, a direct or indirect object or even a clause. The distribution of words is nearly the same with a small difference at the level of word inversion in English noun/adjective. The meaning of these verb phrases remains the same and; thus no big difficulties can be faced by learners of English.

III.2.2.2.1. Arabic/English Verb inflection

Verbs in English are inflected only in the third person singular in the present tense different forms; contrary to Arabic where they are inflected with all personal pronouns and in all tenses. This may touch singular, dual and plural forms; while in English the dual is considered as plural. (See table in chapter 3, p27).

1) 'يَنْظِفُ عَلِيُّ الزُّجَاجَ'

'Ali is cleaning the glass'

junadifu		ʕalijun		ʔa-zudʒa:dʒa
cleans		Ali		the glass

2) 'هُنَّ تَرْتَدِينُ اللِّبَاسَ التَّقْلِيدِي'

'They wear traditional garment'

Huna		jartadi:na		liba:s		taqli:di:
They		wear		garment		traditional

As shown in the examples above, Arabic verb includes the affixes denoting tense, person, gender and number, contrary to English verb which has its inflection (verb + suffix) only in the simple present tense with the third person singular. This might be very confusing to learners, since both verb inflection systems are different.

III.2.2.2.2. Arabic/English passive forms

Similar to English, the principle voices in Arabic are: active 'المبني للمعلوم' /ʔalmabni: lilmaʕlu:m/ and passive 'المبني للمجهول' /ʔalmabni: lilmadʒhu:l/ which are merely two forms of the same verb. In the active form, the verb is the agent, i.e., performer

of the act; and in the passive form, the subject is the recipient of the action. In English, voice is shown by the use of the auxiliary 'to be' and the past participle of the verb followed by the rest of the sentence.

In Arabic, the passive voice is indicated by internal vowel change immediately after the initial consonant in the verb; it is the ' ' ' /ʔu/ vowel used in all tenses. For example the verb 'ضَرَبَ' 'ḍaraba' (hit), in the past, would have the following transformation from active to passive:

1) ضُرِبَتِ الكُرَّةُ مِنْ طَرَفِهِ

'The ball **was hit** (by him)'

ḍuribat	ʔal-kuratu	min ṭarafihi
was hit	the ball	by him

In the present, a passive tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person, masculine or feminine singular or plural base form. This includes the 'تُ' /t/, 'يُ' /j/ + /u/ (see chapter 3 p), as in:

2) يُصْنَعُ الفَخَّارُ بِالْيَدِ

'Poetry **is made** by hand'

juṣnaʕu	ʔalfaḫa:ru	biljadi
(is) made	poetry	by hand

3) تُصْنَعُ القَارُورَاتُ مِنَ الزَّجَاجِ

'Bottles **are made** from glass'

tuṣnaʕu	ʔaqaru:ratu	mina	ʔazudʒa:dʒi
(are) made	bottles	from	glass

In Arabic passive construction, the main verb is kept initially in the sentence with a change in the 'voweling' system, in English they are initiated with nouns or pronouns. The passive voice is used less frequently in Arabic writing than in English, and hardly at all in every day speech. This may be the cause of learners' wrong constructions of passive sentence.

III.2.2.2.3. Similarities and differences

- 1) Arabic verbs come from the three or more word root which would communicate the basic meaning of the verb.
- 2) It is the affixes that would specify grammatical functions such as person, gender, number, tense, mood, and voice.
- 3) English verb inflectional system includes tense where the verb is inflected in the third person of the present simple tense only.
- 4) Thus, Arabic seems to be more detailed than English in terms of its forms in number and person.
- 5) The verb phrase in the Arabic passive starts initially in the sentence; whereas the one of English starts after the subject.
- 6) In the Arabic present, a passive tense-aspect prefix is added to denote the third person, masculine or feminine singular or plural base form, contrary to English in which the auxiliary 'be in the present' precedes the past participle.
- 7) In the Arabic past, a passive tense-aspect vowel ' ' /u/ is added to denote all personal pronouns; yet in English, the auxiliary 'be in the past' is used to do this function.
- 8) Contrary to its use in English, Arabic passive is rarely used, mainly in people's daily conversation.

III.2.2.3. Adverb phrase

In Arabic, like in English, an adverb phrase is a phrase that starts with an adverb, or a prepositional phrase functioning as adverb to modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a simple sentence or a clause to show time, manner, place, degree etc. Its adverbial function is the same for both languages.

III.2.2.3.1. Adverb phrase of place

Adverbial phrase of place is a group of words that play the role of an adverb and answers the question 'أين؟' /ʔajna/ 'Where?' It can also be made by a prepositional phrase. For example:

1) 'تسلق إلى أعلى قمة في الجبل'

'He climbed **to the highest peak in the mountain**'

tasalaqa		ʔila:		ʔaʕla:		qimatin		fi		ʔaldʒabal
(He) climbed		to		highest		peak		in		the mountain

'بقينا هناك لمدة طويلة'

2)

'We remained **therefor a long time.**'

baqi:na		hunaka		limudatin		ʔawi:latin
(We) remained		there		for time		along

III.2.2.3.2. Adverb phrase of manner

Adverbial phrase of manner answers the question 'كيف؟' /kajfa/ 'How?' and is generally formed by a prepositional phrase

that contains a preposition and a noun which is sometimes preceded by its article. For example:

1) 'ساق سيارته بسرعة كبيرة'

He drove his car **with high speed**'

sa:qa		saja:ratahu		bi		surʕati:		kabi:ratin
(He) drove		his car		with		speed		high

2) 'ذهب إلى بلد أجنبي'

'He has gone **to a foreign country**'

ḏahaba		ʔila		baladinin		ʔadʒnabi:
He has gone		to		country		foreign

III.2.2.3.3. Adverb phrase of time

Adverbial phrase of time answers the question 'متى؟' /mata:/ 'when?' and generally constitute a preposition with its object.

1) 'لم أراه منذ يوم أمس'

'I haven't seen him **since yesterday**'

lam		ʔara:hu		munḏu		jawma ʔamsin
(not)		I seen him		since		yesterday

2) 'التقينا في المساء'

'We met **in the evening**'

ʔiltaqajna:		fi		-lmasaʔi
We met		in		the evening

III.2.2.3.4. Adverb phrase of purpose

Adverbial phrase of purpose answers the question 'لماذا؟' /lima: ða:/ and constitutes a prepositional phrase containing an infinitive with its object.

'يعمل بجد لينجح في الامتحان' (4)

'He is working hard to succeed in the exam'

jaʕmalu		bidʒid		lijandʒaħa		fi:		limtiħa:n
He works		hard		to succeed		in		the exam

The four examples above show that the construction of 'شبه الجمل' /ʃibh dʒuml/ (prepositional phrases) in adverbial cases are the same in both languages. All phrases are usually formed with a preposition and its object, and are distributed in the same way, providing the same meaning. This may help learners not to make errors with English adverbial phrases.

III.2.2.3.5. Similarities and differences

- 1) In both Arabic and English adverbial phrases modify the same parts of speech.
- 2) These adverbial phrases are formed similarly with a preposition, and its object: Arabic 'في المساء' /fi- lmasa:aʔi/ (prep.+ noun) is similarly distributed with the English 'in the evening' (prep.+ noun).
- 3) The sole problem that remains in adverbial phrases is difference at the level of word- inversion in Arabic and English noun/adjective.

III.2.2.4. Adjective phrase

An adjective phrase is a group of words that start with an adjective, prepositional phrase, participial phrase, or an infinitive phrase and is used to modify and qualify a noun or a pronoun. In Arabic, the nouns which the adjectives modify can be either defined using the definite article prefix 'أل' /ʔal/ (the) or undefined (with no article). Similarly, in English the nouns can be either defined with 'the' or undefined with 'a' or 'an'. An adjective phrase can function either attributively (it appears inside the noun it modifies) or predicatively (outside the noun phrase it modifies).

1) يعيش في بيت مبني من الحجارة'

'He lived in a house built in stone'

jaʕi:ʃu		fi:		bajtin		mabni:		mina		lhidʒa:rati
He lived		in		a house		built		in		stone

2) هذا الرجل له ثراء كبير'

'This man is of great wealth'

ha:ða:		ʔaradʒulu		lahu		θaraʔun		kabi:r
This		(the) man		has		wealth		great

3) الرجل الماشي في الطريق أخي'

'The man walking in the street is my brother'

ʔaradʒulu		ʔalma:ʃi		fi		ʔaṭari:q		ʔaxi
the man		walking		in		the street		(is) my brother

As shown in the examples above, the three phrases in bald type modify the underlined nouns. In both languages, the adjective

phrases 'نعت' /naʕt/ (eg. 1& 2), or participial phrase 'اسم فاعل' /ʔism ʔa-fa:ʔil/ (eg. 3) which function as adjectives are structured nearly in the same way. This will facilitate learners' acquisition of English adjective phrases.

III.2.2.5. Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase is the part of the sentence that includes a preposition, and the object it refers to. In English, the object is usually a noun, a pronoun, a gerund or even a noun clause, and is referred to as the object of the preposition. In Arabic, like in English the prepositional phrase 'شبه الجملة' /ʃibhi ʔaldʒumla/ has the same modifying functions. It can be used as an adjective or an adverb. For example:

1) 'ذلك الكتاب فوق الطاولة مهم جدا'

'That book on the table is very interesting'

ḏa:lika		ʔalkita:bu		fawqa		ʔaṭa:wilati		muhimun
That		book		on		the table		(is) interesting

2) 'تحدثت إليه بصوت منخفض'

'She spoke to him in a low voice'

taḥadaṭat		ʔilajhi		bi		ṣawtin		munḫafid
She spoke		to him		in		a voice		low

Prepositional phrase, as shown in the examples, are likely to be arranged in the same way in both Arabic and in English, yet the big number of prepositions and their resemblance in meaning and use

in both languages stand as a big hindrance toward learning this language item. Learners' strategy is to translate L1 prepositional phrase to L2 and since the meaning of the preposition change in context, big errors would emerge.

III.2.2.6. Similarities and differences

- 1) Adjective phrases and prepositional phrases function as modifiers in both Arabic and English.
- 2) In both Arabic and English, adjective phrases have similar forms (مبنی / built), (من الحجارة / in stone) in both prepositional and participial phrases. They are also similarly distributed and share the same meaning in the sentence. However, the infinitive phrase in Arabic is less used than the one of English.
- 3) The modified noun can be defined or undefined in both languages.
- 4) In Arabic, the adjective agrees with the noun it modifies in gender, number and state, contrary to English in which there is no sort of agreement.
- 5) In English, an adjective phrase can function either attributively or predicatively. In Arabic, however, it is used in the predication.
- 6) Prepositional phrases have the same functions in both Arabic and English. They express the same meaning and are similarly distributed in sentences.
- 7) Contrary to the case of adjective phrases, which are used predicatively only in Arabic, prepositional phrases can be used predicatively and attributively in both languages.

8) Prepositions in prepositional phrases may not have the exact meaning in both Arabic and English. This can usually be the source of learners' errors in writing.

Conclusion

Chapter three includes a contrastive study of syntactic structures of Arabic and English. Main sentence patterns in the different sentence types in both Arabic and English are compared according to the different parts of speech that constitute the minimal sentence elements. Some negative and interrogative sentences are analyzed with a focus on the use and placement of the different auxiliaries and interrogative pronouns. All types of phrases are also examined and compared according to their use in the system of both languages. The comparison is made on the basis of taking into account whether the language items compared in both languages are similar in form, indicate the same meaning, and are similarly distributed in sentences.

According to this study which includes a comparison of Arabic and English syntactic systems, most of the elements seen above show that there are certain points that differ significantly in form rather than in meaning and distribution of syntactic structures. The form includes, especially Arabic/English word inflection which differs greatly, and may represent a big source of learners' errors. Those structures that are similar will be easy to learn and may function satisfactorily in the foreign language, contrary to those which are different.

CHAPTER

FOUR

Chapter IV: Socio-Cultural Context in EFL Writing

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IV.10. Socio-cultural Phenomenon in Classroom Discourse

Conclusion

“Language is the principal means whereby we conduct our social lives. When it is issued in contexts of communication it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways.”

(Kramsch 1998: 3)

Introduction:

Language is the most outstanding medium through which human beings establish contacts whatever the distance that may exist between them. Learning, understanding and mastering a foreign language is becoming a target for all governments, educators and learners to achieve. However, each language is characterized by its specific norms in writing as well as in speech and is shaped and socialized through the culture of its people. It means that each language has its own cultural features. The problem arises when learners make efforts to acquire new habits and behaviour of the foreign language, and in the same time they use the background of their native language habits. Foreign language learners, who have been socialized into the schematic knowledge of their mother tongue, undergo a substantive degree of conflict as soon as they are initiated to learn the FL. This new language makes learners' pre-requisite knowledge subjected to a new cultural reality whose organization is completely different, and thus, it becomes difficult or, sometimes, impossible to achieve. Learners' speaking and writing abilities reach certain deficiency as a result of their limited exposure to the target language. Understanding words to grasp the ideas of texts and attempting to use them orally or in writing to express their thoughts also becomes a major obstacle which confronts them because of the context of the situation in which these words are used. These words

express facts and ideas that can be well communicated only among the native speakers who share the same stock of knowledge. Foreign learners, lacking the native speakers' intuitive knowledge, attempt to achieve the same thing, yet they usually acquire only some of the explicit rules of language such as grammar to produce grammatically correct sentences. However, to know a language does not mean to perform this task only. It means to be able to use it effectively in social situations, matching it to their context.

Chapter Five is about context in FL learning, in general, and writing in particular. It deals with points like nature of writing, L1 use in L2 writing, context of culture affecting students' acquisition of L2 writing, students background knowledge, as well as L1 context in L2 acquisition. All these points fall together to provide an answer to whether or not L1 socio-cultural context where students learn L2 has negative effects on their writing performance.

IV.1. Nature of Writing

Writing is a second medium with which humans communicate. It is generally made with the inscription or recording signs and symbols. Writing is considered as a complement to speech, yet it tends to be more complex with longer and more organized sentence structures based on formal use of vocabulary, grammatical constructions with connecting words, punctuation and lay out of written texts. It is the process through which alphabetical letters are used to communicate thoughts in a prepared form. This can be made using a pen, or a keyboard attached to a typewriter, a computer or a mobile phone. One can write for one's own desire, to send a personal letter, stimulate the feeling of an audience, and anticipate a reader's need. Ramelon (1992: 9) insists on the

importance of writing as part of one's culture, as it is done on the purpose of preserving thought and ideas. Writing systems can be functional in terms of its visual way to represent language and symbols in terms of representing cultures and peoples (S. Roger 2001:12). Coulmas provides the following definition:

“Writing systems are a set of visible or tactile signs used to represent units of language in a systematic way, with the purpose of recording messages which can be retrieved by everyone who knows the language in question and the rules by virtue of which its units are encoded in the writing system.”

(1999: 560)

However, for S. Roger (2001: 28) these writing systems “cannot be defined by only one definition, and that they must be used for communication purposes.”

Writing emerged with the emergence of human societies. Its development has been instrumental, i.e., to record past events as well as the memory, discovery, collection and interpretation of what happened through history. It has always been an important medium of expression for politicians, poets, writers and the like. Texts, as being the result of writing are used in all administrations, whether civil or military, and in all domains such as the media for daily news. Wells argues that “*it makes a continuous historical consciousness possible.*” (1922:41)

When one writes, his focus is put primarily on his thoughts and emotions so as to attract the reader's attention and make him grasp what he aims to say. The audience should be hypothesized or imagined in his mind. It is very important to think carefully to or for whom one writes taking into account the purpose, situation and occasion. This should normally be done in a neat, careful and organized way according to the rules of writing styles.

IV.2. Effective Writing

Effective writing is writing whose ideas are organized in a cohesive way as the case for the correct link between sentences and paragraphs. When language is used effectively it can be easy to follow and maintain the reader's interest in reading the whole part of text. However it is sometimes difficult to write in a foreign language. The tracking of a developing language that is rich, diverse and constantly evolving in use and meaning is a continuous process of experiences. In EFL writing, style and strategies differ across individuals:

IV.2.1. Process

Researchers' first attempts to understand what is now called the writing process began in the early 1970s. The process of writing is a natural set of steps that writers take to create a finished piece of work. It is a process of organizing ideas and creativity through text (Craig 2015:1). Writing is the thinker's way of exploring the world. Writers explore topics and approaches to topics when they make notes, start lists, generate outlines, write journal entries, and compose rough drafts (Fulwiler 1988:16). The main focus of writing is on the process itself and not on the final product. Thus, all what is recommended is that writers should develop an authentic creative work based on critical thinking decisions about both the audience and purpose. Therefore, they should consider the different steps of writing process.

IV.2.1.1. Prewriting

The pre-writing stage, also known as brainstorming stage is the first preliminary stage of any writing process. It includes all

things that one prepares before he sets about to write any kind of text. The writer tries to generate and develop ideas about a chosen topic. This may concern written notes or an outline where ideas can be organized according to their expected occurrence in the text. Vinetta maintains that:

“most emerging writers, however, need to record their pre-writing ideas in permanent form so that those ideas can clearly inform and guide the thinking and writing process, resulting in a coherent, well-organized product text.”

(2012: 2)

Linguists, such as (Forgiel, 1985 & Brown, 2000) see the pre-writing phase as a crucial part of the entire process where one must ask himself questions such as “*What shall I write?*” , “*What do I want to write about it?*”, “ *To whom do I want to write?*” “*Have I succeeded in selecting the exact words to express what I want to say?*” These questions which concern the topic or theme as well as the purpose of writing may eventually lead to a successful product that can be well-evaluated.

IV.2.1.2. Drafting

Drafting is the preparatory stage of any piece of written work. It is meant to develop the ideas that have been organized in an outline created in the first stage of the writing process to reach a more cohesive production. In this stage, the writer develops text based on cohesion, organizes his ideas and explains them through examples.

Drafting is a crucial part in the success of any paper. If it is laid on fundamental work, the writing will be neat, rich and successful. Conversely, if drafting is not based on a solid framework, no one can guarantee to attain the expected objectives. Thus, drafting should be seen as a part of responsible successful writing. It may be the longest stage in writing process. It takes time, mainly because it needs to be revised so as to lead to a more glorious version of a final draft. It should also be concise and precise to explain what it means in terms of an actual piece of writing.

IV.2.1.3. Revising

In a writing process, revising is the rearrangement of the elements fully or totally completed in a written work so that it becomes aligned with the writer's planned target.

Successive revision of the previous notes enables writers to add what they find necessary and omit what they think is inadequate to fulfill the purpose of the final draft. During the revising stage, those ambiguous images become clear as soon as some corrections are made at the level of the flow of texts. One may proceed either by substituting some words for others or displacing the position of certain sentences or adding connectors that help to avoid different kinds of repetitions, vagueness and inappropriateness.

The ultimate procedure of revising stage will turn the ill-performed image into an acceptable if not a beautiful work of art with controlling thoughts and well-expressed emotions. Thus, revising is required to clearly articulate ideas and meet the expectations of the audience. Effective and successful writing is the feedback of a careful revision.

IV.2.1.4. Editing

Editing is the stage in which the content of a piece of writing is checked for accuracy. It involves the identification and correction of factual errors such as grammar, spelling, capitalization and punctuation. It may also include deletion of certain elements or rectification of previous omissions in the written document. This stage is characterized by ‘accuracy’ as a chief concern. “*The reliability of the finished text depends upon accuracy in the researching and writing process.*” (Venitta, B. (Ibid).

Editing, which is distinct from revising should not be seen as a negative task since all what a writer deals with at this stage is logical. It is logical and even beneficial to edit the performed work two or more times before composing a final copy of the product. At this stage, one should diagnose if each sentence, phrase or word is made as adequate enough to the written text as possible.

IV.2.1.5. Publishing

Publishing is considered as the final step of the writing process. This comes after the realization of all stages needed for a complete piece of writing. No adjustment is done at the level of text which should be ready for publication. What remains is to release it to the public to read. Ways of publishing may include a paper given to a teacher for correction, writing for school magazine, sending a letter to an editor, posting a piece of writing on the internet, submitting a research work to a local or international magazine... It is worth mentioning that not all pieces

of writing are published once they are sent to the publishing place. One may write several pieces before he gets his first piece published, yet he has nothing to lose since all his attempts in writing contribute to his development as a writer.

IV.2.2. Style

In language learning, style is grossly defined as the way the writer uses words, their choice and arrangement to establish mood, images and meaning in texts, the combination of sentences, as well as figurative language. An example of style is the fashion style, such as clothes which can be formal and dressy, informal and casual, preppy, athletic, and so forth. By analogy, the information underneath is like the person's body, and the specific words, structures, and arrangements that are used are like the clothes. Just we can dress one person in several different fashions, we can dress a single message in several different literary styles (NCTE IRA: 2003: 1). Brown maintains that:

“styles are those general characteristics of intellectual functioning that pertain to you as an individual, and that differentiate you from someone else.”

(2000: 113)

Style can vary from person to person, from language to language and from one context to another. What may work for a language may not work well in another, because each language is characterized by its own overall style. Its use is influenced by the way facts are interpreted; the degree of formality and how the setting and characters are presented. An example on that is the different uses of the word 'died' in different writers' style:

He's passed away
He's sleeping with the fishes
He died
He's gone to meet his maker
He kicked the bucket (NCTE, IRA: Ibid)

Each of the sentences is used with a different style according to the situation, occasion, writer and the person being addressed. Among the different elements of style, two are considered as the most important of all of them:

IV.2.2.1. Word Choice

Whether one writes a letter, a paper, or a thesis, he has to build his work on word-choice to express the different ideas through a careful arrangement of these words into sentences and paragraphs. Fulwiler T. says that:

“all writing, whether started early or late, teacher-assigned or self-assigned, involves making choices_an infinite number of choices_about topics, approaches, stances, claims, evidence, order words, sentences, paragraphs, tone, voice, style, titles, beginnings, middles, endings, what to include, what to omit, and the list goes on.”

(1988: 3)

Finding the exact words to convey the meaning that the writer wants to transmit to the reader may be challenging. Writers differ in choosing words: there are those who are concise and precise and choose words with greater clarity, and according to the appropriate context they are used in. There are words with their own connotation, so writers weed out all words they find unsuitable to convey meaning. Others use vague, awkward or unclear words.

They may cause certain troubles or reluctance to the reader who may not grasp or visualize well all what is written. What is of much importance is not only to make the reader as an audience to grasp the sense of what is written, but what sounds best to him. Thus, all consideration should be given to the choice of words to communicate information clearly and convincingly as expected by this audience. This is normally what is used in academic writing.

However, the problem does not concern word choice to cause awkwardness, vagueness, or those which concern clarity. Most of the time, there are words or sentences that are grammatically incorrect; i.e., the way words are put together to form correct and meaningful sentences. For example, when one writes “*Waiting for a quick reply, accept my best wishes...*” This sentence is not difficult to understand since all chosen words are clear for anyone to understand; yet the classification of words is grammatically incorrect. The reader will expect that the word ‘waiting’ as a **gerund** refers to the subject ‘I’ (the pronoun that follows in the second sentence) and not on omitted ‘you’.

If a writer has a sentence marked for unclear, vague or awkward, he should also check the word choice from a grammatical perspective because unfamiliar word structures would also result in ambiguity. The choice of words also concerns the use of ‘repetition’ which can be either ‘good’ using terms necessary in the clarification of meaning or ‘bad’ repetition that can be redundant causing clumsy forms and reluctance to the audience.

IV.2.2.2. Sentence Fluency

In any piece of writing, sentence fluency represents the writing that should sound natural to any reader. The flow of words

in phrases that form longer sentences from the beginning of the text to the end represents the single complete thought the writer expresses, and which the reader tries to understand. Sentence fluency differs according to different writers' strategies. Within correct sentences, there are some which sound better than the others. These sentences may be long, yet well structured and based on a certain rhythm to achieve positive effects on the part of the reader. Writers usually use either long or short sentences depending on what they find more adequate to the aim of writing. The focus is put on which would suit better the reader's comprehension. Chris M. and Schwelger R. give two examples of correct sentences; one is clearer to the reader than the other:

- Under the present conditions of our society, marriage practices generally demonstrate a high degree of homogeneity.
- In our culture, people tend to marry others who are like themselves.

(2001: 452)

Linguists agree upon the fact that good writers are those who give great care in arranging their ideas according to the rules governing writing styles, composition and written expression, in general. They avoid loose sentences, delete extraneous words, use punctuation appropriately, delete redundancies, and make vague words more specific (Chris M. and Schwelger R. Ibid). This would result in a more readable style. This means that these writers give great importance to what makes sense and sounds best to their readers. This would help them make correct decisions about the

best way to communicate their ideas and thought through arguments or information introduced in a clear and plain manner.

IV.2.2.3. Voice

The voice is the relationship between what the writer writes and what the reader reads, feels, responds, and wants more from the part of the writer. It is personal, which means that every writer has his/her own imprint on the page with a different energy, individuality and zest. The voice is an important element in writing. It differs according to the purpose of writing and to whom one is writing. Through voice a writer can express his original thoughts and personal feelings as well as the way he/she sees things and the manner he/she interprets them. The writer tries to put him/herself into the words s/he is using paying great attention to the sense expressed by the message.

Whether it concerns a letter, a short story or a novel, the voice should be unique and authentic, although a writer may sometimes borrow some writing hints from other writers. By unique, it is meant that words should be put together to have a unique sensibility, a different way of looking at the world, a perspective that would surely enrich an author's work.

IV.2.2.4. Conventions

Conventions often deal with the elements of writing such as spelling, grammar usage, punctuation, capitalization and paragraphing. Correct spelling and capitalization, good use of punctuation marks, correct verb tense, use of sentences that

express complete thought and organized paragraphs have great effects on the reader in enhancing his curiosity to read more and more, i.e., the reader tries to figure out what the writer is trying to say. With this set of generally accepted standards of written language, writers can make their work more readable. Kim Kautzer (2010:1) gives examples of different kinds of writing. He says that each has its own convention:

** Narrative writing must have characters, setting, and plot.*

** Descriptive writing must appeal to the senses through use of vivid, colorful, precise vocabulary.*

** Expository writing must inform, clarify, explain, define, or instruct.*

** Persuasive writing must present an argument based on facts and logic, and attempt to sway the reader's opinion.*

Conventions in writing are “*agreements between people in a society as to how written communication will be interpreted when it is read*” (Peha 2012: 2). The rules may change depending on who is writing to whom, yet the degree of correctness within these conventions is to be examined by readers or even writers themselves.

IV.2.2.5. Organization

Organization is the inner structure of any piece of writing that leads to a good comprehension the written material as well as a better understanding of what is beyond a writer's message. Several types are to be considered in the organization of a text.

Some of which include “*chronological order, order of importance, compare and contrast, and cause and effect.*” (Janovsky A. 2013: 4). This is to answer questions such as ‘*From where I can start?*’, ‘*What comes next?*’, ‘*What can go together?*’, ‘*Which can be left out?*’, ‘*How can I join the ideas together?*’

IV.2.2.5.1. Chronological Order

By chronological order it is meant order of time. This means that a piece of writing like a novel or short story has a specific timeline, and thus it is written in chronological order. Stories have a specific beginning, middle and end through which a sequence of events that are easy to follow because they remain in an order of time.

IV.2.2.5.2. Order of Importance

This type of organizational pattern determines the ideas and how they are put in order in writing. Ideas are put in sequence according to their degree of importance, i.e., the most important is put first followed by second most important and so forth. This pattern is usually found in essays which deal with only one topic with supporting details.

IV.2.2.5.3. Compare and Contrast

In writing, compare and contrast describe the similarities and the differences between the two objects or ideas. When any writer deals with two things or objects, s/he will obviously give a comparison of the two to show how they are alike or how they are

different. This pattern is usually used in nonfiction works that concentrate on two ideas within the same subject.

IV.2.2.5.4. Cause and Effect

Cause and effect pattern is considered as the most difficult to identify for the simple reason that cause and effect are used in any type of writing, but which cannot enter in the organizational system of that piece of writing. In writing, Janovsky A. defines a cause is as:

“any event that effects a situation; an effect, however, is what happens due to that event. Thus, the cause is the occurrence; the effect is the result”

(Janovsky A. 2013: 4)

IV.2.3. Strategies

Writing strategies are ways of thinking about any writing genres. Nearly each type of writing needs a form of a particular strategy to control the writing process in producing the desired quality. It can be a formal plan to write an essay, a short story, a book or anything-else. These strategies are used to control the written production and to find possible remedies to problems while writing. *“Strategic writing is a thinking procedure for producing writing (the cognition), or for controlling production”* (Calhoun & Hale 2003: 121). The techniques used by writers allow them to discover their own ideas through a strategic methodology to create possible ways for a successful and creative writing.

IV.3. Teaching Writing at University

It is widely accepted that writing in English is becoming a medium of international communication. As such, it is used by millions of native and non-native speakers to communicate with each other. The need to use writing properly with some degree of sophistication is felt among EFL professionals who see it suitable to explore different domains mainly those which concern science and technology. It is crucial in promoting studying abroad, international business, tourism, entertainment, scientific research, politics and so forth. Bjork and Raisanen say that

“We highlight the importance of writing in all university curricula not only because of its immediate practical application, i.e., as an isolated skill or ability, but because we believe that, seen from a broader perspective, writing is a thinking tool. It is a tool for language development, for critical thinking and, extension, for learning in all disciplines”.

(1997: 8)

For this reason, the study of writing has always been compulsory for all students, mainly those studying English for academic purposes. Writing is part of the university curriculum taught according to each subject of study. This learning skill differs from one branch to another, and the time devoted to it is seen as a factor of success or failure to reach the drawn objectives.

EFL students find it a necessity to learn to write in this language to communicate with people from different backgrounds and for different purposes, yet the task is not easy because

different obstacles confront both teachers and students' will to reach their objectives. According to some educators, as mentioned before, the efforts made so far have not brought successful results.

Contrary to the teaching of other skills, writing may need more efforts from the part of both teachers and students; relatively more demanding than the other skills. In teaching writing more focus should not only be put on grammar and vocabulary, but on the socio-cultural context of words as well. This means that students should be initiated to the socio-cultural meaning of English words and expressions which are different from the ones of the mother tongue, i.e., they are learning in the classroom (a social and linguistic reality that differs enormously from the ones of the students' environment). In this vein, Thanasoulas maintains that:

“...foreign language learning has a significant impact on the social being of the learner, since it involves the adoption of new social and cultural behaviours and ways of thinking.”

(2002: 7)

This new social and cultural behaviour may pose certain problems to students who very often feel a sense of anxiety to learn to write in an environment which is far from being supportive.

IV.3.1. Students' Attitude towards Writing

At university level, writing is learnt only in the classroom context, and the environment outside, as mentioned earlier, does not help since all what concerns writing consists of those activities given by teachers as homework. Students are of two kinds:

a) Those who tend to underrate themselves and think that they know less than what is usually required. Also, they are not aware of the importance of English writings, mainly because they think that speaking in English is much better than writing which has no special standing. They consider that writing in this language is not needed in this society which uses French and Arabic in different domains.

b) The second kind of students are those who give much importance to the writing skill because they are aware of the role it plays among all other learning skills. These students believe that if they master this skill, they will easily communicate with other people around the globe, or even get a job which requires those who can write correctly in English. Thus, they admit that the acquisition of English language cannot be devoid of the writing skill. This positive attitude strengthens their will to learn to write in a good way.

IV.3.2. Context of Classroom Writing

The classroom is the only place where most of the Algerian students perceive writing lessons under the teacher's guidance through different methodologies to fulfill precise activities. The

teacher is viewed as having complete authority over the use of the material designed for teaching. Lack of experience may often restrict both the teacher's innovation and the learner's response. Moreover the perennial oversized classes often minimize the students-teacher interaction, prevent teacher's surveillance of individual performance and discourage independent thinking. Consequently, the teacher cannot assume students' creative response to work.

In official meetings, teachers very often complain about the over-crowded classrooms which usually exceed 45 students in number. In spite of this, the classroom is considered as a suitable place to learn to write and a small world of social relations in which the needs for learning are found. However, Ellis insists on the role classroom plays in students' different writings, he says:

“The classroom context in which learners learn a language affords ample opportunities for natural language use. It enables them to develop a basic ability to perform requests using target language forms. In addition, it proved sufficient to motivate the acquisition of a variety of linguistic exponents for encoding requests, thus affording the learners some degree of choice in the realization of their requests.”

(1997: 20-21)

The classroom is, thus a place for guided writing through which nearly all activities are under teacher's control. Fixed patterns are manipulated and learnt by imitation and repetition. Students use the patterns, words and expressions the teacher usually gives so as to reinforce and complete their work. Students' free performance and creative endeavours are sometimes neglected. However, this controlled writing has been criticized by some

linguists such as Pincas who questions controlled composition for the simplest reason that *‘writing is restricted to the teacher who focuses solely on formal linguistic features, neglecting the quality of ideas, and the organisation of content.’* (1962: 196). The stretch of written language students produce should take into account context. This is usually absent nearly in all their written tasks.

IV.4. Use of L1 Context in L2 Writing

It is widely known that foreign language learning is influenced to a great extent by learners’ L1. The foreign accent that takes place at the level of the learners’ speech of L2 is often an indicator of the strong influence of L1 over L2. This is felt among most of the Algerian EFL students who use an Arabic accent when communicating in English. English speakers of French also tend to have an English accent when articulating French words.

By and large, and because of the enormous differences that may exist between languages, students’ L1 does not only affect L2 pronunciation, but also its vocabulary and grammar writing. The input of L1 system on L2 system may cover all the stages of students’ acquisition of L2. It means that whatever the level they reach, they cannot avoid the close contact of L1 and L2. Marton (1981:150 in Ellis) maintains that

“...we can say that there is never peaceful co-existence between two language systems in the learner, but rather constant warfare, and that warfare is not limited to the moment of cognition but continues during the period of storing newly learnt ideas in memory.”

(1991:19)

Today, with the new approaches and techniques, L1 is not very much suggested in teaching writing. Teachers very often use it in the explanation of different points of grammar or to illustrate certain testing activities. However, problems remain at the level of vocabulary usage. Most of the time learners do not know the exact signification of words and use them inappropriately, because there are some words which are culture-bound and, thus need much attention in their use. However, L1 is sometimes suggested by some linguists to solve the problem of comprehension. Silvia (1988: 9) suggests that *“it is no longer forbidden to use the students’ native language as a source in order to facilitate foreign language acquisition.”*

The use of L1 in L2 classes is not possible when the mother tongue of students and teacher differ. When L1 is common, as it is the case for the Algerians, it can sometimes be utilized as an effective tool in writing instructions.

IV.5. Context in EFL Writing

Hymes establishes as a rule:

“The key to understanding language in context is to start not with language, but with context.”

(1972: XIX)

Any language is learnt through context. When a child starts gradually learning the words of his mother tongue in the daily activities, he learns them in all contexts. When playing with a ball, for instance, he learns the words and expressions such as ‘ball’,

‘kick’ , ‘throw’ , ‘shoot’ , ‘goal’ ‘lend me the ball’ , ‘I’ve scored a goal’ and so on. In the mean time he knows that the same word can be associated with different contexts and different types of events. The child will practice the same word on different expressions. Thus, he uses the word ‘open’ in ‘open the door’, ‘open the book’, ‘open the drawer’, ‘open the tap’, and will one day use the expression ‘open a bank account’. It means that as he learns more expressions, he acquires the language that describes these experiences, (Dorre 1985).

In learning a foreign language, one uses the experiences of context he has acquired from his mother tongue so as to understand it. The more he knows about the different situations, the more he uses them to learn the target language. At school, for example, learners are often taught new vocabulary items with no or little regard to context. It means that they are habituated to what Alder and Van Doren (1972:128) call the ‘*vice of verbalism*’, i.e. they tend to use words without taking into account the experiences to which they should refer. This is a serious problem that may lead to both a slow acquisition and to a wrong use of the language in question.

Our experiences are classified in terms of existing words or expressions. Individuals face problems with how to use words to have new meanings. For example, the English word ‘abortion’ means a type of ‘murder’ to one individual and not to another. This means that a sentence containing that word will be about a type of murder in the understanding of one but not of the other. Most of the time there is a risk of misunderstanding when attempting to communicate. When native speakers use the language, they think with the knowledge shared by the whole speech community including the stock of metaphors and the socio-cultural experience they have acquired along the years. This creates a sort of hindrance

for foreign learners to communicate with the natives because they lack both the linguistic experience and the knowledge which the natives use when speaking. Saville-Troike (1992 quoted in Kramersch) says that:

“Even if they have mastered the forms of the new language, they might still have difficulty in meeting the social expectations of speakers from the new speech community.”

(1993: 43)

Accordingly, how can learners be initiated into the social and cultural expectations of the new language?

Context is crucial for the understanding of the language in question, for it is the element that provides cues which make the meanings of the words clear. Thus, one should not only learn to understand the sound segments, the word forms, the sentence structures of the foreign language, but importantly how he interacts with context to get the possible meaning. Kramersch (1993: 43) states the example of the beginner students of German who are preparing a fictitious role play. One student turns to the teacher for help.

“ S: How do you say ‘leave’?”

T: It depends; it could be ‘weggehen’ or lassen’. ‘What’s the context?’

S: ‘Leave the children’.

T: Well...’lassen’, but it depends on the rest of the sentence.

S: ‘Leave the children in the woods’.

T: Ah, then it might be ‘verlassen’. Who says that to whom?

S: I’m the mother and I say to the father: ‘You should leave children in the woods’.

T: So, you would use the second personal singular, familiar form.

S: And 'should'? 'dumubt' or 'du sollst?'

T: Ah well...that depends...

(1993: 34)

This example shows that there are several ways of looking at a situation of communication according to the linguistic form of the elements that ensure the text cohesion and which is determined by the internal context of utterance constituted, according to Lyons:

“by all the factors which, by virtue of their of their influence upon the participants in a language event, systematically determine the form, the appropriacy and the meaning of utterances”

(1977: 575).

Context here refers to *“the intentions, assumptions, and presuppositions of speakers and hearers, which ensure making sense for the participants.”* Kramsch (1993: 36). Hence, the purpose of communication is to get the message across the interlocutors clearly and unambiguously. This involves efforts from both the sender of the message and the receiver. Great confusion occurs if the message is not well interpreted by the recipient. This means that communication is only successful when the participants understand the shared information, and, in this case, thoughts and ideas can be conveyed effectively, especially if we take into account what audience this message is sent to, and how it will be perceived, without forgetting circumstances surrounding this message such as situational and cultural contexts.

IV.6. Context of Culture in EFL

IV.6.1. Human Culture

‘Culture’ is said to be one of the most difficult concepts to define in human and social sciences, their human and social scientists, anthropologists and sociolinguists refer to it differently and this results in several ways of defining it.

Culture is knowledge, some of it is conscious such as myths and rules; others are unconscious and automatic, such as the rules and structures that allow language speakers to understand each other. This knowledge is learnt unconsciously within human groups and is dependent upon language as a medium for transmission. Lado (1957:110) defines it as “*the ways of people*” and Kramsh as

“The product of socially and historically situated discourse communities that are to a large extent imagined communities, created and shaped by language.”

(1993:10)

Culture is shared between generations and within generations in all societies. Each generation of people partially recreates the culture of the group according to its own historical experience. People, as individuals and as members of the groups, use cultural assumptions to make sense of the world around them and create strategies with respect to their group and individual interactions. Culture is then, all that is concerned with the social life of the individuals including knowledge, beliefs, arts, manners, rights, customs and traditions.

The modern technical definition of culture as “*socially patterned human thought and behaviour*” was originally proposed by the nineteenth-century British anthropologist Tylor. In the opening lines of his book ‘Primitive Cultures’, he defines this term as:

“that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs and habits acquired by man as a member of society.”

(1871: 60)

Since then, this definition has been extended considerably. Some researchers have tried to develop universal lists of elements that culture consists of. Kroeler and Kluckhohn (1952: 269) gave about 160 definitions of culture. From these definitions, culture is learnt, not biologically inherited, and involves arbitrary assigned meanings. It is what people think, what they do and what they produce as a material. Mental processes, beliefs, knowledge and values are part of culture. It is also shared, learnt, symbolic, transmitted across generations, adaptive and integrated. This means that individuals are shaped by pre-existing culture that continues among the new generations after the death of their ancestors. This accumulated culture has also tremendous impact on learning a foreign language. This is felt by professionals, among whom (Lado 1957, Kramsch 1993, Brown 2000, Jourden & Tuite 2006) who, along the years, have recognized the close contact between language and culture.

IV.6.2. Text and Context and Culture Shaping

The notion of text as explained by Kramersch who views a stretch of written language as

“The product of an identifiable authorial intention, and its relation to its context of culture as fixed and stable.”

(1998:57)

Widdowson (1996:132) states that text exists in both written and spoken language. He views text as *“the product of the process of discourse which can by no means signal its own meaning.”* Schiffrin (1994:363) relates text to the propositional meaning that is formally achieved by the use of grammatical definable units and their internal relations. For her, *“text expresses what is being said; context is the situations in which people with their social, cultural, religious beliefs and knowledge interact.”* This, with what is said both combine together to create an utterance. Haliday and Hassan (1989:117) mention the notion of text and context in language learning and consider them as two sides of the same coin. Glissant clarifies when saying:

“ Je te parle dans ta langue et c’est dans mon langage que je te comprends.”

(Glissant 1981 in Kramersch 1993: 177)

They agree that both are inseparable: text in language functions in a context of situation; whereas context is constructed by the range produced within the community where our ideas, our knowledge, our thoughts, our culture exist.

Footnote: “I speak to you in your language and it's in my speech that I understand you.”

IV.7. Relationship of language and culture

Language and culture have been the subject of a great deal of anthropological and sociological study which came up with the theory that words determine thought, and thus, believe that language and its structure are entirely dependent on the cultural context in which these words exist. This means that language does not exist in a vacuum. It is embedded in the culture of people and reflects their beliefs, customs and traditions. For Hassani

“The concept of 'culture' anthropologically means the full outcome of the customs, traditions, norms and way of life of a community which is characterized by certain features of civilization. Therefore, all societies, whether developed or traditional, possess culture, and the material conveyor of this culture is language with its distinct structure.”

(1993:18-20)

The linguistic form is tightly linked with the cultural types of a given human group. Accordingly, language is a fundamental factor in inculcating the distinctive cultural aspects in society, for social relationships cannot be established only with the linguistic forms which play a crucial role in the field of cultural accumulation and the transmission of the cultural type through generations. Radgaa (1993: 82) maintains that culture is a set of social organization, and language constitutes the full image of this culture.

Every language has specific vocabulary items, the concepts of which are completely different in another language. The Arabic word 'جهاد' /ʒiha:d/ does not have the equivalent meaning of the French word “la Lutte ”, nor is it exactly the same as the English word “fight”. Similarly, the English word “hypocrite” does not convey the exact meaning of the Arabic word 'منافق' /muna:fiq/.

The French oath “*Je vous jure*” is not the same as 'أقسم بالله' /ʔuqsimubila:h/. The meaning of a word is not absolute in any language. It is conditioned by social conventions. Most linguists agree on the fact that the full meaning of a word for an individual is the result of the experience that he has in the cultural milieu he has grown up in. It is difficult to establish exact equivalences between words and expressions in two languages because of the interrelationship between language and culture. Rivers maintains that

“Even if the words sometimes correspond in denotation, they may vary in connotation, or the emotional associations they may arouse.”

(1968:265)

Words represent the medium with which learners grasp the ideas depending on the different meanings in the different chosen contexts of the target language. When L2 is attempted, it is usually in an environment of the learner’s first language. i.e., he has already been socialized into the schematic knowledge of his mother tongue. So, this learner, who has no idea about the target language culture, will most likely face problems with how the foreign linguistic and cultural system is made.

IV.8. Context of culture in EFL Writing

Fries counts three levels of meanings in writing a foreign language text: “*lexical meaning, structural or grammatical meaning, and socio-cultural meaning*” (1963: 104-12). The foreign language learner may refer to a dictionary or a grammar text-book if he is in need for using a lexical word or a grammatical structure.

However, this would be difficult for him since it may result in problems at the level of socio-cultural meaning, which involves the values, beliefs, and attitudes that concern the speech community. Writing is a complex skill. It is not simply an encoding/decoding operation. It is not enough for writers to rely on surface meaning of words. Words must be culture bound, so as to give the reader the opportunity to decipher the right sense of text. Writing and reading for Widdowson is

“ an interaction between writer and reader. This cannot be had without an insight into the culture of the target language.

(1979:114)

Teachers and learners with their proper incentives and favourable circumstances may contribute to the general improvement of learning L2; however, their efforts very often fail to some extent because they neglect the close contact between languages and cultures. Language and culture are interrelated.

The cultural aspects can then be a real hindrance to both the teachers and learners' motivation because they may set up barriers to comprehension. Thus, for linguists such as Lado (1957) & Kramersch (1993) it is something necessary to motivate learners to understand the culture of the target language through the kind of material used for teaching, and which should be representatives of contemporary attitudes and situations in the target language to overcome cultural matters or things that trouble them. This is the way learners will get most of their cultural understanding mainly when the material used reflects the life and culture of other people.

The foreign language teacher has a heavy pedagogical burden in teaching those learners of monolingual and mono-cultural environment. His role is to take into account both his learners'

culture and the culture of the foreign language he is teaching. The understanding of both cultures may be essential to identify those areas of cultural background that may cause problems to the learners' comprehension if presented without explanation. This will also help them remove the misunderstanding resulting from the outward manifestation of cultural identity. Therefore, it may be necessary for the language teacher to introduce the cultural concomitants as an obligation to the process of language learning, otherwise, learners will fail to perform the basic task of language acquisition. Discussing the same idea, Lado maintains that

“...in the realm of language rather than that of culture as such, the harm that we do our students by not teaching them a foreign language or by teaching it as if it were just different words from those of our own language lies in the false idea they will hold of what it means to learn a foreign language.”

(Ibid: 8)

Accordingly, regardless of the learner's level, teaching material should be culture-bound. The right selection of the material is, therefore, crucial to the success of language learning especially when the teacher finds that he is given an assigned textbook that he finds inadequate both to linguistic and cultural content (Ibid:3).The ambiguities at the level of the context of the foreign culture very often lead to certain errors which may affect learning negatively.

IV.8.1. Words and Context

In his dictionary of linguistics and phonetics, D. Crystal defines the “word” as

“a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by the native speakers, in both spoken and written languages”.

(1992:379)

For him words are units which one encounters in the stretch of writing, limited by spaces (orthographic words), or those used in speech where their boundaries are identified by phonological clues such as pitch, stress and length (phonological words). All words would be listed in a dictionary, yet there are problems in identifying and defining them. Words usually have different lexical meanings according to the context where they are used. Thus, *“students should never make the mistake of identifying a language with its dictionary”* Sapir (1921:34-35). Contemporary linguists admit that the dictionary meaning is diverse and relative, for if the meaning of a word is diverse, the intended possibilities lead to the diversity of meaning. Thus, the word either in a dictionary entry or in isolation from context cannot be understood.

Words are used to represent an idea; an object, or an action. For foreign language learners, words never function in the same fullness and freedom as they do for the natives. Dictionaries are used to facilitate the task of defining words, yet not all words have the same kind of meaning. Thus, foreign learners are, most of the time, misled to a serious ambiguity. According to Fries

“A word is a combination of sounds acting as a stimulus to bring into attention the experience to which it has become attached by use...”

(1950:87)

When one uses the word “head” in the context “My head hurts”, the attention goes to the part of the body that contains the eyes, the brain and so on. Yet in the context of “head of department” it refers to the department chief. The source of information about the meaning of words comes from the context provided in any sentence or utterance. In the English example , Henry likes to swim , the meaning of “Henry” , “likes” and “swim” are very clear , but the word “to” is not . “Henry”, “likes” and

“swim” can be substituted by “Jack”, “hates” and “smoke”, yet “to” may not be replaced by any word. If “to” is isolated from the environment it is in, no sense can be provided.

Sweet (1991:22) makes a distinction between full words and form words. For him ‘full words’ are words like tree, book, sing and blue. ‘Form words’ are words like it, the, of, and only the full words are expected to have a meaning that could be found in a dictionary. The form words are concerned with grammar and, therefore, have only grammatical meanings. Form words cannot provide meaning unless they are put in relation with other words. We might produce the form words in isolation when we answer questions like “Did you say ‘a’ or ‘the’?”, but this must necessarily be related to a question.

IV.8.2. Words and their aspects

In natural languages such as English, words, together with other expressions (including phrases and sentences) have forms and meanings (Lyons 1996:23). But it is necessary to distinguish the ‘word’ from both its form and meaning.

IV.8.2.1. Form

In languages, mainly those which have the same or approximately the same writing system such as English and French and English and German, words have both spoken forms as well as written forms.

Form words, according to Crystal (1992:142) are also called “*function words*” and whose role is largely grammatical. Richards and Schmidt (2002:116) use the concept “*content word*” which they divide in two classes:

a) Content words: refer to ‘thing’, ‘quality’, ‘state’ or ‘action’ and have a lexical meaning when they are used alone. They are: nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. For example, ‘book’, ‘run’, ‘musical’, ‘quickly’.

b) Function words: Which have little or no meaning when used in isolation. For example, ‘and’, ‘to’ and ‘the’.

Form words are identified in speech and concern stress and intonation and would result in meaning differences (Lado 1957:76).

This means that many pairs of words in different languages are phonologically distinguished only by “stress”. An example of that is the English word “subject” /sʌbdʒɪkt/ where the stress is on the first syllable and this is a noun defined as “*a branch of knowledge studied as a system of education.*” If the position of the primary stress is changed as the case of subject /səˈbdʒɪkt/ another part of speech and a new meaning would result, i.e. a verb which is explained as “*to cause to be controlled or ruled*”.

The form of words varies according to certain factors such as the degree of formality of the situation, speed of talk, the distribution in the sentence and position of stress. Lado (Ibid: 76-77) mentions the example of the word “and” /ænd/ which varies from three segmental phonemes /ænd/, /æn/, /ən/ to one segmental phoneme /n/. A second example is the word “will” /wil/ which can be segmented as /wil/ and /l/.

The parts that form a word are another feature that characterizes the form of words. This can be explained by the sequence of morphemes to form a word and produce a meaning. The word “illegalities”, as an instance, can be divided into the prefix “il”, the root “legal” the two derivational suffixes “ly” and “ty” and the inflectional suffix “es”. A word may have several derivational suffixes but usually only one inflectional suffix which stands in a

fixed position. In the case of the French and the English languages, the inflectional suffix always stands in final position.

- In French: admirer, admirable, admirablement, admirateur(s)

- In English: response, responsible, responsibility, responsibilities

These forms of English and French which may resemble each other in affixes differ to some extent from the ones in other languages.

- In Arabic one may say: /masʔu:l/ (responsible) as a singular noun, /masʔu:liatun/ (responsibility) as also a singular noun, /masʔu:lia:tun/ (responsibilities) as a noun , but plural. What is noticed in the last word of Arabic is that the inflection plural /a:/ is used as an infix and not as a suffix.

The derived word usually results in a different part of speech from that of the underlying stem. Other languages such as Turkish permit more complex combinations.

IV.8.2.2. Meaning

Different linguists agree on the fact that meanings are not the same in languages. Meanings are culturally determined and vary to a large extent from culture to culture. This means that some meanings which may exist in one culture do not exist in another. The Eskimos give different names to the word “snow” that covers the four seasons because of the cold and snowy weather. Similarly the words ‘sand’ and ‘camel’ would have different names in the Algerian Sahara. Lyons (1996:89) argues that there exists lexemes in certain languages which do not have their equivalences in others, and that there are words denoting culturally or geographically restricted classes of entities (e.g., ‘shrine’, ‘boomerang’ monsoon’ ‘willow’, etc) that also lack their equivalents in their languages.

Meanings are parts of the decoded messages in communication. They are conveyed by the words in sentences or utterances used by speakers of different social classes in different geographical areas. Thus, meaning can identify the social class and the locality of the speaker. Widdowson states that:

“Comprehension in the sense of understanding sentences or utterances is a semantic matter of deciphering symbolic meanings. But this knowledge will not alone enable us to understand language in use for this is always a matter of realizing the particular token meanings of signs in association with the context of utterance.”

(1991:102)

Linguists consider the “word” as the basic unit of communication. They measure language learning by how much vocabulary has been memorized so far. They talk about words in isolation as parts of speech like nouns, verbs, adjectives and so on. These words have exact meanings and grammatical functions only when they are used in sentences. In most languages, each word has more than one meaning in different situations depending on the sentence in which it occurs and on its relationships with other words in the same sentence.

By distribution, it is meant the range of positions in which words or any other units can occur. The distribution of words is very important in the change of meaning of sentences. In English, for example, a part of speech such as the noun can change into a verb or an adjective according to the position it takes in the sentence, without a change in its form. In English the word “still” can belong to different parts of speech according to the different situations it takes in the sentence, i.e. it changes from one part of speech to another. In the sentences:

- 1) “In the still of the evening.” ‘still’ is used as a noun which means (quietness or calm)
- 2) “The milk stills the baby’s cries.” ‘Still’ is used as a verb which means (makes the baby quiet and calm)
- 3) “Keep still when I fasten your shoes.” As an adjective which means (don’t move).
- 4) “Are you still here?” As an adverb which means (until this moment).

In English the word “room” which is a noun can have different meanings depending on the position it takes in the sentence. In the sentences:

- a) He wants a double room.
- b) Ask room 18 if they need coffee.
- c) Move along and make room for me.

In sentence a) “room” is a division of a building separated by walls. In b) it is referred to “*the people in one such division of a hotel or large office building.*” In c) it means “space for occupying or moving in”.

However, this case may not be applied to all words, since there are grammatical restrictions in distribution for different languages. Not all words can belong to different parts of speech. The English word ‘water’ may be used as a noun in ‘glass of water’, as a verb in ‘water the garden’, a noun adjunct as in ‘water meter’, but not as an adjective.(see Lado 1957:79)

IV.8.3.Words in Sentences

The sentence is the basic unit of communication with which speech and writing are made in all languages. It is composed of a string of words and has an internal organization that produces a

sense and ends with a period, exclamation mark, or a question mark. Richards and Schmidt consider the sentence as

“the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs and grammatical classes as words, phrases, and clauses are said to function.”

(2002:480)

In English a sentence normally contains one independent clause with a finite verb. Many linguists agree on the grammaticality of the sentence as a unit. Forgiel (1984:118) states that the sentence in English consists of a subject and predicate. Yet, for others, the sentence is not seen only in the field of grammar. Fries states that *"the actual criterion for giving a definition to the sentence is not expressed only in the subject-predicate definition."* (1952:9). He points out that ‘*the dog is barking*’, for example, is accepted as a sentence since it contains a subject and a predicate, while ‘*the barking dog*’ in which ‘*barking*’ tells about ‘*dog*’ is not. Yet, both provide nearly the same meaning. What Fries said can be added to Bloomfield’s definition of sentence as:

“an independent linguistic form not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form.”

(1961:170)

For him any linguistic form appears either as a constituent of some larger form, as does ‘*John*’ in ‘*John ran away*’, or else as an independent form, not included in any larger (complex) form, as in the exclamation ‘*John!*’ Thus, ‘*John!*’ is regarded as a sentence.

Sentences are often classified as simple, compound and complex, defined to whether one, two or more ‘*complete thoughts*’ are expressed and according to the relations among the thoughts.

Sentences are also classified as declarative, defined as making a statement; interrogative, defined as asking a question; imperative, giving a command; and exclamatory, expressing strong emotion.

IV.8.4. Pragmatics and Meaning of Words

Ellis (2000b:23) gives a long explanation of the term pragmatics which can be summarized as the study of language used in communication to convey meanings that are not actually encoded linguistically. It is particularly concerned with appropriates, both with regard to what is said in a particular context and how it is said.

Pragmatics is the study of “meaning” and the way it is communicated by a writer or speaker and interpreted by a listener or reader (Yule 1991:3). It deals with what people mean by their utterances. For Green

“Pragmatics is the study of understanding intentional human action...the central notions in pragmatics must then include belief, intention (or goal), plan and act.”

(1989:3)

This means that this study involves the interpretation of what people mean when communicating between each other in a certain context and how their speech is influenced by this context. How speakers organize their speech is according to certain variables such as the location, occasion, and the participant and under what inferences about what is written or said in order to arrive to the exact interpretation. That is to say, during his process of reading or listening, he investigates an invisible meaning. For Yule (Ibid) this has to do with the analysis of the intended meaning of the

utterance rather than what the words and phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves.

Many messages are decoded without being written or said. In pragmatics one is concerned with people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes and kinds of actions such as the request that they perform when speaking. This is all decoded from people's conversations or written literature where things are expressed without providing any clear linguistic evidence to show the explicit meaning of what is communicated. Certain linguistic expressions, to be appropriately used, require that the interlocutor share certain beliefs. For example, in order to say in an appropriate way that "*Paul also arrived*", it is necessary that the participants in the conversation share the idea that another person other than "Paul" had already arrived. Semantic content of a sentence like "*Can you take this patient to the doctor's?*" is fixed, but that the pragmatic meaning may differ as between a question and a request. This sentence could be understood either as a question about the ability of the person addressed to take the patient to the doctor's, or as a request that the person addressed should take that patient to the doctor's. Thus, "*the semantic meanings of verbal signs must be supplemented by the pragmatic meanings of verbal action in context.*" Kramsch (1998:26). The selected words represent the medium with which learners grasp the ideas depending on the different meanings in the different chosen contexts.

Trudgill (1992:61) distinguishes pragmatics from semantics. The former as being the branch of linguistics which deals with the meaning of utterances as they occur in social contexts; the latter deals with purely linguistic meaning and has connections with discourse analysis, social context, and the study of speech acts.

In learning FL, linguistic knowledge is of much importance, but knowing when, where, and how to apply this knowledge to

different contexts is a necessity. Knowing about people's speech such as conversational routines means being aware of what can lead to natural, casual, and appropriate communication with native speakers. In the same subject Dong (1994:32) gave two examples which illustrate it.

A: "Your pen can write smoothly."

B: "Do you like it? I can buy one for you, too."

This is related to what is referred to as 'illocutionary forces', (Dong: Ibid). Different speakers would understand the message differently. In this dialogue B is mistaken when s/he thinks that A wants the same kind of pen.

The second exchange illustrates the subject clearly.

A: "You are not busy, Mr. Smith, I hope."

B: "Yes, I'm very busy. I have a lot of work to do."

In this case, Mr. Smith, the native speaker, fails to get the illocutionary meaning of the first speaker (the Algerian) which is that he hopes Mr. Smith will help him with something or do him a favour. After hearing Mr. Smith's answer, the Algerian feels hopeless and thinks that perhaps Mr. Smith is unwilling to help.

By and large, providing information to learners as to when to speak and what to say in certain contexts is important in successful communication with native speakers. It is as important as the mastery of linguistic knowledge.

IV.9. Background knowledge (Schemata)

The information that readers or listeners possess as a pre-existing knowledge enables them to interpret the unwritten or the unsaid messages. This background knowledge which consists of previous experience is used to interpret new experiences. Goodman suggests that:

“the reader begins a reading task already possessing certain information which allows him or her to pick up important ideas on them.”

(1967:126-35)

The importance of background knowledge in reading is also central to schema theory (Rumelhart, 1980). This theory claims that reading a text implies an interaction between the reader's background knowledge and the text itself. The knowledge that is organized and stored in the reader's mind is called schemata. Thus, readers relate their schemata with the new information present in the text. No text can be considered separate from the reader; there must be a successful interaction between the reader and the discourse to be processed. The readers' prior knowledge is so essential for the reading process, i.e. their own reading strategies and personal and cultural experiences.

Carrell (1983: 15) distinguishes formal schemata (knowledge about the structural configuration of texts) from context schemata (knowledge about the subject matter of text). She finds that “ *a reader may fail to understand a text if s/he does not follow formal schemata (coherent organization or if content schema was lacking.*”(1983:25-34). Steffenson and Alderson (1979:203-9)

found that this particular content may not exist for a reader if that schema is culturally specific; so the texts should be culturally accessible. Rivers suggests that

“the cultural link between culture and language must be maintained to allow for complete understanding. Therefore, previous cultural and schematic knowledge is a factor in the success of the learning process. A text or any other input lacking the learners’ background knowledge may easily cause inaccurate progress of the learners’ ability and reinforce misunderstanding.”

(1968: 72)

IV.9.1.Cultural background Knowledge

Background knowledge about the TL is of vital importance to language learners. Different cultures define social situations differently. Although there are many social situations that are common across cultures, there are other practices for which no equivalence exists.

In English, for example, one may acknowledge another's compliment. This can be illustrated in the following:

A: “That was a wonderful meal.”

B: “Thank you. I'm glad you liked it.”

In other languages, this may not sound suitably acceptable, i.e. people may not acknowledge the compliment verbally. As in:

A: “That was a wonderful meal!”

B: “No, I'm sorry the food was not delicious.”

This does not mean that B is not glad to hear the compliment, but s/he simply refuses it verbally. If native speakers experience the

same situation, they may feel puzzled and frustrated about the refusal of the compliment.

In Algeria, for example, when two friends meet, they may talk with each other about anything as health, job, income, prices, the family, etc. This is a result of the friendship and intimacy which exists between them. Native speakers of English, however, think these topics are private and should not be the subject to share with people. They may feel offended or hurt if they are once asked about these things.

Thus, information about the life of people and their culture, in general is of much importance. It is the educators' duty to inform learners so as to know more about the people whose language is taught in the classroom. These educators such as teachers themselves should also be aware of the culture of the TL.

IV.9.1.1. Teacher's Schemata

As a foreign language teacher, besides knowing the native culture, he is expected to have thorough insight into the culture of the language he is teaching. This bicultural understanding is essential to identify those areas of cultural background that will be unintelligible to his students if presented without explanation.

The problem arises if the teacher is not exposed directly to the foreign culture; as is the case of most of Algerian teachers, for example. This teacher should make up for this lack by reading works on culture and analyzing the differences of interpretations. Cultural insights can also be taken from the various media such as newspapers, magazines, radio and television. Friendly contact with native speakers is also beneficial.

IV.9.1.2. Learner's Schemata

Hedge agrees that

“schematic knowledge does indeed enable the reader to work with the language of the text in order to interpret meaning”

(2000:189)

This would imply the knowledge the learner has accumulated in his long-term memory about the social, cultural and other aspects of the world around him. Any pre-existing knowledge in the part of the learner is important for the comprehension of any topic of any reading passage. The learner's comprehension will be greater if he has background knowledge of the various rhetorical modes of the target language and is equipped to identify and use those various structures.

Sometimes a text containing references to the foreign culture creates serious problems of comprehension to the reader if he has no knowledge of such cultural specificity. Klein claims that

“...some elements of this knowledge vary from culture to culture and, within the given culture, from individual to individual. The cultural differences are the source of serious problems for spontaneous learner...”

(1988:114)

The schemata acquired by the learners influence the way they interpret the things to be learnt, that is to say learners' prior-knowledge interferes and helps in the acquisition of the new information. Thus, pre-reading tasks designed to enlighten the EFL learner on matters of culture will prove beneficial.

IV.9.2. Introducing the Cultural background Knowledge of the TL

It is teachers' duty to inform learners so as to know more about the people whose language is taught in the classroom. Learners usually have troubles in understanding topics of different types of speech events, responding to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies and using language appropriately. Therefore, they are expected to know what to say and how to say it to the right person at the right time in order to avoid misunderstanding. The stretch of language they produce and understand is often referred to as discourse.

IV.10. Socio-cultural Phenomenon in Classroom Discourse

In the foreign language classroom, activities are generally done through dialogues between students and their teachers. By their accent, their vocabulary, and their discourse patterns they shape their own culture, mainly because it is the case of a foreign language. Kramsch believes that:

“participants in the foreign language classroom create their own cultural context by shaping the conditions of enunciation/ communication and the conditions of receptions/ interpretation of classroom discourse.”

(1993:48)

In this case we are concerned with the learners' echo of the native culture of the society in which they were socialized, i.e. learners tend to speak the foreign language and act in the native culture when they attempt to grasp and understand the foreign language and its culture as practiced by the natives (Lado 1957:2).

Therefore, learners very often face the problem of misinterpretation of the exact meaning of words, make errors of grammatical structures and provide false pronunciation of words. These learners create a counter-culture with foreign sounds and shapes. They may manifest uneasiness, confusion, or even resistance in the requirements of new classroom activities. In considering these reservations, one can assume that the learners' past schooling with foreign languages has already predisposed them with their local culture which perpetuates the older kind of learning.

Teaching discourse types such as conversation, paragraphs and interviews raises the problem of their belonging to a specific culture. This is a difficult issue which entails the larger problem of the degree to which teaching a language is also teaching a culture. In teaching a foreign language it may be necessary to know that terms referring to the different types of discourse do not necessarily have the same equivalence even for the relatively closest

Conclusion

Chapter five presents a short review of the nature of writing as a second medium of communication. It deals with the norms of effective writing through organized steps of the writing process and style. It also deals with the nature of writing in EFL and the influence that the L1 socio-cultural context where writing is done may exert on both teacher's techniques and students' performance.

Thus, a large part of this chapter is devoted to the study of the relationship between language and culture, and the context of L1 culture which is usually seen as an impediment towards any endeavour of improvement. Hence, this involves the process of

understanding and adapting the principles of a different culture. Besides, points like students' attitudes towards writing and their background knowledge are examined as being two most important elements in EFL writing acquisition.

In FL situations, the importance of the cultural context of language can be emphasized. A lack of understanding of the cultural information can be a major impediment to writing performance and to comprehension as a whole. Many linguists argue that teaching material should be culture-bound regardless of students' level. The selection of the teaching material is, therefore, necessary to the success of any writing task. This material may lead students to gain access to the life and thought of people of different languages. The study of a foreign language, then, not only enables the individual to develop his cultural understanding of that language, but also promotes his personal culture through contact with great minds and different mentalities by means of their writings and the literatures they read. Thus, introducing the cultural content should, therefore, be integrated with the teaching of language patterns and lexicons. Many linguists have questioned the usefulness of non-culture bound teaching material in foreign language teaching. In such an approach writing subjects are designed on a theme familiar to students and reflecting their own culture. This, for them, would destroy the unity of language, severing it from its social context. Language and culture are inseparable; the one cannot be learnt without the other.

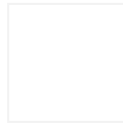
Thus, previous cultural knowledge about the target language is a factor which might be considered in constructing any writing activity or comprehension texts. However, it is essential while introducing cultural content of a subject in the classroom for the teacher to maintain complete neutrality. That is to say, students

must not feel that teachers are selling a foreign culture to them. This means that any approach should be informative and objective.

CHAPTER

FIVE

Chapter V: Field Work



Introduction

V.1. Situation, Population and Sampling

V.2. Observations

V.3. Method of Investigation

V.4. Data Collection

V.4.1. Questionnaire

V.4.2. Judgment Test

V.5. Data Treatment

V.5.1. Questionnaire

V.5.2. Judgment Test

V.5.2.1. Samples of Students' Intralingual Errors

V.5.2.1.1. Morphological Errors

V.5.2.1.1.1. Faulty Overgeneralization

V.5.2.1.1.1.1. Selection of Incorrect Elements

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V.5.2.1.1.1.3. Addition of Unnecessary Elements

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V.5.2.1.2.2. False Hypothesized Concept

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V.5.2.1.1.2.2. Addition of Unnecessary Elements

V.5.2.1.1.2.3. Misordering of Certain Elements

V.5.2.1.3. Lexical Errors

False Hypothesized Concepts

V.5.2.1.4. Semantic Errors

V.5.2.2. Samples of Students' Interlingual Errors

V.5.2.2.1. Syntactic Errors

Faulty Overgeneralization

V.5.2.2.1.1. Selection of Incorrect Elements

V.5.2.2.1.2. Omission of Required Elements

V.5.2.1.1.1.3. Addition of Unnecessary Elements

V.5.2.1.1.1.4. Misordering of Elements

V.5.2.2.2. Semantic Errors

Faulty Overgeneralization

V.6. Result Discussions

V.6.1. Questionnaire Results Discussion

V.6.2. Judgment Test Result Discussion.

Conclusion

“Research is an ongoing activity which is never totally completed because each piece of research raises additional questions for more research.”

Seliger H.W. & Shohamy E. (2000: 2)

Introduction

The present chapter deals with the investigation in the form of data and data analysis, which are presented under the form of charts, graphs, and statistic figures. They also state the facts as they are observed and pave the way to possible interpretations. After collecting the data thanks to the three methods of investigation including the questionnaire, the judgment test and the check list, and in order to verify the research hypotheses as answers to the suggested research questions, an investigation was set to study the data results given by both students and teachers.

V.1. Situation, Population and Sampling

Eggleston states that:

“The role of English within a nation’s daily life is influenced by geographical, historical, cultural and political factors, not all which are immutable. But the role of English at a given point in time must affect both the way it is taught and the resultant impact on the daily life and growth of the individual.”

(1978:7)

The sample of this research was not chosen at random. Before deciding which type of learners I had to choose to conduct the action research I went back to my teaching experience at the Faculty of Economic & Management Sciences, where deficiencies

in students' writings were observed during the three year teaching at the different departments of the faculty.

To begin the task, I was obliged to know the kind of students to examine and under what circumstances they are learning English; that is to say, studying all the criteria needed to describe them. Thus, I asked an administrator at the faculty to provide me with their exact number in 'LMD type' (Licence + Master), as well as the areas and the towns they come from. The total number of students concerned from 1st year 'licence' (L) to 2nd year 'master' (M) was '2307' divided into 03 departments:

1) Economic Sciences Department including:

- a-** 'common Core' (CC)
- b-** Developmental Economy (DE)

2) Commercial Sciences Department including:

- a-** Marketing (M)
- b-** Accounting & Taxation (AT)
- c-** International Trade (IT)

3) Management Sciences Department including:

- a-** Insurance & Banking (IB)
- b-** Finance (F)

The table below provides the number and gender of students from the three departments including the degree and branches they belong to.

Department		Year	Type	Branch	Number	Gender		Total Number
						male	Female	
Economic Sciences	01	1 st	C.C.	/	684	351	333	825
	02	3 rd	L	DE	88	35	53	
	03	1 st	M	DE	53	12	41	
Commercial Sciences	01	3 rd	L	M	74	40	34	413
	02	1 st	M	“	43	10	33	
	03	2 nd	“	“	36	22	14	
	04	3 rd	L	AT	81	25	56	
	05	1 st	M	“	78	25	53	
	06	2 nd	“	“	38	23	15	
	07	3 rd	L	IT	74	48	26	
	08	1 st	M	“	31	11	20	
	09	2 nd	“	“	36	21	15	
Management Sciences	01	1 st	CC	/	593	255	338	991
	02	3 rd	L	I&B	84	12	72	
	03	1 st	M	“	77	18	59	
	04	2 nd	“	“	34	07	27	
	05	3 rd	L	F	81	13	68	
	06	1 st	M	“	85	18	67	
	07	2 nd	“	“	37	09	28	
Total Number	19	/	/	/	2307	955	1438	2307

Table IV. Students' division in Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

The sample study of this research covers 20 % of the total number of students at the faculty. This means that out of 2307 students, 461 of them will constitute the subject of the investigation. The choice is put on first year students (CC) from the Economic Sciences Department (ESD), 3rd year students (L)

from Commercial Sciences Departments (CSD) & 2nd year master from Commercial & Management Sciences Departments. These academic groups are chosen because of the following aspects:

First year groups have been selected because they are not accustomed to dealing with the writing skill at university level. They are only asked to state their attitude, as well as their behaviour in writing. The third year 'Licence' is chosen for the evaluation of students' level in English after a two-year study. The English they study at university, 'ESP', is specific and is different from the one of the secondary school, 'General English'. The second year 'Master', however, is students' fifth year at university. Some of these students will pursue their doctoral studies, while the majority will be obliged to seek a job. The two categories are chosen to see their expectations in the job market once they finish university studies, as well as their writing performances after 5 years study.

According to the global list of students provided by the faculty administration, students' age ranges between 18 and 25. '236' of them are from Tiaret. This provides (51.19%) of the total number. '123' of them (26.68%) are from the local town (urban area), while the rest '113' (24.51 %) come from regional districts including distant villages and the countryside. The remaining number '225' (48.80%) comprises students coming from different Algerian towns and regions.

Like the rest of students at the Faculty, the 461 ones aged between 18 and 24 are those who studied English as a foreign language for 4 years at the middle school and 3 years at the secondary school under a new type of approach 'CBA' (competency based approach), seen as an important element in educational reforms of 2012. This means that most of them had the same curriculum, the same programme, the same manuals and the

same teaching instructions. They have also acquired some basic knowledge which both helps them to develop their competencies and carry out their learning process easily. However, outside the classroom, these students have very few opportunities to use English.

According to a written survey administered to students in the faculty (see the given modal in appendix 02 on page: 355), the geographical distribution of the sample represents two different social categories: the first includes students having spent their secondary education in the most prestigious secondary schools in both Tiaret and other big towns. These schools mostly comprise students of well-off family background, i.e., most of their parents are of high social status. One may remark that French is well-spoken among these students. This helps the majority of them to do well with English, as the two languages are cognates, i.e., genetically related. The second category corresponds to students coming from either small villages or the countryside where a big number of them come from poor family background and have often financial problems to afford the means for their education. They used to have problems either with the big distance to get to their secondary schools, or being absent for several times. These students who are monolinguals have problems with the French language and face serious difficulties in the articulation of certain sounds such as [p], [r], [u], and [i]. There are students coming from southern regions characterised by a special AA variety spoken by the people of 'Gbala' who used to lead a nomadic life, either in Tiaret or in the far south of Algeria, and have a special pronunciation for certain phonemes such as [q] for /ɣ/ as in [qa:li] for /ɣa:li/ (expensive) [ʒ] for /ɟʒ/ as in [ra:ʒəl] for /ra:ɟʒəl/ (a

man) and [e] for /a/ as in [gelb] instead of /galb/ [tʃ] for /t/ as in [tʃmar] for /tmar/ (dates), etc. Yet, the linguistic feature students of the two categories share in common speaking Algerian Arabic (AA). Although each region is characterised by its own accent, this variety is shared with a high degree of mutual intelligibility among all. However, outside the classroom, these students have very few opportunities to use English when watching British or American films or listening and rehearsing songs.

The choice of these categories was made on purpose to see to what extent social factors influence language use in general, and students' attitude to language in particular.

So as to strike a balance in gender between boys and girls, as the number of girls exceeds the number of boys, it was decided not to have more than 20 informant gender difference. Thus, the total number stated above is '461' divided into 251 girls and 210 boys.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the action research led in this study was not easily done. The participants were other students from another faculty; thus, this somehow affected the good organization of the groups, as well as the collection of judgment test papers and the questionnaires. It is obvious that this sort of phenomenon remains a challenge towards all the efforts made both by teachers and students. Thus, it has become professionals' main concern to seek for the best solutions to overcome such extra problems which may affect negatively any contribution that may add something to any research investigation.

V.2. Observations

The study clarifies issues related to the errors students at Economic Sciences Departments make in their writing assignment.

Those errors which are spotted, mainly at the morpho-syntactic level, might be attributed to their ignorance of the immense differences between the linguistic system of Arabic (L1) and that of English (L2), i.e., their ignorance of the structural differences of the two languages. This may reflect their lack of competence in writing.

Most students very often translate the forms of words and their distribution in sentences to L2 (English) in the same way they are processed in L1 (Arabic). The incorrect shift of various grammatical structures and word formation errors may clarify the evidence of Arabic English interference. This may very often result in a non-sense or a change of meaning because, most of the time, the structure of L2 does not have a similar form in L1, does not indicate the same meaning nor is it similarly distributed in the system of L2. This would put the stress on the hypothesis that "Processing mode of learners affects their performances in L2."

V.3. Method of Investigation

The method of investigation includes primarily a written evaluation test in the form of composition directed to the third year of licence, as well as second year master students. This written work which will be analysed at the morpho-syntactic level is to identify, describe the phenomenon of grammatical errors, formulate insights about them and gather evidence to confirm or infirm the hypotheses drawn before. Errors at the semantic and lexical levels are also considered in the study with the purpose of description and comparison.

The second method of investigation covers a questionnaire administered to 180 students from three departments: economy,

commerce and management to highlight issues on the students' behaviour in writing.

V.4. Data collection

As mentioned earlier, the method of investigation is based on three types of experiments including the questionnaire, the judgment test and the checklist taken from Seliger & Shohamy's model (2000). This process known as 'triangulation' is used mainly for scientificity and verifiability, which both represent the scientific and methodological conditions for the field research to prove or reject the stated hypotheses. However, it is worth mentioning that the teachers' checklist with its results is presented in the first section of chapter six. This is made to fit with the results and validation of the research. The two other methods presented in this chapter are as follows:

V.4.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire which is administered to 180 students of the three levels (1st & 3rd L./ 2nd M) consists of seventeen statements devoted to learners' behaviour in writing in L2 (English); (see appendix 01 p. 351). It is meant to give support to the first hypothesis that *'students' English writings at the economic sciences faculty may be, to a large extent, affected by L1 'Arabic' interference'*. Some points are taken into account in the construction of this questionnaire so as to be efficient: simplicity, clarity, respondent level, length (not very long), and coherence.

V.4.2. Judgment Test

A judgment test in the form of written production is collected from 160 students to confirm or infirm the hypothesis that “*other than interlingual interference errors, there are other kinds of errors.*” Those errors may strongly affect their writing performance.

The corpus of the study is a collection of written words, phrases, clauses and sentences seen as having errors, which represent students’ variety of the wrong use of written language. These errors are gathered in to represent a particular learning situation. The collection of erroneous linguistic items are selected and ordered explicitly in order to describe and define their nature and use. It also provides valuable insights about the language phenomenon, so as to verify the research hypotheses.

This corpus is both quantitative and qualitative: quantitative in terms of amount of language data, i.e., the number of erroneous items that constitute its body, which contains as large language database as possible. Thus, the number of data in this process counts 400 erroneous items varying between different parts of speech including nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions..., and phrases, fragments, simple sentences and clauses.

It is qualitative, which means that it constitutes natural and authentic data from students’ written production, i.e., no artificial circumstances are included in the process. This is to demonstrate how they use language in normal situations. Thus, linguistic investigation needs authentic information as a means of verification and analysis of the language corpus in question.

A writing subject is directed to both the 3rd year ‘licence’ and 2nd year ‘master’ students. Third year licence students are expected to have completed 3 years study of ESP at university level by the end of July 4th, 2013. A number of them will be obliged to leave university to seek a job in work life; others will pass to first year master. Second year master; however, are expected to have completed 5 years of ‘ESP’ study by the end of the same period. Some of them will have the opportunity to pursue their doctoral studies; while, the rest will leave to seek a job in the job market. The subject directed to these two categories constitutes the following question: “*What are your expectations in the job market once you finish your university studies?*” This is asked to draw assessment about students’ writing performance in English and to build an image about their different views on how they see their future in the field work. In the process, they are given sufficient time to write (Ellis 1979: 114). For these types of students who have some acquaintance with English, this language is taught for them in order to communicate a set of professional skills during the three, five or eight years study (at university) to pave the way to performing particular job-related functions in the future.

This topic is a socio-economic situation that is plain to everyone’s sight and mind. Students are even more touched by the phenomenon than many other categories of people. Students aspire to find a job once they graduate with a higher studies diploma. The relevance of the topic presupposes students’ interest and involvement in the writing process.

The writing task has been semi-guided. The students have been asked to follow closely the main steps of paragraph writing including prewriting, questioning, listing, clustering, outlining,

drafting and then editing. Guidance was meant to help them lay down their own ideas in a coherent way.

V.5. Data Treatment

So as to be methodical, a field research needs to be based on observation and experiment to bring about predictable results. As mentioned earlier, the method of investigation includes questionnaire and a judgment test in the form of written composition.

In calculating the percentage of any data in question, the following formula is used:

$$P = \frac{n1}{\sum N} \times 100\%$$

In which

P: percentage of each number

N1: total of the given number

N: total of the whole number

(Charles Henry Brace 2010)

By calculating the frequency of each number, the most and the least frequent numbers of any data treatment can be identified easily, whether it is students' attitudes, teachers' observations, or learners' number of errors.

V.5.1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire includes 17 statements about students' attitude and behaviour in L2 (English) writing. It is filled in by 163 out of 180 students from finance, economy, and accounting

departments. Those interested in the field study are 1st, 3rd year Licence, and 2nd year Master. This method of investigation may be the best way to find out how students feel and behave when they are requested to produce a piece of writing in L2 ‘English’.

Seven questionnaires out of the total number (163) given by students are not considered in the study. Thus, a number of 156 is taken into account. The following is a table illustrating students’ participation in the questionnaire:

Table IV.1: Percentage of the informants selected for the questionnaire

Department	Year	Girls	Boys	Total Nb.	Learners at the Dept.	Percentage
Economy	1 st CC	37	25	62	684	09.06%
	3 rd L	29	35	64	88	72.72%
Commerce	1 st M.	18	21	39	43	90.69%
management	2 nd M.	27	07	34	991	03.43%

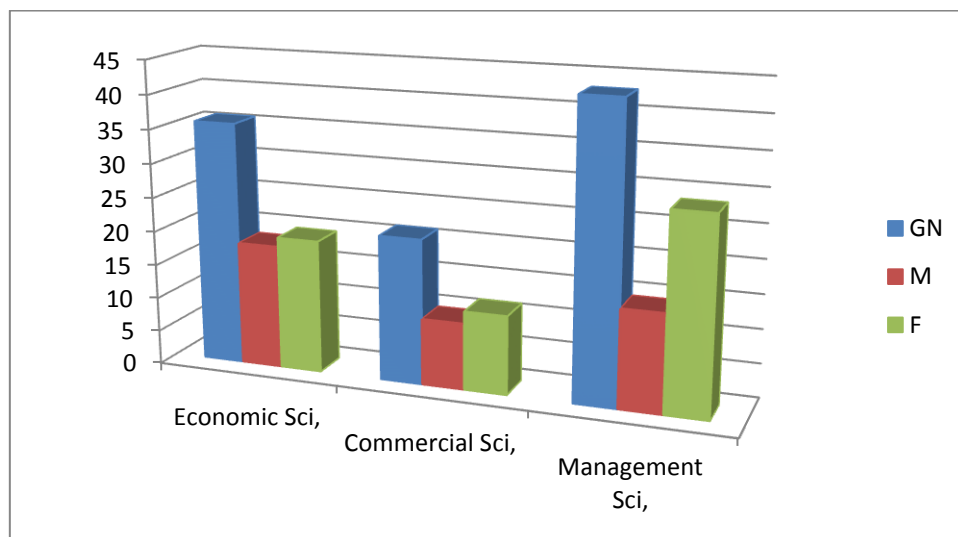


Chart 01: Students’ Division at the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

The questionnaire results are as follows:

1) How do students feel about writing in English?

Rubric 01: When asked to write a piece of work in English, I feel comfortable and confident.

(81.60%) from the obtained results show that students feel comfortable and confident when writing in English. i.e., they have positive attitudes towards L2 writing, as compared with the minority which responded negatively with either ‘rarely’ (04.02%) or never (14.38%). 02 students give no response.

Table IV.2. Students’ attitude about their writing in English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	39	22.41%
Sometimes	103	59.19%
Rarely	07	04.02%
Never	25	14.38%

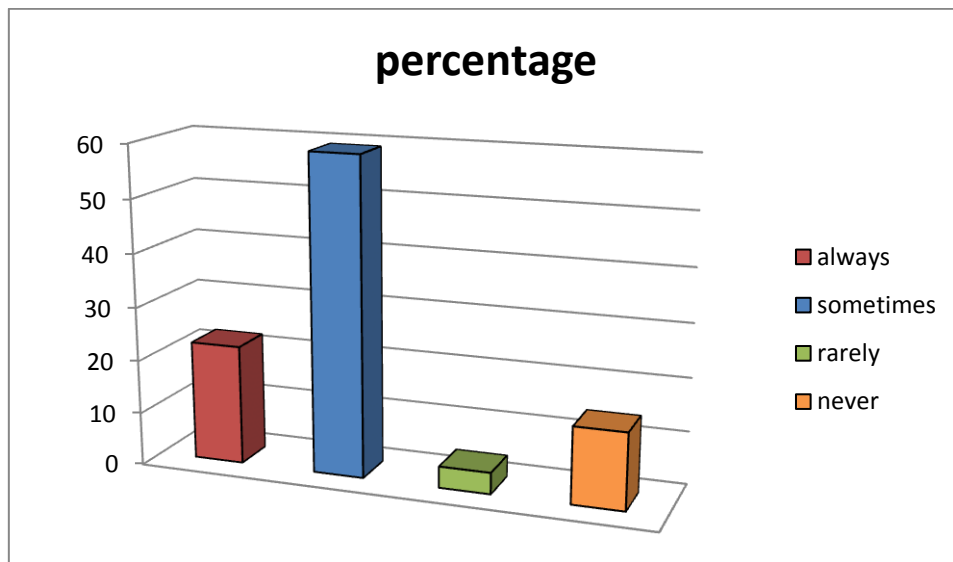


Chart 02: Representation of scores illustrating students’ attitudes for writing in English

2) Whether or not students find it more difficult to write in English than in Arabic:

Rubric 02: I find it more difficult to write in English than to write in Arabic.

The results show that students admit the fact that writing in English is a difficult task compared to their writing in Arabic. Most of the answers vary between always and sometimes with a percentage of (93.17%); while only the minority mention the word ‘rarely’ (05.68%), or ‘never’ (01.15%).

Table IV.3. Students’ attitude about writing in English as compared to writing in Arabic

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	125	71.02%
Sometimes	39	22.15%
Rarely	10	05.68%
Never	02	01.15%

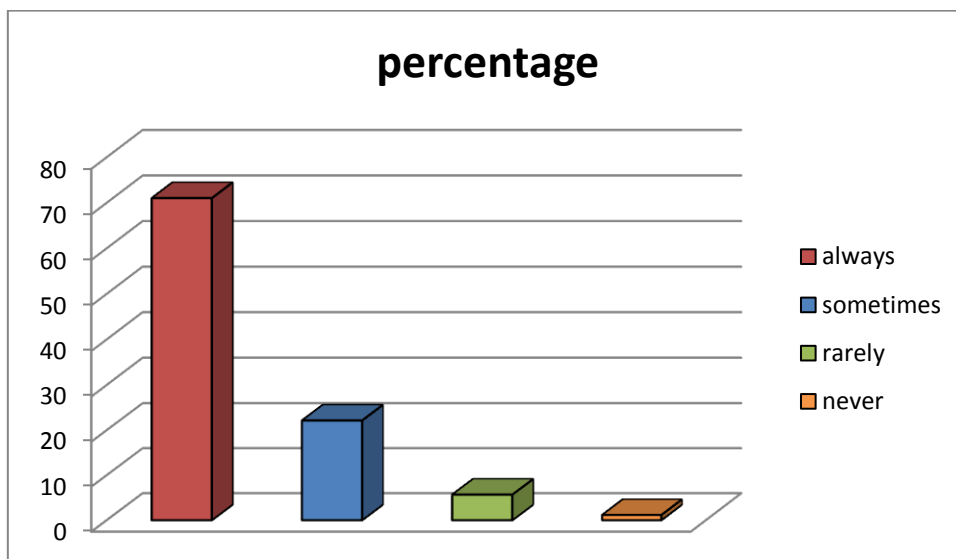


Chart 03: Scores illustrating students’ opinion of the difficulty in writing in English or Arabic

3) Whether or not the writing skill in English is the most difficult of all learning skills:

Rubric 03: In English, writing is the most difficult of all learning skills.

In this section, (87.42%) of students opt for the task of writing; while the rest (12.58%) choose other skills. This means that the majority sees other skills ‘listening, speaking, and reading’ as easier tasks. 01 student gives no response.

Table IV.4. Students’ opinion about English writing among other skills

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	117	66.85%
Sometimes	36	20.57%
Rarely	14	08.00%
Never	08	04.58%

Table 4: Students’ opinion about English writing among other skills

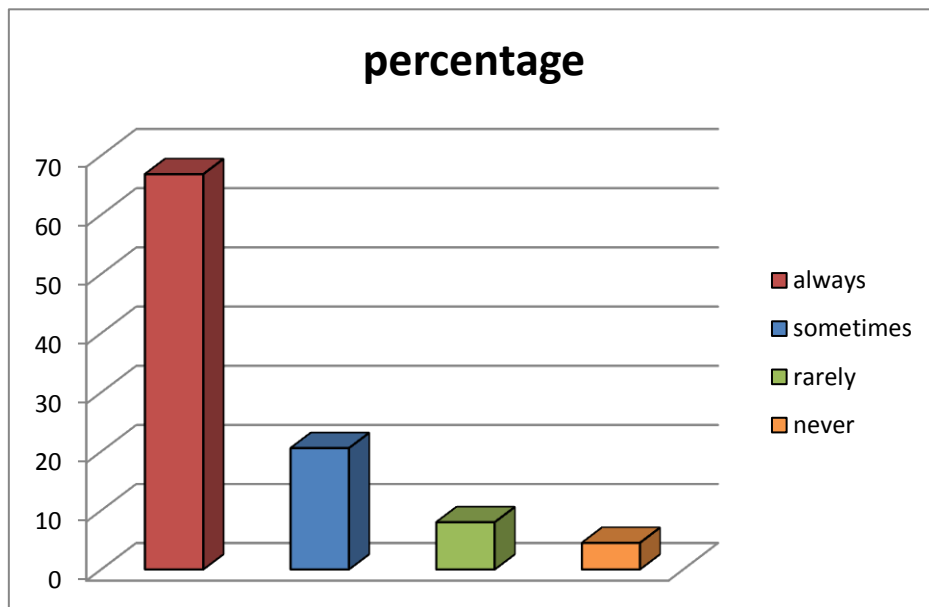


Chart 04: Representation of scores illustrating how students regard the writing skill among other skills

4) Whether it is difficult for students to find the ideas that help them to write in English:

Rubric 04: It is not easy to find the ideas that help me to write in English.

Students choose more than one answer. Most of them (81.81%) say that they find it difficult to do so; while (13.06%) mention the observation ‘rarely’. Only a very few of them (05.13%) report they ‘never’ encounter this problem.

Table IV.5. Students’ attitude about writing in English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	79	44.88%
Sometimes	65	36.93%
Rarely	23	13.06%
Never	09	05.13%

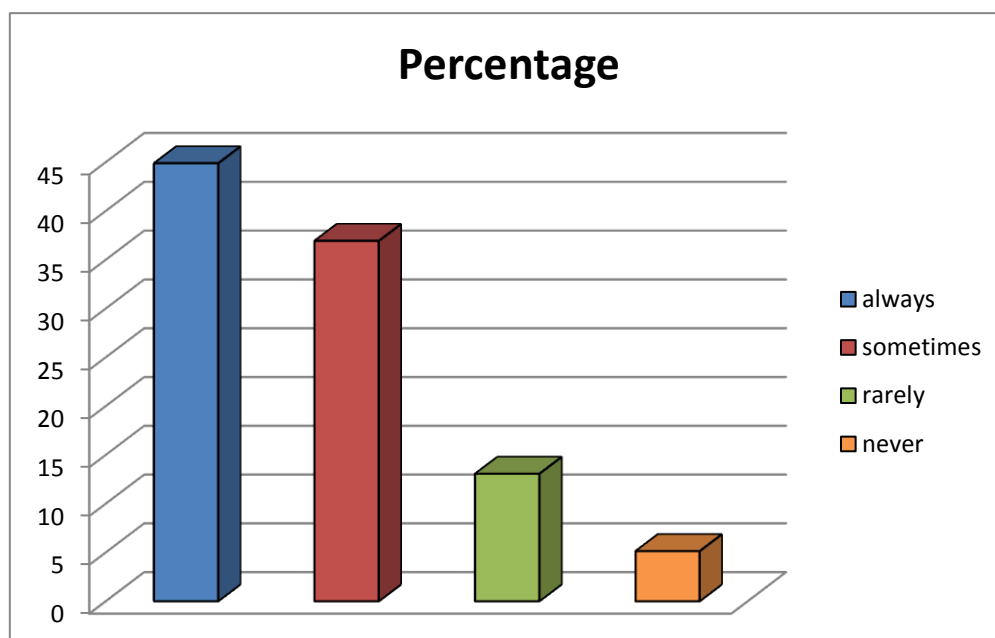


Chart 05: Representation of scores illustrating students’ attitudes about writing in English

5) Do students face difficulties in grammar when writing in English?

Rubric 05: When writing in English, the problem lies in making grammatical errors.

The results demonstrate that in writing a great number of students confront difficulties in grammar. (78.76%) of them say they find problems with this system; while only a few of them (20.24%) say they rarely do. 03 students give no response.

Table IV.6. Students' errors in grammar

Informants' answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	58	33.52%
Sometimes	80	46.24%
Rarely	33	19.07%
Never	02	01.17%

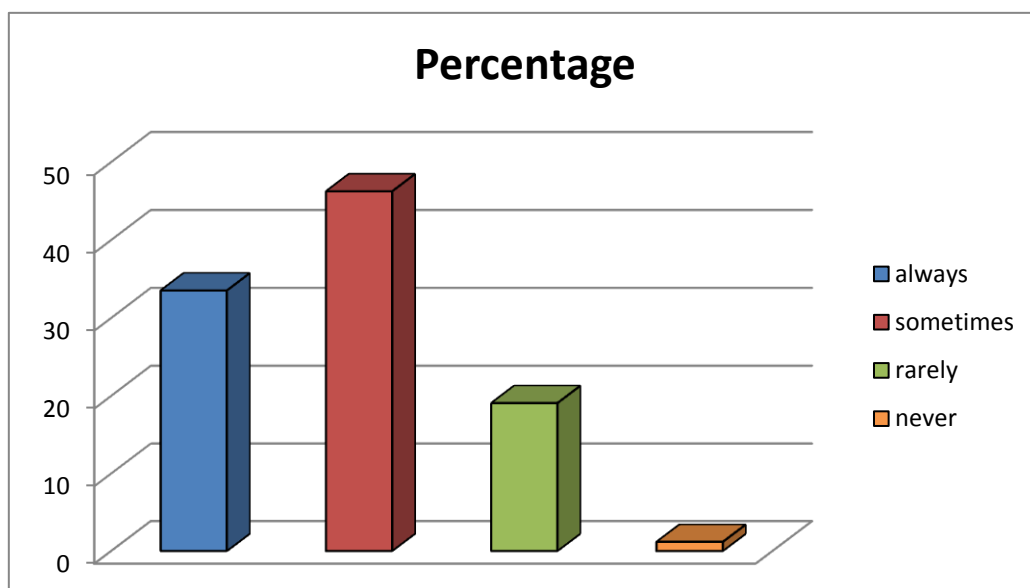


Chart 06: Representation of scores illustrating students' grammatical errors in English writing

6) Do students face problems with word-formation, in particular when writing in English?

Rubric 06: When writing in English, I face problems with word-formation.

In this section, nearly half of the students choose the second choice ‘sometimes’ with a percentage of (46.59%). This indicates that they do have problems with formation of words; while (38.06 %) choose ‘always’ ; contrary to the minority of them (15.35%) who say that they deal well with this point.

Table IV.7. Students’ errors in English morphology

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	67	38.06%
Sometimes	82	46.59%
Rarely	23	13.06%
Never	04	02.29%

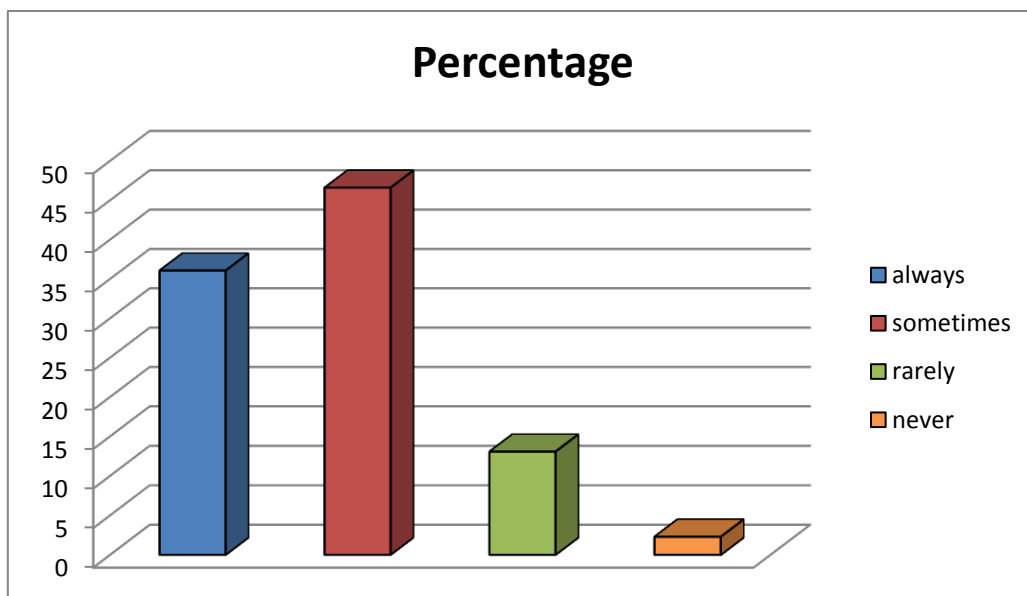


Chart 07: Representation of scores illustrating students’ errors in English morphology

7) Do students face problems on how to combine words in sentences?

Rubric 07: When writing in English, I face problems on how to combine words in sentences.

In this rubric, the results obtained show that the majority of students (83.02%) say that they face problems with English combination of words in sentences. Only a few of them (16.98 %) declare that they rarely encounter these kinds of syntactical formation problems. 05 students give no response.

Table IV.8. Students’ errors in English syntax

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	63	36.83%
Sometimes	79	46.19%
Rarely	26	15.21%
Never	03	01.77%

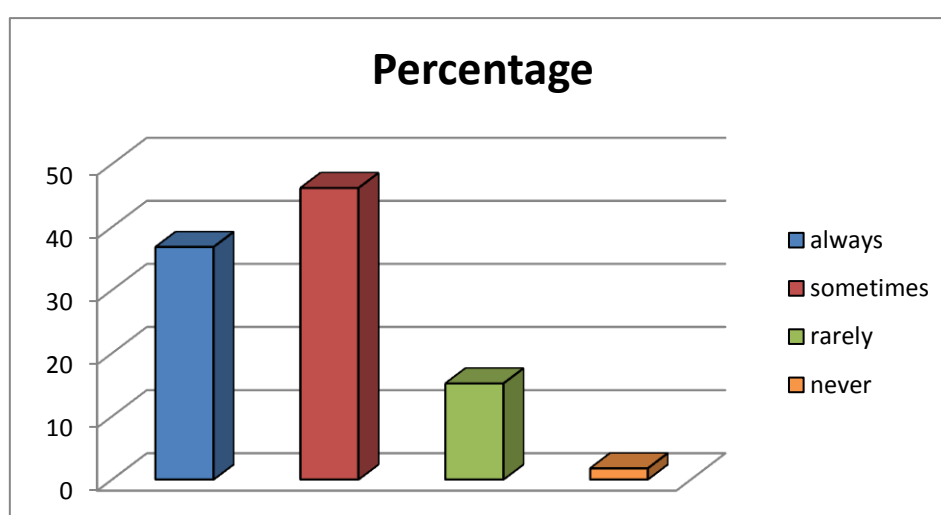


Chart 08: Representation of scores illustrating students’ errors in English syntax

8) Whether they ignore the kind of mistakes they usually make:

Rubric 08: When writing in English, I ignore the kind of mistakes I usually make.

In this section, by mentioning the notion ‘always and sometimes’, most of the students (98.26%) say that it is hard for them to know the kind of mistakes they make when they write; Compared with the minority (01.74%) who report they rarely do. 03 students give no response.

Table IV.9. Students’ possible ignorance of committed mistakes

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	140	80.92%
Sometimes	30	17.34%
Rarely	03	01.74%
Never	00	00.00%

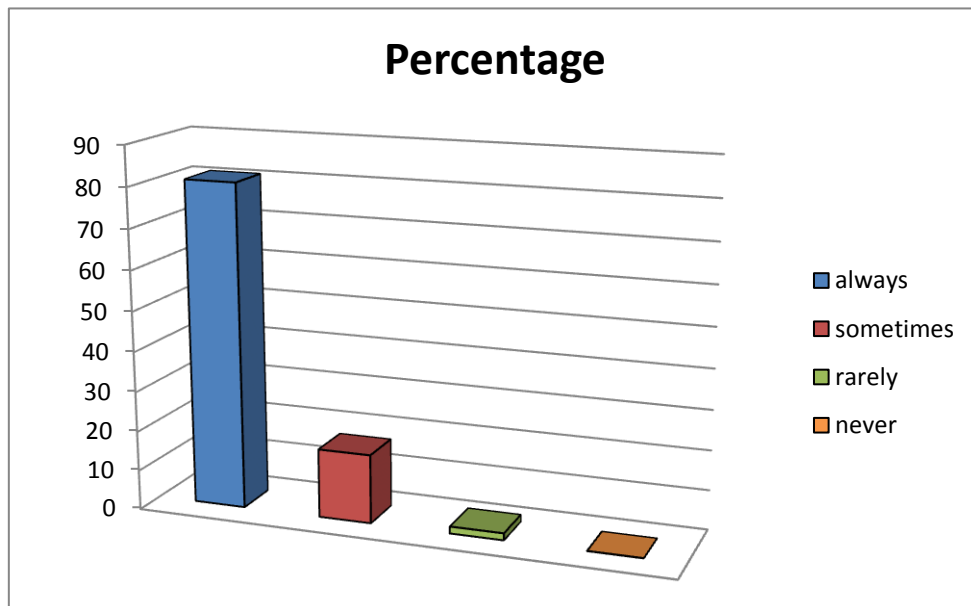


Chart 09: Representation of scores illustrating students’ Ignorance of different mistakes

9) Whether they prepare the task in Arabic, first and then they translate it into English to write in English:

Rubric 09: Before I write in English I prepare the task in Arabic, and then I translate it into English.

The results show clearly that the majority (87.42%) do prepare the task in L1, and then they translate it into English. Only very few (12.58%) say they ‘rarely’ do so. 01 student gives no response.

Table IV.10. Students’ behaviour in writing: translation from Arabic to English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	98	56.00%
Sometimes	55	31.42%
Rarely	15	08.58%
Never	07	04.00%

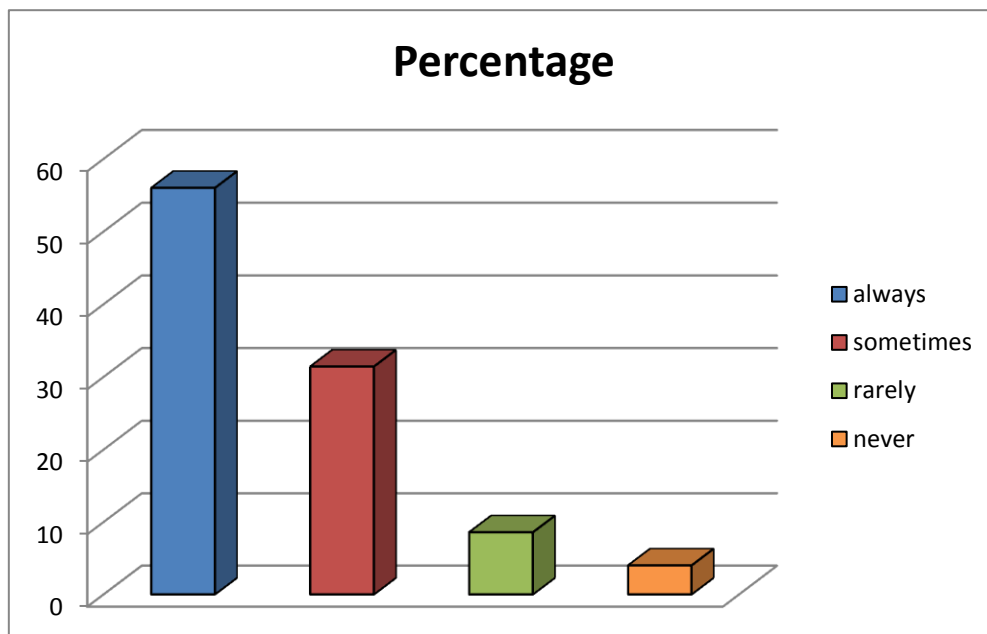


Chart 10: Representation of scores illustrating students’ translation from Arabic language varieties to English

10) Whether they, first think in Classical Arabic, and then they write in English:

Rubric 10: When writing in English, first I think in Classical Arabic, and then I write in English.

In this rubric, most of students (56.81%) say they think in Classical Arabic (CA), before they write in English. Only (43.19 %) say the contrary.

Table IV.11. Students' behaviour in writing: from CA to English

Informants' answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	100	56.81%
Sometimes	56	31.81%
Rarely	12	06.81%
Never	08	04.57%

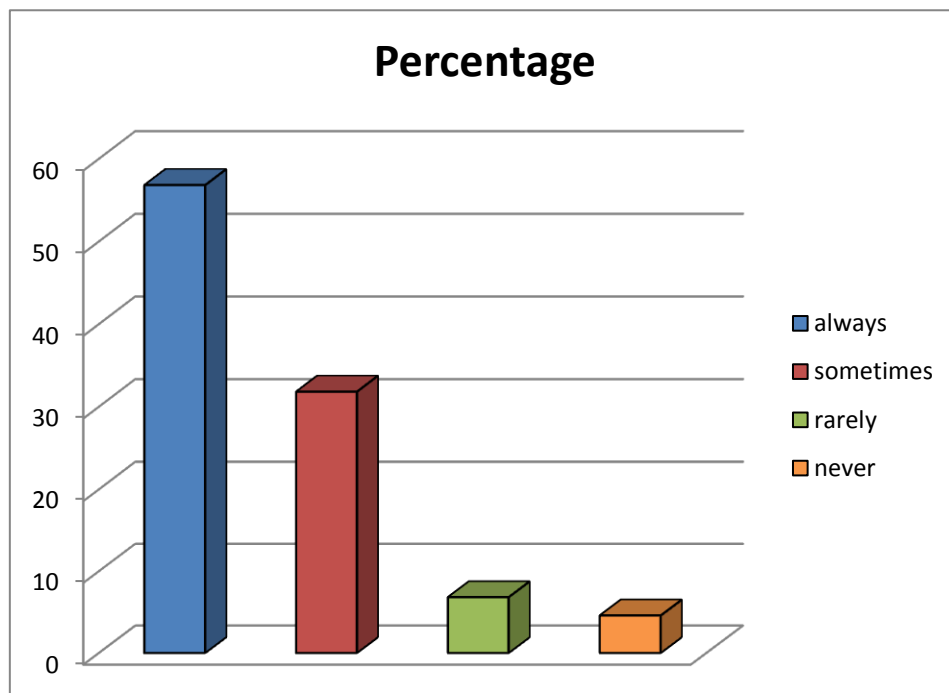


Chart 11: Representation of scores illustrating students' direct translation from CA to English

11) Whether students first think in Algerian Arabic, and then write in English:

Rubric 11: When writing in English, first I think in Algerian Arabic, and then I write in English.

Contrary to what is mentioned in the former rubric, only the minority (12.56%) say that they first think in Algerian Arabic (AA) when they write in English. The majority (87.44%) say they ‘never’ use AA. 01 student gives no response.

Table IV.12. Students’ behaviour in writing: from AA to English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	09	05.14%
Sometimes	13	07.42%
Rarely	32	18.28%
Never	121	69.16%

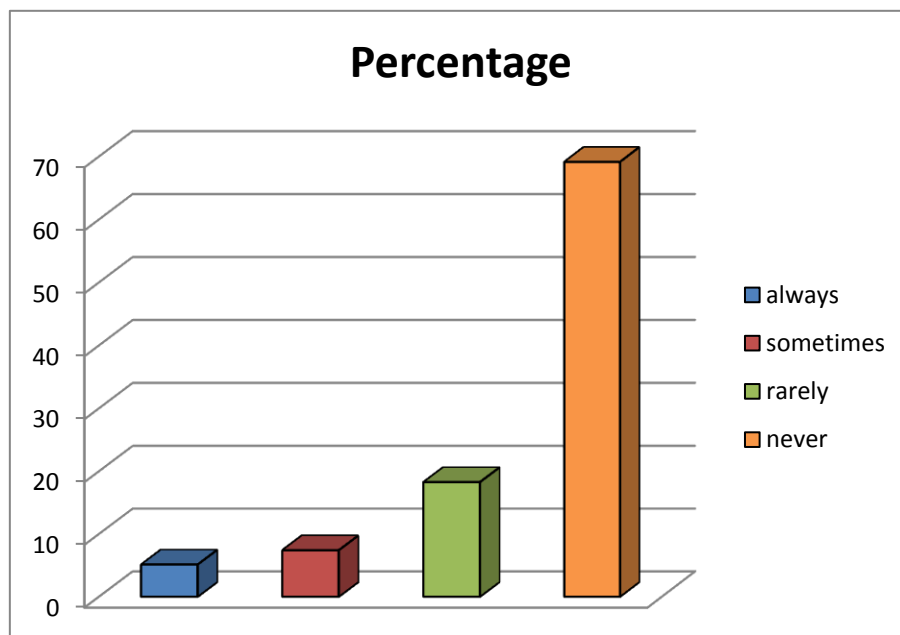


Chart 12: Representation of scores illustrating students’ direct translation from AA to English

12) Whether students first write the sentence structure in Arabic, and then translate it to English when they are asked to write a piece of writing in English:

Rubric 12: When writing in English, I write the structure of the sentence in Arabic, and then I translate it into English.

The results demonstrate that the majority (67.81%) admit that they translate the sentence structure from Arabic into English. It is only the minority (32.19%) who says that they ‘rarely’ make this kind of translation. 02 students give no response.

Table IV.13. Students’ direct translation of grammatical structures from CA to English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	51	29.31%
Sometimes	67	38.50%
Rarely	40	22.99%
Never	16	09.20%

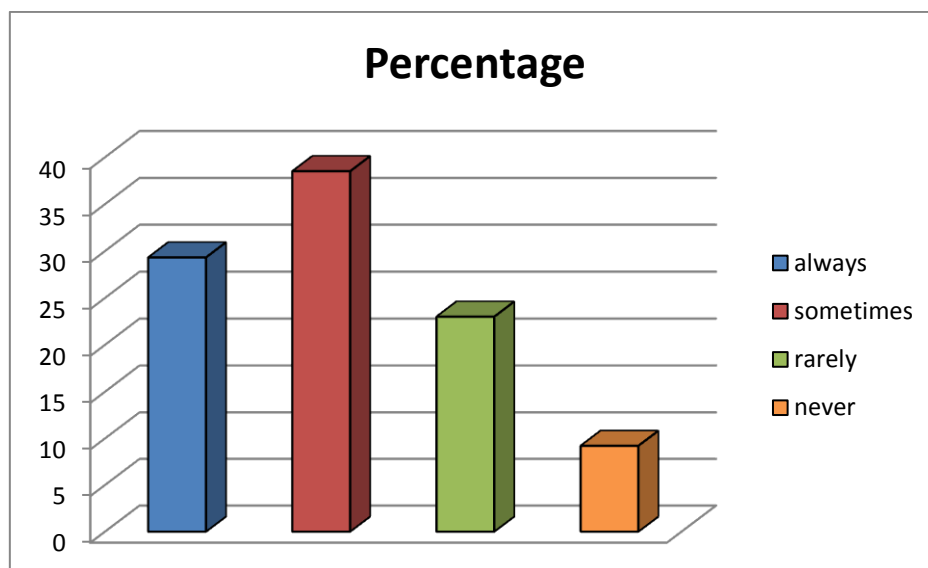


Chart 13: Scores representing students’ direct translation of grammatical structures from CA to English

13) Whether they use an English, Arabic / Arabic, English dictionary when writing in English:

Rubric 13: I use an English/Arabic, Arabic /English dictionary when writing in English.

In this rubric different answers are given. (66.84%) say they ‘always’ use this kind of dictionary, yet this represents the majority. (13.73%) choose the word ‘sometimes’; while (19.43 %) do not use this kind of dictionaries. 01 student gives no response.

Table IV.14. Students’ use of English/Arabic, Arabic /English dictionary

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	117	66.84%
Sometimes	24	13.73%
Rarely	22	12.58%
Never	12	06.85%

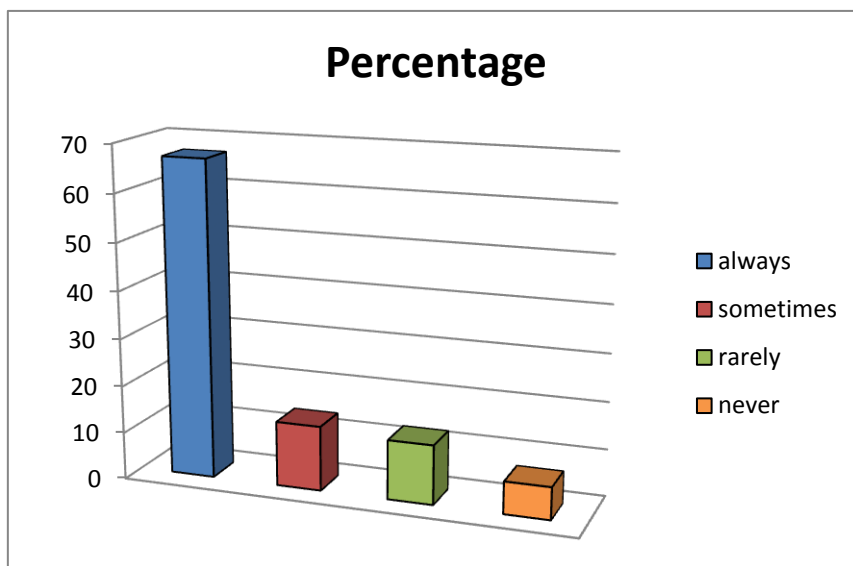


Chart 14: Percentage representing students’ use of English/Arabic, Arabic/English dictionary

14) Whether students use an English/French dictionary when writing in English:

Rubric 14: I use an English/French dictionary when writing in English

The results show that the majority (83.52%) who chooses the notion ‘never’ does not use this kind of dictionary. Only a few of them (01.71%) say that they do so by mentioning the word ‘always’. However (09.09%) use the word ‘rarely’.

Table IV.15. Students’ use of English/French dictionary

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	03	01.71%
Sometimes	10	05.68%
Rarely	16	09.09%
Never	147	83.52%

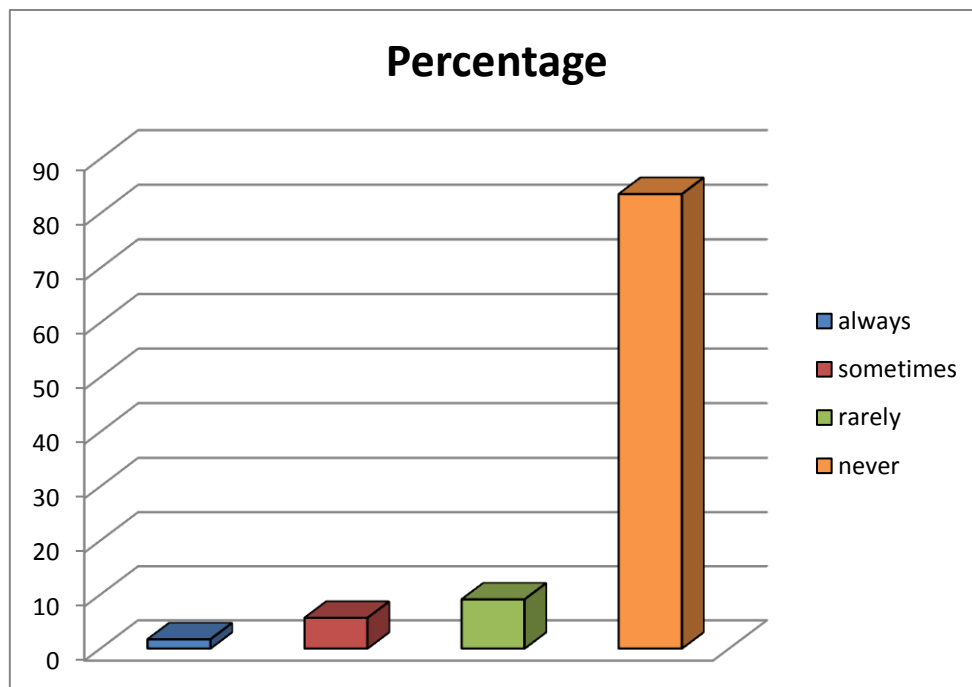


Chart 15: Percentage representing students’ use of English/French dictionary

15) Whether students use an English/English dictionary when writing in English:

Rubric 15: I use an English/English dictionary when writing in English.

It is surprising to see that nearly all students' answers (95.46%) vary between 'rarely' and 'never'. Only (04.54 %) say they use such a dictionary from time to time.

Table IV.16. Students' use of English/English dictionary

Informants' answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	02	01.14%
Sometimes	06	03.40%
Rarely	47	26.71%
Never	121	68.75%

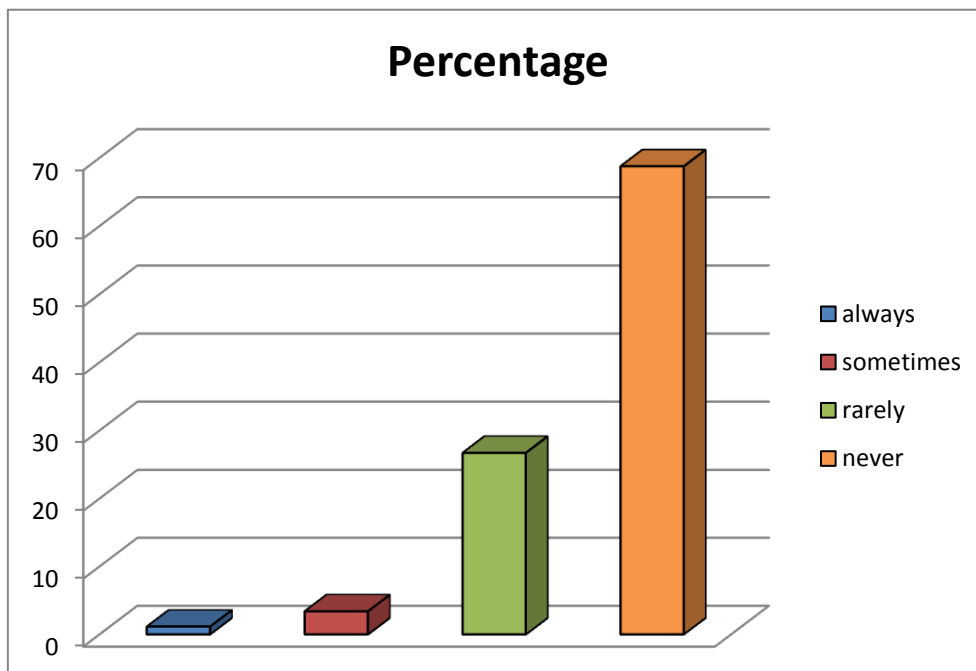


Chart 16: Percentage representing students' use of English/English dictionary

16) Whether students ask the teacher for an explanation in Arabic whenever they need it:

Rubric 16: I ask the teacher for an explanation in Arabic whenever I need it

(52.84%) of students choose the word ‘always’. This represents the majority who asks the teacher for an explanation in Arabic. (25.56%) choose the word ‘sometimes’; while only (21.60%) say they ‘rarely’ do so.

Table IV.17. Students’ needs of teacher’s explanation in Arabic

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	93	52.84%
Sometimes	45	25.56%
Rarely	08	04.55%
Never	30	17.05%

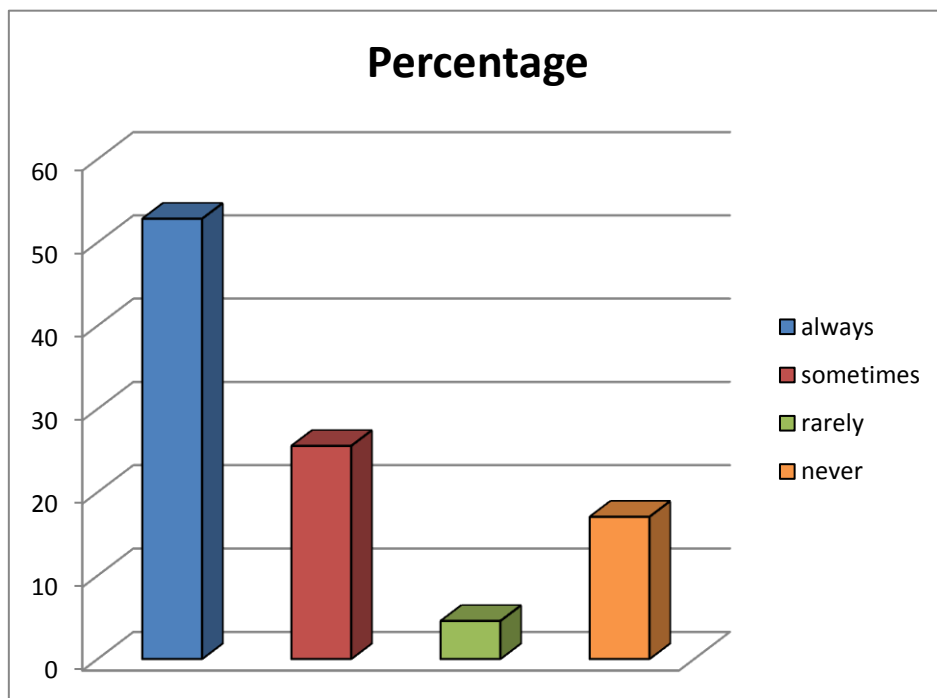


Chart 17: Scores demonstrating students’ needs of teacher’s explanation in Arabic

17) Whether students ask the teacher for an explanation in English whenever they need it:

Rubric 17: I ask the teacher for an explanation in English whenever I need it

Contrary to the results obtained in the former rubric, most of students (82.46%) say they do not ask the teacher for an explanation in English; while, (17.54%) only say they do so. 05 students give no response.

Table IV.18. Students’ needs of teacher’s explanation in English

Informants’ answers	Number of students	Percentage
Always	11	06.43%
Sometimes	19	11.11%
Rarely	54	31.58%
Never	87	50.88%

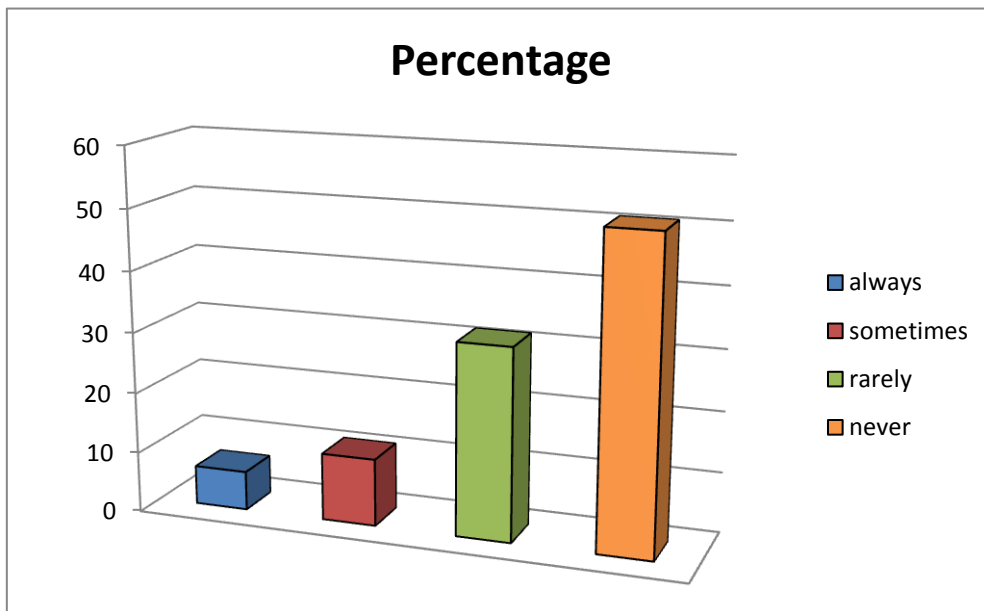


Chart 18: Scores representing students’ needs of teacher’s explanation in English

V.5.2. Judgment Test

As mentioned above, the written test is directed to both the 3rd year 'licence' and 2nd year 'master' students. These students are asked to write a paragraph of about 15 lines about their expectations in the job market once they finish their university studies.

160 written production papers are collected from students in developmental economy (56 papers), marketing (54 papers) and insurance and banking (50 papers) sections. (See 36 sample papers in the annexes immediately after appendices which end in page 376). In the process, nearly an equal number of papers is taken from each department. 11 papers are not considered in the study because the given work is not achieved although the time devoted to the task is an hour and a half. Thus, the number of papers taken into account is 149. The taxonomy of error analysis in this written test is based on the modal work of (Corder 1973:256-294; Brown 2000:207-235; Ellis 1994:47-67; Richards 1974: 12-22). Accordingly, the identification and classification of students' errors include two broad ways: intra-lingual errors (within the structure of the target language itself), and inter-lingual 'interference' errors (see chapter 01 on pages 28/29). This may touch both the system and sub-systems of L2:

1) Grammatical system includes:

a- Morphological errors touch different word-formation such as verbs, adjectives, adverbs...

b- Syntactical errors, such as sentence structure, simple sentences, clauses, phrases, and fragments...

2) Lexical errors (word choice) that cover the vocabulary of L2.

3) Semantic errors which touches either the meaning of a word or a sentence. This may also include the mechanics of language such as capitalization, punctuation, and spelling.

It is worth mentioning that although the focus is put on morpho-syntactic errors; those at the semantic and lexical levels are also counted in this study so as to make a description, a comparison, and then an analysis of the other possible varieties of learners' data errors. A number of other errors are not considered because they do not fill the parameters this work is built on. Thus, the number of all errors is 400 divided into the three sections: economy (201), finance (89), trade (110).

Out of the big number of students' errors, the total number considered in the study, as a sample, is exactly 400 errors divided, according to Brown's (2000:224) classification of sources of errors, into: intralingual (developmental) Errors (**307**) and interlingual (interference) errors (**93**). Intralingual errors: include morphological errors (109), syntactic errors (98), lexical errors (45), and semantic errors (55); while Interlingual errors constitute syntactic errors (53), and semantic errors (40). These results are arranged in the graph as follows:

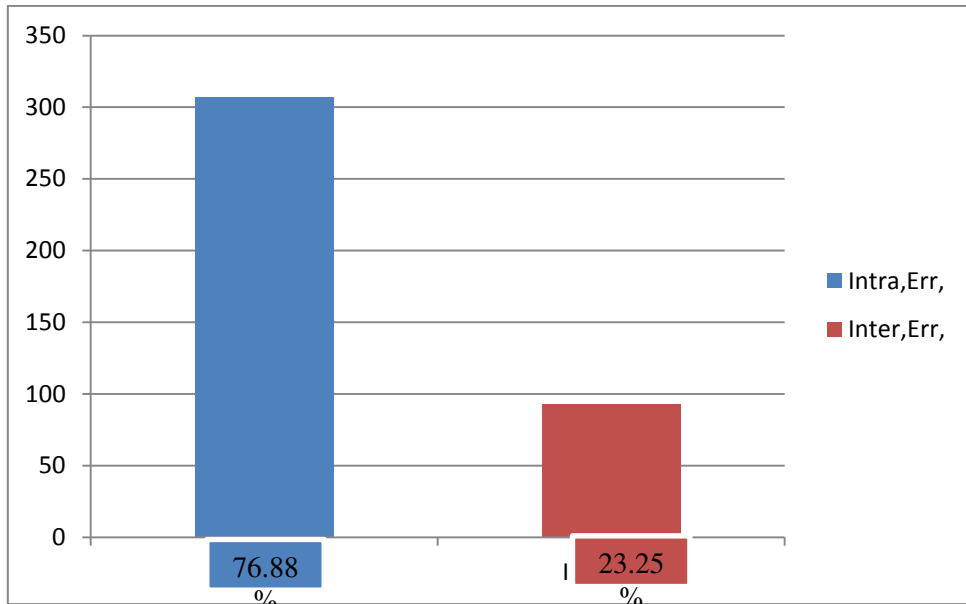


Chart 19: Error Categories

Chart 19 represents students' error categories. Intralingual errors are greater in number than interlingual errors. Contrary to what is hypothesized that students' English writing problems at the economic sciences faculty may be, to a large extent, attributed to L1 interference 'from MSA to English.', the results show clearly that most of students' errors are committed at the intralingual level '76.88%'. This evidence, as shown in the chart, adds another reality that these students err within the structure of English itself. This is illustrated in chart 20 as follows:

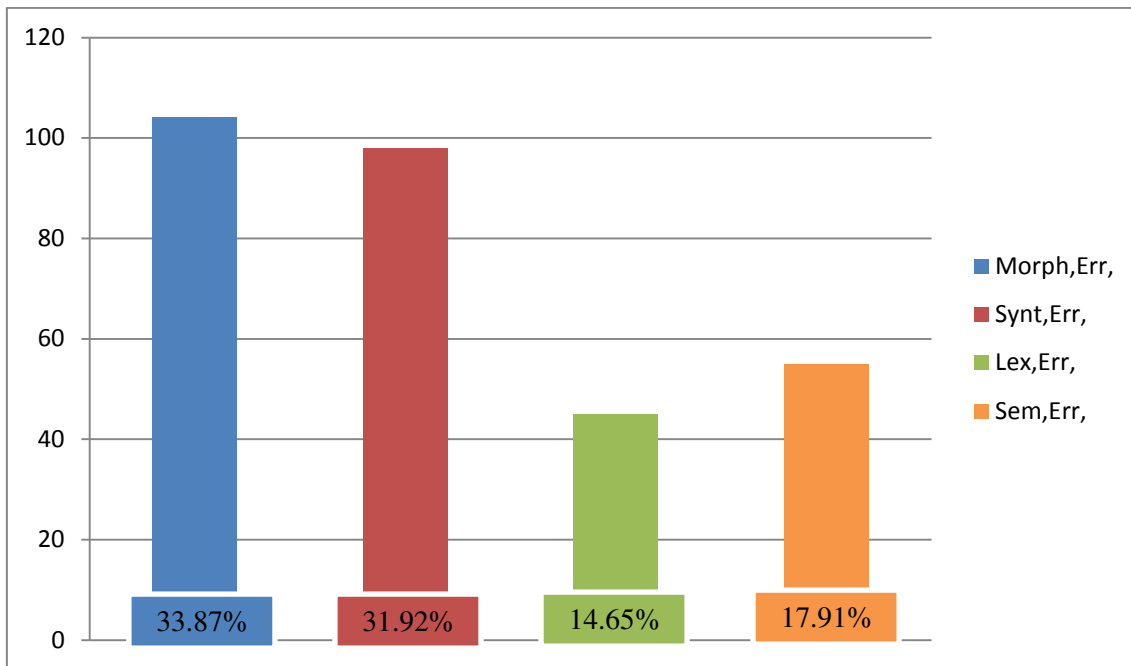


Chart 20: Intralingual Errors

Chart 20 demonstrates that 33.87% of errors present students' weaknesses in word-formation. This (as shown in the appendix 4 on page 372) includes adjectives, verb tense, singular and plural of nouns, articles, possessive case, demonstratives, ... 31.92% of errors are syntactical, which means that they exist mostly at the level of sentence word-order (see appendix 4 on page 373). 14.65% are lexical errors comprising wrong word-choice, especially, and 17.91 % are semantic errors in the form of meaning deviated from the correct intentional target. In the following sentences, there are samples demonstrating both intralingual and interlingual errors. (For further examples, see appendices 03 to 08 from page 356 to page 370)

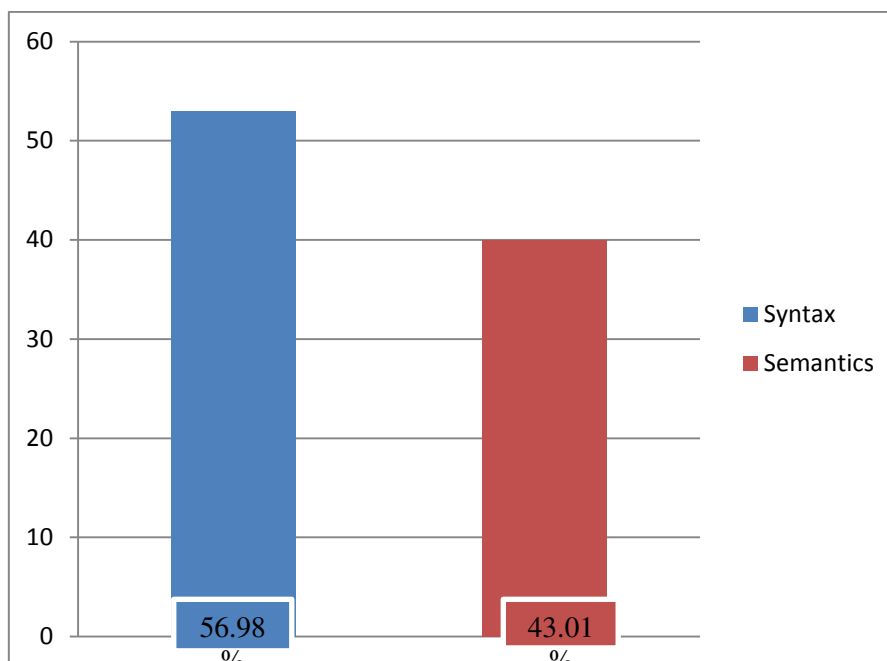


Chart 21: Interlingual Errors

V.5.2.1. Samples of Students' Intralingual Errors

V.5.2.1.1. Morphological Errors:

V.5.2.1.1.1. *Faulty Overgeneralization*

V.5.2.1.1.1.1. Selection of incorrect elements

..no encouraging to the searching technology and educating.

This means that there is injustic in Algeria.

..most of the employers doing there job.

Troubles begin from the announcinging of jobs...

..the young one's do not bear these situations.

..the job market complication the number of ...

..is very difficult and have many complicated.

Some companies have especially conditions.

V.5.2.1.1.1.2. Omission of required elements

The situation of the job market in Algeria is getting to bad.

..the weak of regulations...

..which provokes jobless.

..which include market__and sales.

.. and in the same time which mak your opportunity very weak.

In other side there are some....

I like to work___ a clerk at a bank or a postoffice.

V.5.2.1.1.1.3. Addition of unnecessary elements

..which makes people faced a lot of difficulties.

In Algeria there is no balance between graduaters and the Job market.

If you are a graduated student and you search for a work..

..because they have the capability of professional ant the experience.

..you work at the place you chosed yourself.

.. the influence of nepotism to geting a job is..

.. because of pooverty and unknown persons.

V.5.2.1.1.2. *Incomplete Application of Rules*

V.5.2.1.1.2.1. Selection of Incorrect Elements

The student who have a desire to work as he likes..

..his hope being destroyed at the beginning of his life.

..or you won't be acceptable in all...

If someone study Geometry at the end he finds himself occupying a teaching post.
Troubles begun from the announcement of ...
If they had the will, they would fought nepotism and...
Some companies has great potentialities to solve...
..and sometimes we found that people with diplomas do not realize their dreams to..

V.5.2.1.1.2.2. Omission of Required Elements

..complication of a job market create problems for...
..the employers for win the efforts, money and time.
Most of the employers doing there job...
The national service become an obstacle towards...
The number of graduates increase but they don't get a job.
Everyone want to work in easy condition.
.. and most of the job market that ...
..giving someone money to get work without make any efforts.

V.5.2.1.1.2.3. Addition of Unnecessary Elements

..to achieve an interesting things.
The job market is difficult to getting.
..and have problems with peoples in a way...
The falling of national income...
..rather than agriculture and industry that leads to...
..corrupted responsible who tooked a lot of money using their powers.
..because people mostly depends on public companies to..

They all need experience to...

They also suffer from lack of competence.

General Results: 1) Learners' Intralingual Errors

Sub-category: 1) Morphology

Number of Errors: 109

Taxonomy of Error	Faulty over-generalization	Incomplete Application Of rules
Selection of incorrect elements	17	21
Omission of required elements	12	30
Addition of unnecessary Elements	14	15

Table IV.19. Taxonomy of intralingual morphological errors

This is represented on the graph as follows:

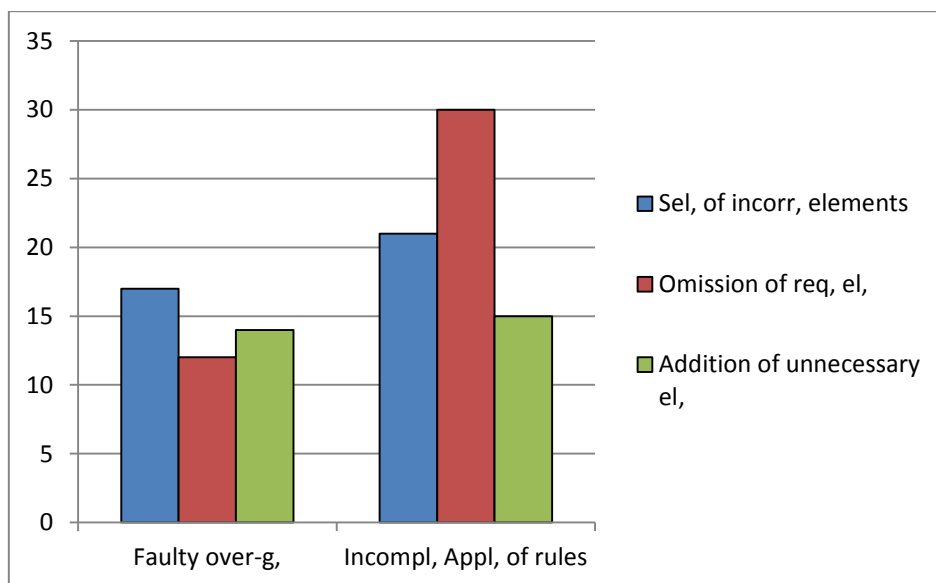


Chart 22: Taxonomy & number of morphological errors

V.5.2.1.2. Syntactic Errors:

V.5.2.1.2.1. *Ignorance of Rule Restrictions*

V.5.2.1.2.1.1. Selection of Incorrect Elements

Those are hard workers whom deserve...

..because they haven't noany ambitions in life.

There are some who struggle so that to feed their family members.

One should always seek after the best opportunities which...

..after being concerned with the posts given at the ...

..the military service becomes an obstacle for men, they can't get jobs.

There is a post of work the manager gives to the people who he knows.

..because they concern with the diplomas they get at different schools and universities.

V.5.2.1.2.1.2. Omission of Required Elements

Most of employees are concerned with stated rules.

..even if you haven't will and capacities...

You must have looking for a solution which...

So, how they suppose to be experts if they...?

..no good investments rise our economic potentialities.

job market in Algeria is getting more and more ...

People are suffering from many problems like corruption, bribery.

V.5.2.1.2.1.3. Addition of Unnecessary/Incorrect Elements

The most of the workers do not assume their responsibility.
The phenomenon of racism appears in all the domains.
Bribery which is an unfair way that destroys the social norms of society.
Despite of the problems that one may encounter...
..do not trust on the new graduates students' efforts...
The problem of bribery it's a dangerous phenomenon.
Social problems are spread through the joblessness.

V.5.2.1.2.1.4. Misordering of Certain Elements

..because there are no strategiesplanned.
In our society, it becomes hardreally to get a job.
..government towards the development of many strategies work.
It not only is a reaction against the job demanders, but...
those students who alreadyhavegot their diplomas from..
..as the number of jobscreated is sufficient for a big number of ...

V.5.2.1.2.2. *False Hypothesized Concepts*

V.5.2.1.2.2.1. Omission of Required Elements

The problem in Algeria context is they neglect totally...
To have a job in our country is something becomes too difficult.

Second, the educational level, because in Algeria...
..because responsible people don't respect laws
and conditions.

There are a lot of people face these hard moments
especially..

..they can provide him any kind of work he wants.

Students don't find jobs according to their study.

...

V.5.2.1.2.2.2. Addition of Unnecessary/Incorrect Elements

..as they study about the modules which are not available...

..good skills those are preferable in...

..as a result of lack of job opportunities has brought
depression and hopelessness among the youth.

All the preoccupations concerning about the old workers...

..how people interact within through markets to get...

Studies always and often reveal why people behave in
particular way.

Young people are very ready to take advantage of the
retirement...

V.5.2.1.2.2.3. Misordering of Certain Elements

..the impacts growing of modern forms of economy.

..the unemployment analysis problem and its causes..

I neither have skills nor experience, but I have the will...

..different categories of Algerian young people who receive

a diploma professional in public or private sectors.
 They don't only accept girls wearing Hidjab, but as well
 they ignore their capacities.
 ..and how canoneimprove himself and his skills.
 ..of others and are ready for big challenge they will confront
already.
 I am seeking to turn my passion into my career future.

Sub-category: **2)Syntax**

Number of Errors: **98**

Taxonomy of Error	False Hypothesized Concepts	Ignorance of rule restriction
Selection of incorrect elements	07	25
Omission of required elements	09	19
Addition of unnecessary Elements	08	14
Misordering of Elements	07	09

Table IV.20. Taxonomy of intralingual syntactic errors

This is represented in the graph as follows:

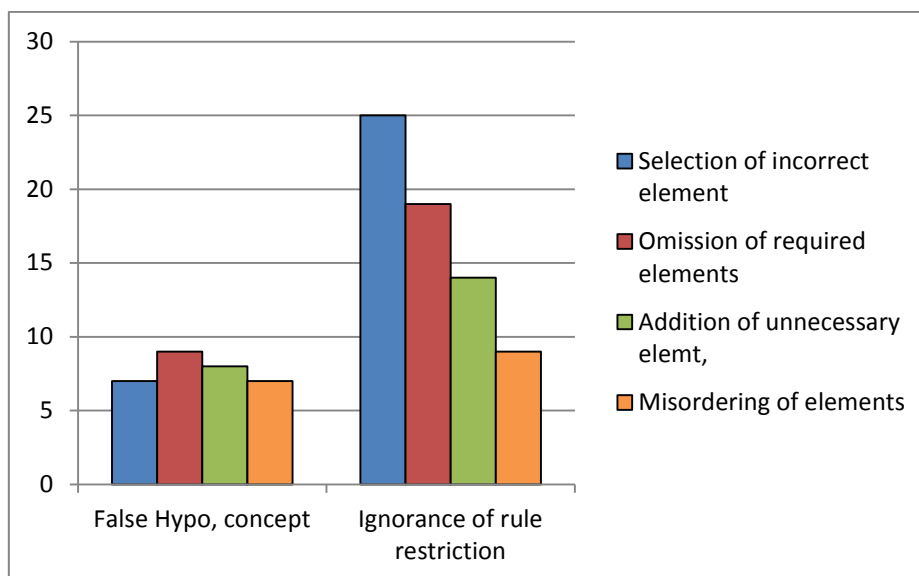


Chart 23: Representation of students' intralingual syntactic errors

V.5.2.1.3. Lexical Errors:

False hypothesized Concepts

In Algeria we have a lot of handworking.

..to have an honourable job in these complicated situations needs patient.

..because employees are expected to make hard tests during...

Lastly, the lack of expertise which affects the practical progress...

..which contains very old workers who do not want to retire.

..in some states to be employable such as...

Favouritism gives advantage to someone who does not favour this job.

In our society, most of them are bribe in any domain not only at work.

..all this is a source of careless of government.

..in order to acquire jobs or benefits from ...

Third, luck of capability of professional...

Sub-category: **3) Lexis**

Number of Errors: **47**

Taxonomy of Errors	False Hypothesised Concept
Wrong word-choice	29
Misspelling	18

Table IV.21. Taxonomy of intralingual lexical errors

This is represented in the graph as follows:

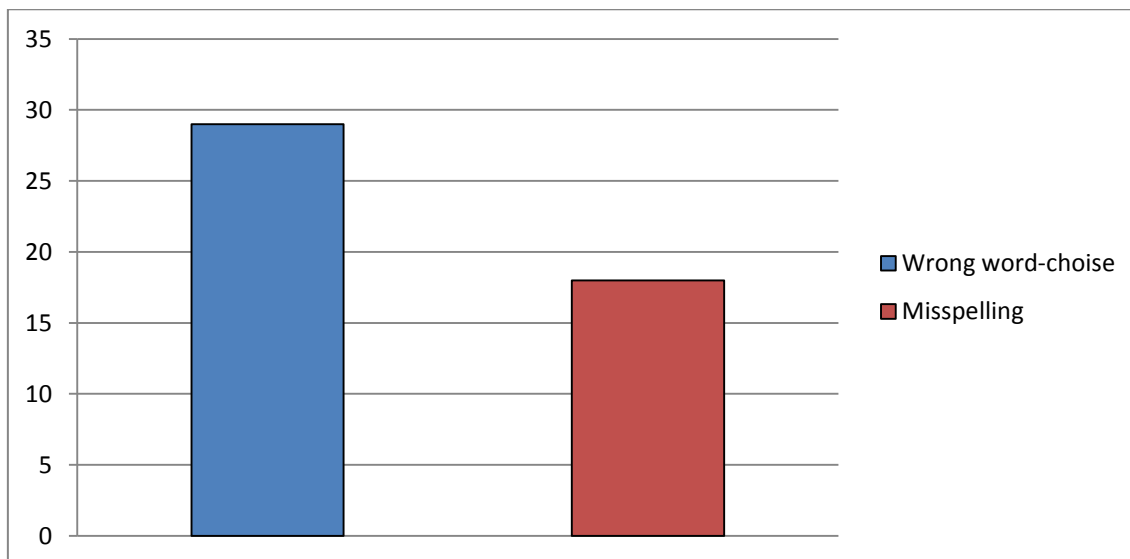


Chart 24: Representation of students' intralingual lexical errors

V.5.2.1.4. Semantic Errors:

..helped by some workers in the educational union. (meaning)

First, nepotism takes an important role in our society. (mean.)

..helped by some workers in the educational union. (mean.)

..for greedy people, like when you ask for a job. (mean.)

This causes a great stir today because there is no equality.

(mean.)

..without the reform which is important. (mean.)

..like selling illegal staff, illegal business... (mean.)

..other mishaps would prevent them from attaining any other objectives and among them a job. (mean.)

People think that the lower job as baker or ironsmith is less within Algeria context. (mean.)

The job market is controlled by bribery... (mean.)

One of its features is the emergence of bureaucracy. (mean.)

..of bureaucracy(.)for example(.)an employee sticks to his job... (punctuation.)

It is caused by the corruption feature and... (mean.)

..the number of job seekers is more than work places. (mean.)

For example(.)the government spent billions of... (punct.)

indeed, bribery makes it even harder... (capitalization.)

They need experience, capacities and high level. (mean.)

People are suffering from many problems like :

corruption...(punct.)

Establishments are decreasing more and more which reduce the number of jobs. (mean.)

..as his place was taken by another guy who... (mean.)
 .. but there are people who are educated and qualified... (cap.)
in addition, most of workers are foreigners and... (cap.)
 ..lack of prinsipols often leads to... (spelling)
 ..and make many distinctions between people. (mean.)
Enfair people are those who are trusted by .. (spell.)

Sub-category: **4)Semantics**

Number of Errors: **56**

meaning	Punctuation	Capitalisation	Spelling
20	15	12	09

Table IV.22. Taxonomy of intralingual semantic errors

This is represented in the graph as follows:

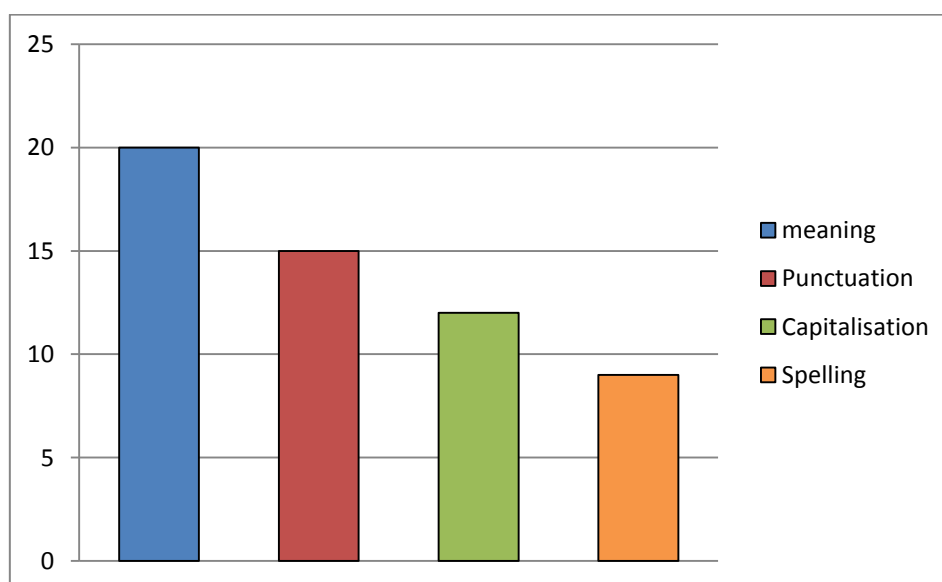


Chart 25: Represenation of taxonomy of students' intralingual semantic errors

V.5.2.2. Samples of Students' Interlingual Errors

V.5.2.2.1. Syntactic Errors:

Faulty Overgeneralization

V.5.2.2.1.1. Selection of incorrect elements

'So, it lets them stay without job in complete joblessness.'

(CA) 'إذن فهي تجعلهم بدون عمل في بطالة دائمة'

'Nepotism and bribery are destroying our country bit by bit.'

(CA) 'المحسوبية والرشوة تدمران بلدنا إربا إربا'

'..an opportunity to use my skills and my experience.'

(CA) '..فرصة لاستعمال مهاراتي و خبرتي.'

'..government towards the development of many strategies work.'

'..الحكومة باتجاه تطور العديد من استراتيجيات العمل'

'..the impacts growing of modern forms of economy.'

'..الأحداث المتطورة للأشكال الحديثة للاقتصاد'

'The reason is that there is no good investments to...'

'السبب هو عدم وجود استثمارات حقيقية ل..'

There are people who get jobs by bribery who the responsables take from them.

'هنالك أناس يحصلون على المناصب بالرشوة التي يأخذها منهم المسؤولين.'

IV.5.2.2.1.2. Omission of required elements

So, is difficult to get a job in Algeria

'إذن، صعب للحصول على عمل في الجزائر'

'Even who has no competence or not professional in that domain...'

'حتى الذي ليس عنده تأهيل أو ليس مختص في هذا المجال..'

'Students who apply to same work are numerous.'

'الطلبة الذين يطلبون نفس العمل هم كثيرون.'

'.. that why they should help us...'

'.. لذلك لا بد عليهم مساعدتنا..'

'There are a lot of university students have a degree, but they still jobless.'

'يوجد العديد من طلبة الجامعة عندهم مؤهل، لكن لا يزالون عاطلون عن العمل'

'In Algeria if you know someone has acquaintance and you have money..' (AA)

'(AA) في الجزائر إذا كنت تعرف واحد عنده العرف ولعندك الدراهم..'

'It put under the disposal of investors.'

'توضع تحت تصرف المستثمرين.'

V.5.2.2.1.3. Addition of unnecessary elements

Moreover than that...

'زيادة على ذلك...'

The phenomenon of racism appears in all the domains

'ظاهرة العنصرية تظهر في جميع الميادين'

To gain money is the desirable aim of the most of people

'رياح المال هو الهدف المراد للأغلبية خن الناس'

..the most of the Algerian people

'الأغلبية للشعب الجزائري'

The nepotism that plays an important role in getting a job.

'المحسوبية التي تلعب دور مهم في الحصول على عمل'

..which is spread inthesenowadays.

'..التي هي منتشرة في أيامنا هذه'

The lack of specialties in Algeria is as an obstacle to people.

'نقص التخصصات في الجزائر هي بمثابة عرقلة للناس'

..which is the nepotism and the bribery.

'..التي هي المحسوبية والرشوة'

V.5.2.2.1.4. Misordering of Elements

.. of most of people Algerian

'الأغلبية الشعب الجزائري'

There is no receiving from the companies responsables.

'لا يوجد أي استقبـال من الشركات المسؤولة'

In our society, it becomes hardvery to get a job.

'في مجتمعنا أصبح صعب جدا الحصول على عمل'

‘Most of the students university want to get a job when they finish their studies.’

'الأكثرية من طلبة الجامعة يريدون الحصول على عمل عندما ينهون الدراسة.'

‘Also students prepare themselves for job opportunities.’ (CA)

'كذلك الطلاب يحضرون أنفسهم لفرص العمل'

‘Those holders diploma like to a get a job quickly.’

'الذين يحملون الشهادة يحبون أن يحصلوا على عمل بسرعة.'

‘..different categories of young people Algerian who receive..’

'باختلاف أطياف الشباب الجزائري الذين يستقبلون..'

General Results: 2) Learners' Interlingual Errors

Sub-category: 1) Syntax

Number of Errors: **53**

Taxonomy of Error	Faulty over-generalization
Selection of incorrect elements	15
Omission of required elements	13
Addition of unnecessary Elements	08
Misordering of Elements	17

Table IV.23. Taxonomy of Interlingual syntactic errors

This is represented in the chart as follows:

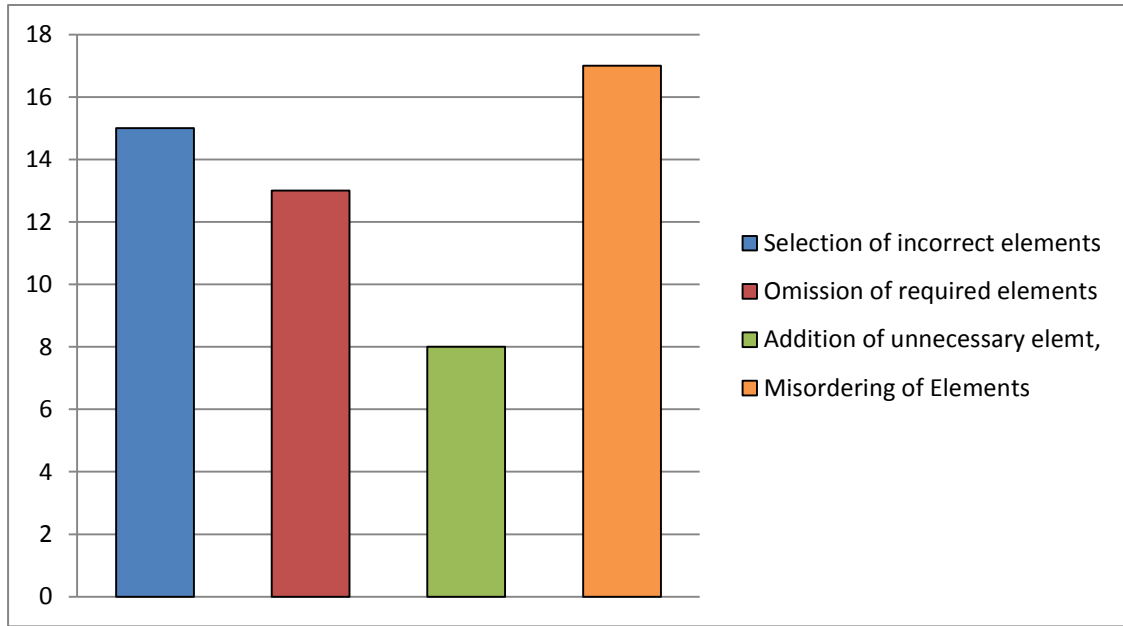


Chart 26: Representation of Taxonomy of students' interlingual syntactic errors

V.5.2.2.2. Semantic Errors: concerns only 'meaning'

Faulty Overgeneralization

..that are neglected between people

'التي أهملت بين الناس'

..and to try to swallow the bitter of the job market.

' ومحاولة جرع مر سوق العمل'

..because they are not qualified to earn a job.

'..لأنهم ليسوا أكفاء للحصول على عمل'

There is no job without nepotism

'لا يوجد عمل بدون محسوبية'

..as Muslims, we are allowed to give the underpayment in order have a job. (AA تحاتي) i.e., ‘money to be given as a bribe, but in a secret way.

'..كمسلمين، يسمح لنا بالتخليص تحاتي للحصول على عمل'

It is rather your shoulders in this life... (AA لكتاف) i.e., ‘nepotism’

'كتافك برك في ذا الدنيا'

'..by most accounts..'

' بأكثر الحسابات..'

'.. and the warmth of your pocket that will help you get a job.'

(AA سخانة نتاع الجيب) i.e., ‘money to be given as a bribe’

'..و سخانة نتاع الجيب هي اللي تعاونك تدي خدمة.'

..which represents a big number in the Algerian economy.

'التي تمثل رقما كبيرا في الاقتصاد الوطني'

It's not what you know, but whom you know (AA)

' ماشي واش تعرف، بصح شكون تعرف'

His place was taken by another guy who... (AA)

'بلاصتو دهالو وحدآخر'

..which contains very old workers who do not want to retire.

' التي تحتوي على عمال قدماء الذين لا يريدون التقاعد.'

'..they can spend the three years easy.'

' هم يستطيعوا قضاء ثلاث سنوات بسهولة.'

Sub-category: 2)Semantics

Number of Errors: 40

Taxonomy of Errors	Faulty Overgeneralization
Wrong word-choice	21
Misspelling	12
L1 influence	07

Table IV.24. Taxonomy of Interlingual semantic errors

This is represented in the chart as follows:

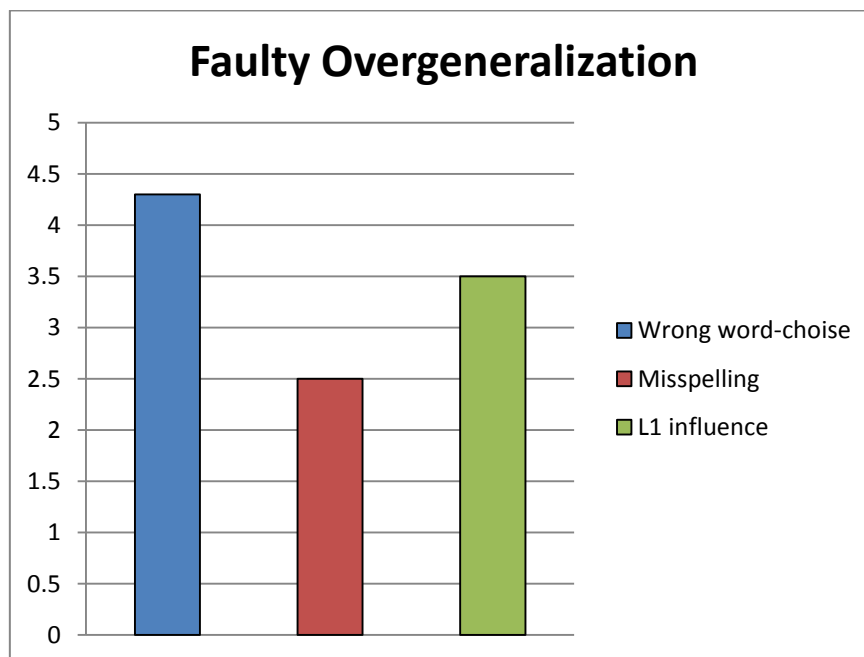


Chart 27: Representation taxonomy of students' Interlingual semantic errors

Except for the few erroneous compound-complex sentences resulting from students' L1 interference, most of the other errors comprise simple, compound and complex sentences including the misuse of coordinating, correlative and subordinating conjunctions. Students' misordering of sentence elements creates an incoherent relationship within different clauses. (See kind and number of errors in appendix 06 p. 366)

V.6. Result Discussion

V.6.1. Questionnaire Result Discussion (QRD)

Learners' attitude is an important variable in language study. The interest towards the subject being studied depends on the learners' positive or negative view of language. Positive attitudes towards a language often raise the learners' curiosity, motivate and enrich their interest and will to learn it, whereas negative attitudes may develop in them a sense of hatred which leads them to abandon the objectives they might have before.

The results obtained in the questionnaire show that the majority of informants feel comfortable and confident. Thus, they have great interest and desire to write in English; although they find this task to be more difficult in this language than in Arabic because the writing skill, for them, is the most difficult of all learning skills. Its difficulty lies in students' problems to find the ideas that help them write, as well as the correct structure or word form to avoid grammatical errors.

To overcome the problems encountered when dealing with this language skill, students rely on L1 'Arabic' use by translating

the form of words, the structure of the sentence and the distribution of words in sentences from L1 to L2. The use of an Arabic / English dictionary is the most desirable for them and teachers' explanation in Arabic is the most needed of all other explanations. This reveals that L1 is the most suitable tool students use to write with in English.

V.6.2. Judgment Test Result Discussion (JTRD)

The errors committed by learners, as shown in the chart number 19 on page 271, reveal that most of them are intralingual, while those caused by the mother tongue interference are of a small proportion and are primarily due to students' faulty inferences about the TL. Despite the fact that students have already studied certain rules of grammar, they still commit nearly the same errors. Those errors are categorized into different types: morphological, syntactic, lexical and semantic. They result from students' faulty overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, or ignorance of rules restriction. Students usually err by selecting the incorrect elements, omitting required elements and adding unnecessary elements. This includes the wrong use of articles, prepositions, possessive case, demonstratives, and both inflection and derivation forms of words such as those in adjectives, adverbs, verb tense, and singular and plural forms of nouns.

Serious ambiguities are spotted in students' papers as a result of their ignorance of some rules of L2 structures. This can be summed up in their misordering of words in sentences, inability to

use 'to be' with 'there' to express the existential or representative function, the incorrect use of relative pronouns and other subordinating conjunctions in different clauses, confusion in verb transitivity, direct and indirect object, verb tense in reported speech , passive form construction, and subject-verb agreement. The results also show evidence of high frequency of L1 interlingual syntactic transfer both in phrases and clauses as a result of students' limited linguistic knowledge.

Apart from students' morpho-syntactic errors, lexical and semantic errors also result from their wrong choice of appropriate words in convenient contexts. This is mostly demonstrated in the substitution of a word for another, as in the case of prepositions, articles, demonstratives, etc. The incorrect spelling of words, punctuation and capitalization are also found in students' papers. This very often makes students' written production incomprehensible.

Conclusion:

Chapter Five is meant to diagnose students' errors in English writings and the possible reasons behind them. For this purpose, two methods of investigation are used to study the possible factors underlying students' deficiencies in writing: a questionnaire devoted to students' behaviour in writing and a judgment test to gather evidence about the kind of errors they make in writing. The conclusions that can be drawn from this chapter are as follows:

- 1) Writing seems to be a difficult skill in EFL learning. It poses tremendous challenges to students who are often confronted with their committing of high frequencies of errors.
- 2) Most of the errors are due to L1 and L2 different systems.
- 3) Contrary to what is hypothesized in this study, the majority of errors are not attributed to L1 interference.
- 4) Most of students' errors are intralingual.
- 5) Several of students' errors result from their word-for-word translation from L1 'CA'.
- 6) Students' errors are usually due to their ignorance of morphological rules, as in the case of word inflections to form the plural of words, comparatives and superlative forms of adjectives, present simple, regular past tense, present participle; or derivations to form the different parts of speech such as nouns, adjectives and adverbs through the use of morphemes plus affixes.
- 7) Students' incorrect use of syntactic structures happen by misordering certain elements, omitting necessary, or adding unnecessary elements as a result of their incomplete application of rules of L2. The errors may include different phrases, basic sentence patterns, compound sentences or clauses; order of modifiers, order of words in reported speech and the passive voice, tag questions, etc.
- 8) Students' use of inappropriate words as a result of their limited range of vocabulary.
- 9) Students' word spelling and capitalization errors, as well as their poor handwriting.
- 10) Students' deficiency in clear self-expression as a result of their false hypothesized concepts usage.

11) Students and teachers' excess use of the mother tongue in English classes; i.e., students use L1 to ask teachers to clear the possible ambiguities and teachers explain and form their instructions in the same language.

By and large, students' errors are numerous. Whatever the years spent in learning English writing skill, they remain to mark students' interlanguage as a strategy which includes their interference, avoidance, fossilization, and overuse behaviours.

Chapter six deals with the general conclusion from which possible remedial works, research implications and recommendations can be suggested.

CHAPTER

SIX

Chapter VI: Pedagogical Implications and

Recommend

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Conclusion

Introduction:

Chapter six includes two sections: the first one deals with teachers' checklist, so that the recommendations it suggests may fit with the results and validation of the research. In the second section, the main limitations of the study are set out and followed by pedagogical and research implications. It ends with some concluding remarks and recommendations with respect to the contributions this work may offer at the level of different English writings. It means to bring extra changes, adjust and improve course content selection and methodological procedures that may increase students' motivational force able to enhance their innate drives and develop their writing quality.

VI.A.1.Checklist

The check list is directed to twenty five teachers. Because the number of university teachers in Tiaret (14 teachers) was not sufficient to the study, some experienced secondary school teachers are consulted for collaboration and they accept their assistance. Eleven teachers are chosen in the process, which means that the informants' number is twenty five in all.

In this check list, teachers are requested to provide information about their attitudes on the main reasons behind students' weaknesses in English writings. This is meant to give an answer to the hypothesis that the socio-cultural and educational context where students learn to write may also have negative effects on their writing performance. Thus, they are asked to fill in

the table with ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ to discuss three main points subdivided into different sub-points. These points are as follows:

a) Students’ weak foundation, which includes the nature of English as a foreign language, students’ lack of motivation, their negative attitude towards English, and teachers’ lack of interest in teaching.

b) Linguistic environment, characterized by teachers and students’ excess use of L1, students’ few opportunities to practice English, and a completely isolated English culture.

c) Method of teaching, as the case of inadequacy of the designed programme, traditional methods of instruction, students’ negative L1 transfer (either from MSA or AA to English), and lack of writing practice in educational institutions.

VI.A.1.1. Students’ Weak Foundation

The results obtained from the list show that 25 teachers being asked (100.00%) agree on the fact that the status of English as a foreign language itself may be the main cause behind students’ weaknesses in writing.

In the second rubric, 23 teachers confirm the idea about students’ ignorance of the rules of L2 ‘English’ when marking (92.00%) out of those questioned in the process. Only 2 teachers (8.00%) do not see that all students ignore the rules of L2.

In the third part, which deals with students' attitude towards English, 6 teachers (24.00%) say students have a negative attitude towards English; whereas, 19 of them (76.00%) say the contrary.

During the 3rd point of the first rubric, all the teachers (100.00%) agree upon the idea that teachers do not lack interest in teaching. They say teachers have strong will to work with students in all circumstances.

VI.A.1.2. Linguistic Environment

What can be noticed in this section is that 22 teachers (88.00%) express the idea that both teachers and students' excess use of the mother tongue 'Arabic' in English classes. 3 of the requested teachers (12.00%) choose the adverb 'No' to say the contrary.

Concerning the idea of students' few opportunities to practice English, 24 of the teachers (98.00%) adopt for 'Yes'. There is no environment other than the classroom where English is used. Only one (02.00%) who stands against this idea.

The last point of the second rubric is devoted to teachers' opinion about English culture and its possible teaching with English language. 23 of them (92.00%) agree upon the fact that English culture is isolated and that the English used inside the classroom is devoid of any cultural aspects with too much

artificiality and very little realistic language. Only 2 teachers (8.00%) adopt for 'Yes'.

VI.A.1.3. Teaching and Learning Method

This last rubric starts with the observation whether the designed English programme is adequate or not. Although this observation is too broad, teachers provide precised answers. 12 of them (48.00%) state that it is adequate to the drawn objectives; while 13 (52.00%) say that it is inadequate.

Concerning the second point about whether traditional medium of instructions are used, 16 teachers (64.00%) admit that the traditional method is still used by most instructors in all types of English writings. 9 of them (36.00%), however, say traditional method of instruction is no longer used alone.

22 of teachers in the third section of the third rubric (84.00%) state that students' direct translation is from MSA to English. This means that students rely on L1 to write in L2, which may lead to serious interference errors. Only 3 (16.00%) of them choose the notion 'No'; i.e., there is no direct translation from CA.

The forth section concerns students' possible direct translation from AA. Except for the minority who adopt for 'Yes' 2 (08.00%), nearly all teachers '23' (92.00%) mention the notion 'No'. Students, according to them do not use AA to make translation in writing.

The last part of the last rubric concerns teachers' opinion about students' lack of writing practice in educational institutions. Here 22 (88.00%) of the informants share the idea that the time devoted to the different writing skills is insufficient for students to improve their competencies, contrary to 3 teachers (12.00%) who see that these students do have enough opportunities to express themselves in this skill.

VI.A.2. Checklist Result Discussion (CLRD)

The results obtained from the checklist show that teachers agree upon the fact that the status of English as a foreign language itself may be the main cause behind students' weaknesses in writing. This means that students lacking the intuitive knowledge of native speakers of English are exposed to learn a language which is not theirs, with its own grammar, lexicon, and pronunciation. This may also demonstrate their weak inductive language learning ability. I.e., the ability to infer the rules that govern the use of language, as when one identifies patterns of correspondence between form and meaning, as in the case to recognize that in English 'to' can denote direction and 'at' location, or whether the word 'present' is a noun or a verb.

Despite students' weaknesses in writing, teachers do not deny that a good number of them show a positive regard to write in this language. This may reduce the idea of students' possible negative attitude as a reason for their weakness in writings, and strengthen

the view of their high motivation. Moreover, teachers, according to them, do not lack interest in teaching. It is their duty to motivate students to participate in the development of their writing skills by providing them with sufficient practice in the classroom and correcting their errors.

Teachers also put the stress on the idea that both teachers and students have excess use of the mother tongue 'Arabic' in English classes. This means that this use, which can sometimes be an effective tool in both teaching and testing, is not very much suggested. New approaches and techniques should be tried instead. This depends on teachers' will to maintain strict rules to establish an English-English environment, although the only existing opportunity consists of the classroom as a setting where this language is practiced in isolation from its real culture. Teachers also maintain that classroom environment is devoid of any cultural aspects with too much artificiality and very little realistic language.

Concerning their view of the adequacy of the designed programme, except for the minority who answered positively, the majority of teachers see that it is inadequate to the drawn objectives; i.e., restricted and narrow, and may not present too much about the culture of the TL. Besides, the language in its different lessons is so different from the one in real life. They are taught with too much artificiality through traditional methods of instructions. Despite their efficiency in some cases, these traditional methods have negative impact on students' performance. Thus, there are new and modern techniques used through visual

aids and updated books and manuals which can be a source of improving students' level.

In the last rubric, when asked whether students use CA or AA as a means of translation, teachers see that most of them make direct translations from CA to L2 and not from AA to L2. Their reliance on CA to write in English can be another factor for a possible source of interference errors. Furthermore, the time devoted for writing skills, as said by the majority of the informants, is insufficient to improve students' competencies.

By and large, the data given by teachers indicate clearly that several elements interfere to stand as barriers towards students' writing in English: their weak foundation, their limited English vocabulary background, the status of English itself, the linguistic environment including the teachers and students' excess use of the mother tongue, students' negative transfer from L1 'CA', lack of opportunities to practice English as well as the unnatural surrounding where this language is taught.

VI.B.1. Limitation of the Study

This action research has its limitations which should be noted with respect to the following issues:

- Design of action research
- Length of the research work
- Tools used in the research
- Students
- Teachers as informants

Through this research work based on contrastive and error analysis it is intended to develop other ideas about the methodology a teacher can use to find possible solutions to the problems students are confronted with L2 writing.

1. The study includes students in the economic science faculty only. This means that the results cannot be generalized to students of all study fields.

2. The time-frame associated with the action research process was protracted as a result of internal problems. This led to an extra time spent to conduct research during non-teaching time.

3. This research may lack adequate grounding since students participating in the study are not of the same learning background level.

4. Examining students' errors in one short paragraph in a limited time may not bring about a whole picture of all kinds of errors.

5. Not all teachers asked to fill in the checklist provided extra information about the possible reasons behind students' difficulties in English writings. Thus, the findings are limited to those taken from the chosen points in the table.

VI.B.2. Research / Pedagogical Implications

It is clear that errors constitute an inevitable part among all parts in EFL writing. As previously seen, they can provide us with an image on students' linguistic development, their interlanguage strategies and learning process, in general. Apart from interlanguage interference errors, several other sources are held

responsible for their occurrence because of the complexity of English itself.

Although errors tend to be seen as a result of inadequacy of teaching and learning, the idea of being a necessary instrument for teachers to improve their teaching is accepted by most linguists and practitioners in the domain. Error is an integral part of learning L2. It is a natural part in students' gradual movement towards the improvement of their proficiency. Therefore, the main objective of L2 teaching is to develop students' abilities to write in the target language.

On the basis of these study findings, the following implications can be suggested.

VI.B.2.1. Implication of Contrastive & Error Analysis in EFL Writing

Studies concerning errors for both CA and EA are meant to identify the strategies learners use in FLL, diagnose the causes beyond learners' errors and obtain data on learners' common problems so as to help specialists in the field of teaching develop the teaching material suitable to overcome them.

One potent implication of the two error approaches is that language teaching cannot stand away from their findings. Students' errors have always been of much interest and significance to teachers and syllabus designers.

VI.B.2.1.1. Implication of Contrastive Analysis in EFL Writing

Based on the findings in chapters three and four which include a comparison of the morphological and syntactic systems of L1 and L2, the study concludes that CA can be used as an efficient tool in the teaching process for the simple reason that teachers and students alike can diagnose the common and different language items so that they both avoid the influence of the source language system 'L1' on the one of the target language 'L2'; since each language is known by its distinct and unique system. It is with CA that language teachers can predict what errors the majority of students make and what difficulties they face; therefore, they are well equipped to improve teaching and learning strategies by preparing more efficient L2 instructional materials. Students who are introduced contrastive patterns of L1 and L2 are able to develop a habit to think in L2, write in an accurate way and diminish the number of errors they usually make. However, drills and exercises based on contrastive study are not suggested to be presented excessively in the classroom.

As long as language cannot be separated from culture, cultural differences should also be introduced whenever it is possible; i.e., teachers need to introduce cultural differences between CA and English to develop students' sense of cultural acquisition. In this way, negative transfer resulting from cultural differences can progressively be avoided.

VI.B.2.1.2. Implication of Error Analysis in EFL Writing

Errors are seen as important means with which researchers and teachers locate students' learning processes. EA supplements CA with objective statistics. EA provides careful identification of students' errors and then puts them under classification. It also provides evidence of how language is learnt or acquired and diagnoses the strategies the student is employing in the discovery of language. This undoubtedly provides a prediction of possible error sources so as to help teachers avoid their reoccurrence.

In connection to the significance of EFL writing, teachers and researchers seeking for the best remedial instructions should conduct their researches on the basis of EA approach in order to adopt appropriate teaching methods and techniques to help students improve their writing skills. The use of EA can give the teacher an idea on students' progression in writing and what remains to attain the drawn objectives. Thus, EA becomes a useful tool, especially if the teacher succeeds in taking a valuable feedback from the errors employed in students' different writings.

VI.B.2.2. Implication for syllabus Designers

This study indicates that writing is a rather complex task, mainly because the opportunity of practicing it in any authentic, communicative setting is not available in foreign language learning (FLL) situations, particularly when students do not have opportunities to practice it outside the classroom. Thus, they commit successive errors whenever they are asked to produce a piece of writing. However, these errors are natural and inevitable

and seen as an integral part of language learning that cannot be avoidable.

Error analysis can be a suitable tool to diagnose error in general. It provides teachers with an outcome of what has been taught to students, and tells syllabus designers about the effectiveness of both the teaching materials and the techniques used by teachers in classroom; what parts of the syllabus have been inadequately learnt and that need further change; i.e., leading syllabus designers to develop teaching materials designed to meet both teachers and learners' needs. This means that errors show what items are of much importance to be included and which ones to be corrected or excluded from the syllabus.

VI.B.2.2.1. Design for a New Writing Syllabus

In this study, errors are not only attributed to grammar, but also to vocabulary. Students' ignorance of rules restrictions as well as their false hypothesized concepts suggests a balance to be made between writing and other learning skills to obtain positive learning outcomes. These latter can be developed by emphasizing the most important things a student should know, or is able to do by the end of the course. Thus, strong decisions should be made about the selection of syllabus content: whether its course is fit for such students' level; what they need to do to be successful in the course; and know how they progress. Assessment and teaching strategies including writing activities should be designed neatly to give students the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge and skills. This can help in measuring their writing accurately and effectively.

VI.B.2.2.2. Design for a New Grammar Syllabus

During the analysis of students' errors, it is noticed that those which touch grammar points have negative effects on students' writing style. Although there are several suggested methods and techniques concerning grammar teaching, students still encounter serious problems. Traditional methods which are still used are most of the time devoid of any real life situations. Thus, it is suggested that a new pedagogical approach including a new programme to teach grammar through context of situation would be the best way to improve students' writing skills. The need for coordination between written expression and grammar teachers is becoming of much necessity. Working together, teachers can locate students' errors, explore their sources and then design written courses according to their cognitive needs. These lessons can form a new designed syllabus that can be useful for all teachers at university level.

VI.B.2.2.3. Design for Group Work

Teachers who are asked about the problems encountered in the classroom when presenting the writing activity agree upon the idea that students' English proficiency and different backgrounds represent a significant problem, mainly when all are ranked at the same academic level. Rather than clustering students in groups according to their proficiency level, they are placed within the same mainstream classes. This implies that the same teacher may not adapt to the situation, mainly with those who lack academic

English skills. Such a large discrepancy can create enormous challenges for the teacher who does not have adequate techniques. Nearly every student has a different level, and the curriculum sometimes does not meet the needs of everyone.

Besides, students working alone may not bring satisfactory results in any writing process except for the case of some brilliant ones who manage well in the task. In this case, the relationship among students might be the key for an effective learning. Group work may lead to overcome certain psychological constraints such as reservation, fear, anxiety and self-scepticism.

There are obviously some advantages in collaborative work through peer and self-editing activities where students can learn extra vocabulary words, correct each other in grammar rules, track the errors themselves or collaboratively and adjust any possible deviations from L2 norms. Encouraging these sorts of autonomous works, it is recommended that syllabus designers support students with effective materials and build organized workshops through which they can edit those written activities by themselves and feel more involved in the tasks they are given. Much information may be spread all around to create a sort of positive atmosphere where different linguistic advantages can be gained to add a supportive pedagogical approach that may increase students' motivation and attitude as two important components in developing their writing competencies. Despite some of the inconveniences in group work, students very often express positive interdependence they feel and the usefulness of sharing in discussion the written tasks together.

VI.B.2.2.4. Design for teaching style

It is noticed that the majority of students feel anxious and frustrated when they are given a piece of writing. This, undoubtedly, would impede any attempt for comfortable writing. Accordingly, syllabus designers should think of the best teaching style as an important factor in students' language writing acquisition. There should be a methodology that would create an atmosphere of work with the participation of all group members in a way that they feel relaxed and comfortable. Students are strongly influenced by teacher's instructions. It is said that the best English academic writing is the one that relies on conciseness and plain style. Pedagogical options, materials and designed activities have to be developed side by side with solid linguistic knowledge.

VI.B.2.2.5. Design for a Good Writing Promotion

Teachers who are asked about students' writings are for the idea that several criteria such as clarity, explicitness and conciseness, clear, coherent and cohesive paragraphs can all contribute to the improvement of any writing style. These become very essential in the judgment of the quality, consistency and meaningfulness of any piece of written production. Thus, it is the duty of syllabus designers to consider these important features as a base for any syllabus implementation to enhance students' writing strategies and come up with positive results.

VI.B.2.2.6. Design for an Adequate Feedback

Feedback is generally considered as an important part in EFL writing. Its instructional effects are essential in students' learning because they can modify, shape and orient students through correction towards adequate strategies to write; i.e., these effects provide them with corrective information to assist them in the modification of their writing performance. Yet, it is assumed that total correction is not effective for students' writings. Sudden interruptions and corrections of students' papers while they are writing often lead students to stop their efforts and reduce their desire to write because they feel that they are not improving and that so much is wrong with their production; thus, there is not any hope to get better. For that reason, overemphasis on errors, which is not always recommended, can frustrate students' motivation. On the other hand, it may not be acceptable to let errors pass uncorrected; for this may increase fossilization of such errors.

The writing skill proves very complex, and become proficient for students requires many years of efforts and practice. They can only make significant gains if they receive precise instructions and feedback on significant writing tasks. This effective feedback based on teachers' well prepared instructions can render the writing process more effective as the more feedback students receive concerning their performance the better they can overcome the different complex writing situations. Moreover, they can understand what to do to avoid the errors they still commit so as to arrive to more effective writing through which they can gain time and energy. Feedback also raises students' awareness of readers'

expectations, the subject they write and the purpose of their writing.

VI.B.2.3. Implications for EFL Teachers

The teacher is the most important factor in FLL. Thus, a teacher's quality has great impacts either on students' success or failure. Students' improvement relies on how much knowledge they have acquired so far to avoid as many encountered errors as possible. The more errors they correct, the more conscious of language they become. The teacher should know what to correct, how to correct, and what level of error is to be corrected. In a nutshell, the teacher is the first stage determining students' success or failure. Students' learning performance is measured by the quality of teaching. In Algerian context, for example, there is a growing concern of quality teaching shortage, particularly for those lacking the experience in dealing with students' writing process. Much work has been done to promote teachers' writing lessons, yet little improvement has been reached. Most of the teachers are not acquainted with the current trends in teaching the writing skill, thus the following programmes are suggested to bring about significant results:

VI.B.2.3.1. Organization of Seminars and Conferences

Language teachers are expected to keep up-to-date with the new developments in the field of writing. Thus, seeking for the best ways to develop writing skills should be the main concern of

all professionals to tackle different issues of students' writing deficiencies. These issues can be exposed and treated in seminars and conferences held continuously to find solutions to the different problems. These different meetings are of much importance for the simple reason that all teachers cooperating together are able to renew their teaching strategies which can lead them to raise students' writing abilities. Teachers, mainly those who are new in the domain, should express their great interest to attend and participate in the different debates and discussions for their own professional carrier development. They need to increase their knowledge to achieve longer-term career goals and opportunities.

By attending seminars and conferences they are usually engaged in self-reflection and evaluation. They can develop new skills about teaching writing; expand their ideas on different researches and issues in teaching and strengthen collaborative relationships with other teachers. All this aims to adopt effective methodologies in teaching writing.

VI.B.2.3.2. Coordination: University / Secondary School

Since university students' writing performance rely on how much knowledge these students acquire at the secondary school, coordination between teachers of the two levels is essential to the creation of an effective atmosphere suitable for thinking up adequate remedies to most if not all the encountered writing problems. The main objective behind this coordinative initiative is that teachers with their different backgrounds and expertise can complement each other by exchanging ideas, views and techniques

they have experienced during their teaching. Therefore, this coordination is believed to present significant and beneficial outcomes for both teachers and students, as it provides them with deeper insights on how to deal with their writing problems by drawing future perspectives which can be effective and successful in developing students' English writings.

VI.B.2.4. Implications for EFL Students

Students are seen as the most important variable in any teaching process. It is inevitable that the errors they make are no longer considered forbidden; they are part of their language acquisition. Students can progress only through repeated errors from which they can discover the main causes behind them. However, they usually differ in their motivation, language background and needs. These factors are very important because they directly affect the efficiency of all efforts made to acquire the target language. In the light of students' errors spotted in the judgment test, it is suggested that students should be encouraged to write regardless of the errors they may make. It is one among many ways that they can overcome any possible anxiety which may stand as an impediment towards their writing performance. Besides, it is through errors that the teacher can get an overall image about students' level and the strategies they use to write. Thus, these errors should not be regarded as a manifestation of students' poor linguistic competence which may lead them to be penalized. On the contrary, there must be a sort of understanding between the teacher to tolerate certain kinds of errors and the

students to try to avoid the ones they have already committed. Students' should also be provided with authentic materials which may be used implicitly for them to help them raise the dissimilarities existing in L1 and L2; in order to reduce their unintentional and unnecessary writing interference errors.

VI.B.2.5. Implications for EFL Context

The findings indicate that students' writing is influenced by several factors affecting the linguistic environment where L2 writing is used. Among these variables which should be taken into account it is worth mentioning the role of the mother tongue as well as the context of culture of L2.

VI.B.2.5.1. Implication of L1 in EFL Writing Classroom

It is widely known that foreign language learning is influenced to a great extent by learners' L1. This is due to the enormous differences that may exist between CA & English. Students' L1 does not only affect L2 pronunciation, but also its vocabulary and grammar; i.e., the input of L1 system on L2 system may cover all the stages of learners' acquisition of L2. It means that whatever the level they reach, learners cannot avoid the consequences of the close contact between L1 and L2. For the new approaches and techniques, L1 is not very much suggested, yet some linguists agree upon the fact that teachers can use it to explain different points of grammar; illustrate certain testing activities and explain word ambiguities. When learners do not

understand the meaning of words and expressions of L2, mainly those which are culture-bound, they can ask teachers for explanation in Arabic, so as to solve comprehension problems. By implication, this may help students understand what exactly the words mean, and what teachers' instructions refer to. However, L1 use is not possible when the learners' differs from that of the teacher. When L1 is common, it can be utilized as an effective tool in L2 writing.

VI.B.2.5.2.Implication of L2 Culture Context in EFL Writing Classroom

Teachers and learners with their proper incentives and favourable circumstances may contribute to the general improvement of learning L2; however, their efforts very often fail to some extent because of the close contact between a language and its culture. That is to say, language and culture are interrelated. L2 cultural aspects can then be a real hindrance to both teachers and learners' motivation because they may set up barriers to the comprehension process, in general. In learning a foreign language, one uses the experiences of context he has acquired from his mother tongue so as to understand it. This means that communication is only successful when the participants understand the shared information, and, in this case, thoughts and ideas can be conveyed effectively, especially if we take into account what audience this message is sent to, and how it will be perceived, without forgetting circumstances surrounding this message such as the situational and cultural context.

In EFL situations, the importance of the cultural context of language can be emphasized. A lack of understanding of the

cultural information can be a major impediment to comprehension as a whole.

Many linguists argue that teaching material should be culture-bound regardless of the level of learners. The selection of the teaching material is, therefore, necessary to the success of language learning. This material may lead the learners to gain access to the life and thought of people of the target language. The study of a foreign language, then, not only enables the individual to develop his cultural understanding of that language, but also promotes his personal culture through contacts with different mentalities by means of the literatures they read.

Thus, introducing the cultural content should, therefore, be integrated with the teaching of language patterns and lexicons. Many linguists have questioned the usefulness of non-culture bound teaching material in foreign language teaching. In such an approach texts are designed on a theme familiar to learners and reflecting their own culture. This, for them, would destroy the unity of language, severing it from its social context. Language and culture are inseparable; the one cannot be learnt without the other.

Moreover, culture awareness must become an educational objective in itself. It is possible to teach language in such a way that learners are initiated into the social and cultural meanings of words and expressions; yet cultural messages could not be decoded in the absence of the teachers' awareness of them. A foreign way of viewing the world cannot be taught against a native culture full of conceptions, beliefs and values.

Thus, previous cultural knowledge about the target language is a factor which might be considered in constructing reading texts, or different writings. However, it is essential while introducing the cultural content of an input in the classroom that the teacher

maintains complete neutrality. That is to say, learners must not feel that s/he is 'selling' a foreign culture to them. This means that the approach should be informative and objective.

According to different applied linguists the primary task in foreign language teaching then is concerned, first, with introducing language side by side with culture. For them it is necessary to integrate the cultural content in the teaching of patterns and lexicon. Otherwise, the learning process will be devoid of its basic elements. Learners' awareness of the correct levels of discourse and behaviour as well as the social attitudes of other people is of much importance. This will motivate them to observe the cultural differences and even reduce their reluctance towards another culture.

VI.B.3. Recommendations

Along with the drawn implications, the suggested recommendations are hoped to add amelioration to the process of writing. Besides, future studies concerning error and error analysis should be investigated so as to arrive at suitable educational methods relevant to the process of teaching and the possible up-to-date materials that can be useful, interesting and beneficial.

VI.B.3.1. Recommendations on Teachers' Teaching Strategies

Teachers' strategies could be responsible for the increase or decrease of students' errors. Teachers have different ways in dealing with students' errors. There are those who insist on correcting them as soon as they appear and put their focus on every

language item used inappropriately; others ignore them and might let students discover them through time. Hendrickson (1978:90-389) claims that it is better not to stop nor interfere with students in a middle of conversation or speech or when they are writing just because of some errors. The corrections which are done through breaking up students' thought do not really have sufficient results; instead students feel less motivated and sometimes upset from this sort of correction. Yet, for other linguists such as Bartram & Walton, (1991: 32-40) students' errors should be treated, especially when they impede communication, i.e., when hearers or readers find it uneasy to grasp the students' intended message. Moreover, teachers need to establish a confident relationship with students so as to make them know that making errors through the learning process is of vital importance; thus, there is no need to be frustrated, humiliated, ashamed or embarrassed.

For most teachers, the techniques of correction require their understanding of the sources of errors so as to provide the appropriate solution to solve students' problems by allowing them to discover the relevant rules of language. Hagéne (1999:82-83) stressed the importance of self-correction. For him, teachers' written test based on error analysis can be useful, but this should be without students' awareness of the aim of the test. On that basis, students' self-correction done by the help of each other is more preferable and more efficient than that being done by the teacher, especially if his correction is done in a severe, or humiliating manner. This does not mean that the teacher's correction of students' errors should be avoided, yet it might not be recommended to correct every error as soon as it appears,

because immediate corrections which interrupt writing processes could produce negative effects on the students, even to the less sensitive ones. Students' anxiety and fear of making errors might reduce their motivation for work in the classroom and increase their lack of interest for writing, and this sometimes leads them to develop an aggressive behaviour towards the classmates or even the teacher. Thus, corrections are suggested not to be applied by the teacher mainly when these corrections form an obstruction to communication.

Errors are a means of feedback reflecting the students' progress and at the same time the teacher's strategies in teaching. The teacher can judge how effective his teaching style is and what changes he should bring to provide appropriate remedies. That is to say, errors indicate reliable results upon which remedial materials can be constructed so as to enrich students' performance.

Investigating various types of corrective feedback strategies in the light of errors of different taxonomies may encourage teachers to provide corrective feedback with accuracy and confidence.

VI.B.3.2. Recommendations on Grammar Teaching

The study findings show that most of students' errors are grammatical in a way that these errors bring about negative effects on their writings. However, to what extent can grammar teaching be a suitable tool to improve students' writings? This question has been the concern of many teachers, researchers and students themselves for years of research. There are those who support

Krashen's input hypothesis, known as "anti-grammarians" and doubt the role that grammar instruction plays in language learning. They maintain that grammar teaching does not accomplish such practical goals because only a few students learn grammar well and use it to improve their writing (Rodriguez & Avent, 2002; Stern, 1983; Yim, 1998); and those known as "pro-grammarians" who claim that formal instructions '*direct grammar instructions*' are of significant results to any learner's type of learning (Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997). Yet, another group insists on the fact that factors such as age, cognition and maturity of learners should be taken into account while teaching grammar (Celce-Murcia, 1991). For EFL students, research suggests that extensive reading may promote the acquisition of grammatical structures better than explicitly studying or practicing such structures (Elley, 1991:23). In the same sense Krashen (1993:71) says that for both first and second language learners, extensive reading significantly promotes grammatical fluency and a command of the syntactic resources of language. However, all this reflects the different positions of researches on the issue of grammar, yet in reality little evidence exists about its use in EFL context (Nazari A. 2012:73).

In the Algerian context, there are some teachers who do not teach grammar points because of their limited knowledge about it; others put too much emphasis on different grammatical items expecting that their integration is vital for the success of any writing process.

The results in students' judgment tests demonstrate that the writing skill depends enormously on grammar. Thus, it would be very helpful if the designed teaching materials as well as the

approaches included in the process take into consideration grammatical language items such as sentence combinations and word order which should be addressed in terms of form, meaning and distribution 'use'. This consistent treatment of each grammar point may help in leading students to a progressive mastery of their writing skills.

VI.B.3.2.1. Recommendations on Grammar Use in Improving Students' Writing

The teacher's practical and pedagogical knowledge has a clear influence on the way grammar is taught, on the teaching styles and on how students perceive this knowledge. Students need guidance in order to be effective in writing. They need to know how to use the different language items and concepts by putting the words together to construct meaningful sentences. Teachers usually try to employ the best strategies that enhance their students' writing purposes. Here are some recommendations concerning grammar use for effective writing:

- * Encouraging students' writing abilities by providing them with constant assistance concerning the use and explanation of grammar points such as the sentence, inflection, derivation, tense and agreement.

- * Collaborating with classmates in Peer response groups are valuable strategies for the integration of grammar in students' writing. Improvements in grammar lead to an effective and successful writing.

* Grammatical language points such as sentence structure should be presented in writing context rather than approaching them by teaching them in isolation.

* Students should expand their grammatical repertoire which can give them opportunities to write with ease.

* Much focus should be put on the activities related to grammatical terminology; yet this need not to be given explicitly.

* Students' written productions should be read and corrected continuously so as to increase students' motivation to write and reduce the number of errors they make.

* Grammar instructions should be integrated into both the revising and production process in order to allow students to make immediate use of the language points relevant to their own writings.

Moreover, it looks very advantageous to employ authentic materials concerning grammar drills and exercises. The kind of electronic mediums such as word processing software as an editing and revising tool, as well as the e-mail used as an electronic delivery medium can be efficient and applicable not only in the classroom, but also in distant environments such as home.

However, this demands a careful planning in advance from the part of the teacher who should accompany the planned work with an extra backup plan to use as an alternative to any unforeseen failure. This will, undoubtedly, provide an opportunity for instructional designers to come up with reasonable and valuable solutions to fulfil students' needs.

VI.B.3.2.2. Recommendations on Teacher's Grammar Knowledge

Teachers' practical and pedagogical knowledge has a great impact on their way to teach grammar. They are required to have an excellent treatment of most if not all grammar points in English. Those who cannot figure out the rules of English grammar will fail to assist their students efficiently in their writings. On the contrary, teachers' well-equipped cognitive, practical and pedagogical knowledge about grammar has a positive influence on the teaching style which would bring about certain easiness to students in their acquisition of grammatical rules with which they can improve. The following suggested points may be useful to any teacher who is required to use grammar for writing purposes: a teacher should, therefore

- * rely on different grammar books; a single book may not be sufficient.

- * familiarize him/herself with terminology including unfamiliar concepts that can be used in a lesson plan or in the classroom.

- * be skilled in at least the basics of grammar; otherwise, s/he loses confidence in the classroom and in the students' surrounding.

- * concentrate on grammatical concepts that are vital for clear communication of meaning only.

VI.B.3.3. Recommendations on How to Improve Students' Writing

*Much time and practice is needed to improve students' writing. i.e., students should be given plenty of opportunities and encouragements to write.

*Teachers' excessive critics may cause students' lack of confidence; thus their appraisal is essential.

* Writing could be improved through written texts in a natural process of communication rather than grammatical and rhetorical rules on writing. This means that grammar instructions which are taught separately from writing instructions have no positive impact on writing skills.

* Students should learn how to combine sentences from short to longer ones. By knowing this, they recognize the different sentence types which lead them to write efficiently longer and correct sentences. For Hillocks (1986:150) sentence combining practice provides writers with systematic knowledge of syntactic possibilities, the access to which allows them to sort through alternatives in their heads and to choose those which are more correct. Sentence combining activities can be the best way to make students improve their writing style.

* Students' written activities should take great attention and care from the teacher's part. Careful reading of their drafts may help to diagnose the aspects of language points that hinder their ability and, hence think of the best remedial works convenient to overcome their deficiencies.

* Students should be provided with grammar instructions that help them identify and correct different error usage at the level of sentence structure.

* Group work can have positive effects on students' feedback. Students' can exchange papers and look at the parts that signal the possible errors, and then the sentence that carries the error should be read aloud to the partners so as to be corrected orally. This sort of correction is efficient since it remains engraved in students' memories.

* Students should be given the opportunity to think of and explain the concepts in their own words. This may lead them to know why certain rules are used in certain environments. Knowing why assists them develop their self-confidence in thinking critically and correcting their writing errors.

Conclusion

This research is a continuous unending process which evokes and generates further investigations and researches. In this chapter, the main limitations of the research are stated and followed by research implications and recommendations. Its main objective is to provide students with some insights about the possible strategies that they may use to progressively overcome the deficiencies they have experienced along some years of English writings.

The present recommendations are personal; which means that not all of them are certain to fulfill students' desire in English writings. The study is hoped to add another contribution to the

field of teaching; yet further research is needed to move beyond studies of formal grammar and the direct influence that it may exert on any writing task. The studies that take into account contextual factors influencing writing processes, the impacts of grammar itself on the quality of writings, as well as the possible influence of L1 on L2.

Hence, further research is to be undertaken to investigate both intralingual and interlingual errors in terms of those related not only to the grammatical systems of L1 and L2, but also to other sub-systems of language such as semantics and pragmatics. This may be helpful if the teaching material is designed according to the need of the approaches built on the recognition of important language items like the effectiveness of sentence combination and word-formation, and which concentrate on concrete life-related subjects.

There is evidence that whatever kind of writing problems students face, they can succeed especially if the instructions they receive are appropriate to their learning level.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

The present research work is devoted to the investigation of economic and management students' writing errors at Tiaret University, and the possible reasons behind these errors. It aims to study their nature, classification and significance, so as to suggest some possible remedial measures necessary to overcome their deficit in writing and improve L2 learning, in general.

The attempt to identify and determine the kind of nature, cause and consequence of these errors is undertaken by means of empirical study through the error analysis approach used to provide evidence on how L2 different writings are learnt, i.e., to have ideas about the kind of strategies and procedures both teachers and students employ.

This research work is initiated with the theoretical review to explain the concepts which are directly or indirectly related to the notion of error in general and to contrastive and error analysis as two main approaches in the study of students' errors. A comparison between the phonological formation of words and syntactic structures in L1 'CA' and L2 'English' is, then, made in chapters three and four through the contrastive analysis approach. It is meant to study Arabic and English morphological and syntactic systems in order to identify the similarities and differences between them. The process of comparing both systems involves the analysis and description of the elements of morphology: the inflection, derivation and compounding of the different parts of speech, which cover the form, meaning and distribution of morphemes, and the ones of syntax: points like sentence types,

parts of speech that constitute the minimal elements of sentences and the analysis of questions using the different auxiliaries or interrogative pronouns. This is to check whether or not the structure of L2 has a similar form as that of L1. It indicates the same meaning and is similarly distributed in the system of L1. The comparison made shows clearly that despite the common points shared in the two language systems, the two inflectional systems are different. There are also many points that differ significantly in form, in meaning and in the distribution of syntactic structures.

These two types of errors are clearly seen in Students' judgment test. This kind of test given in the form of a written production task, as a first method of investigation, makes evidence of students' inability to write correctly without breaking the correct form of words (33.87% of errors), or structure of sentences (31.92% of errors), i.e., the stretch of words in sentences, along with intralingual grammatical and lexical errors (76.88%) students make as a result of their ignorance of the rule restriction of L2 or their limited vocabulary; the mother tongue interference is still one of the main sources of error (23.25%). It is one among other aspects of interlanguage such as avoidance, fossilization and overuse, all of which make the writing process slow and complicated.

Students usually err grammatically by selecting incorrect elements, omitting required elements, or adding unnecessary elements. This includes the wrong use of articles, prepositions, possessive case, demonstratives, the inflection of words such as those in verb tense, or singular and plural forms of nouns, and derivation of adjectives, nouns and adverbs. Students' misordering

errors include organization of words in phrases, fragments, different sentence types and clauses.

The second method of investigation is a questionnaire designed to unveil students' different strategies in learning to write. Despite their positive attitude, students consider this skill as the most difficult of all the learning skills (87.42%). This may be due to the problems they face in finding the ideas that help them write (81.81%); as well as their ignorance of the rules that govern the correct structure or word form to avoid grammatical errors (78.76%). To overcome the problems encountered when dealing with this language skill, students rely on L1 'Arabic' use by translating the form of words, the structure of the sentence and the distribution of words in sentences from L1 to L2 (87.42%). The use of an Arabic / English dictionary is most desirable for them and teachers' explanation in Arabic is the most preferable of all other forms of explanation. This reveals that L1 is the most preferable tool students use to write in English.

Although the findings gathered in this study confirm the hypothesis that L1 interferences is due to the dissimilarities that may exist between the grammatical systems of Arabic and English, they reject the idea that it is the principal cause of students' errors in writing. The findings confirm that there are other kinds of intralingual errors resulting from students' faulty or partial learning of L2, and consider the socio-cultural and educational contexts where students learn to write as having negative effects on their writing performance for the simplest reason that 'CA' and 'English' do not represent the same social and cultural reality. The third method of investigation includes a teachers' checklist in

which teachers are asked to provide the possible reasons behind students' weaknesses in writing in English. The main points of discussion fall into students' weak foundation, the linguistic environment of learning, and the teaching methodology. Students' motivations and attitudes towards the writing activity are also included in the survey. The data given by teachers indicate clearly that several elements interfere to stand as barriers in the way of students' success in writing in English:

a) Their weak foundation, as well as their limited English vocabulary background.

b) The status of English itself.

c) the linguistic environment including the teachers and students' excessive use of the mother tongue, students' negative transfer from L1 'CA'.

d) Lack of opportunities to practice English as well as the unrealistic environment devoid of any cultural aspects, with too much artificiality and very little realistic language. The setting where this language is taught is far from its real cultural context.

This research work may generate and evoke further investigations and researches. It ends with recommendations that are tentative tracks. This means that not all of them are certain to fulfill students' desire; however, they are supposed to add another contribution to the field of teaching. Moreover, further studies are needed to move beyond studies of formal grammar and the direct influence that it may exert on any writing task; those which take into account contextual factors influencing the writing process, the impacts of grammar itself on the quality of writings, as well as the possible influence of L1 on L2. This may be undertaken to

investigate both intralingual and interlingual errors in terms of those related not only to the grammatical systems of L1 and L2, but also to other sub-systems of language such as semantics and pragmatics.

This may be helpful if the teaching material is designed according to the targets of the approaches built on the recognition of important language items like the effectiveness of sentence combination and word-formation, and which concentrate on concrete life-related subjects.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1:

Students' Questionnaire

Writing in L2 (English).

Learners' behaviour in writing

Put a cross (X) in the suitable box.

1) When asked to write a piece of work in English, I feel comfortable and confident

a) Always ()

b) Sometimes ()

c) Rarely ()

d) Never ()

2) I find it more difficult to write in English than to write in Arabic.

a) Always ()

b) Sometimes ()

c) Rarely ()

d) Never ()

3) In English, writing is the most difficult of all learning skills.

a) Always ()

b) Sometimes ()

c) Rarely ()

d) Never ()

4) It is not easy to find the ideas that help me to write in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

5) When writing in English, the problem lies in making grammatical errors.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

6) When writing in English, I face problems with word-formation.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

7) When writing in English, I face problems on how to combine words in sentences.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

8) When writing in English, I ignore the kind of mistakes I usually make.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

9) Before I write in English I prepare the task in Arabic, and then I translate it into English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

10) When writing in English, first I think in Classical Arabic, and then I write in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | c) Never () |

11) When writing in English, first I think in Algerian Arabic, and then I write in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | a) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | b) Never () |

12) When writing in English, I write the structure of the sentence in Arabic, and then I translate it into English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

13) I use an English/Arabic, Arabic/ English dictionary when writing in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

14) I use an English/French dictionary when writing in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

15) I use an English/English dictionary when writing in English.

- | | |
|---------------|------------------|
| a) Always () | b) Sometimes () |
| c) Rarely () | d) Never () |

16) I ask the teacher for an explanation in Arabic whenever I need it.

a) Always ()

b) Sometimes ()

c) Rarely ()

d) Never ()

17) I ask the teacher for an explanation in English whenever I need it.

a) Always ()

b) Sometimes ()

c) Rarely ()

d) Never ()

Appendix 02

Students' Social and Economic Background

Note: This written survey concerns all the participants in this investigation. Their number is: **461**

Instruction: Please, fill in the table with correct information.

Name of town/village	Former secondary school	Father's job	mother's job	Number of brothers/sisters

Appendix 03:

1) Students' Intralingual Errors

Sub-category: **Morphology**

More examples

Faulty Overgeneralization

a) Selection of incorrect elements

There is no responsibility, that's mean people who have jobs...

Corruption is a base of joblessness...

..so this phenomena can effect...

Socandrey, nepotism...

Third, luck of expirance is...

If you didn't work before in your specialist..

..wich takes a huge part in Algeria.

..and there is no fair among people.

There are students who study with out purpose.

Our government is enable to secure jobs for all people.

..although our country has the abilities to secure any job's positions.

In Algerie, in every year a lot of people are graduating...

We can never find some one who looks for a job.

..a diploma which is not always available on people.

..the administrable complexity creates obstacles...

..especially in the work etablissement.

The number of condidate is higher than the available jobs because it makes a distinguish between the poor and the rich people.

b) Omission of required elements

It is possible that one has different skill , but not experience.

As both the employer and the employe are responsible for...

Recruiters do not just look for skills, but also experience.

..although there are other's who are better...

..because there are no institution.

...which made young people suffer from jobless.

The remaining problem is employment which means the big..

I am interested in a job with much responsible.

People complicit in the spread of bribery.

..even though you don't have any level that alouds you to get a job..

c) Addition of unnecessary elements

..and even if it's forbiddent, we use it to..

The rich have the priority, yet the poorer do not.

The government suffer severe corruption in ineffective and disorganization.

..but the big phenomenens are...

There are some people with a satisfactory level but having no jobs.

..the bad thing is that the foreigners workers like the Chinese are...
..a lot people are graduattng...
..that is why it is always possibility to think about...

Incomplete Application of Rules

a) Selection of Incorrect Elements

People study for many years and when they graduate they didn't find jobs.

Our country are very rich of oil and gaz.

It is able to ensure occupations to their people.

Someone who studied English teach French.

It lets many students chosen it.

The growth of population made many obstacles for job demands.

..those who hasn't a level can get a job easily.

The rich has the priority than the poor.

In our country, corruption and nepotism were increasing..

people didn't find jobs according to the study field.

The job market in Algeria have a lot of problems.

..because some people gave money to the responsible to get the job they want.

..and some of them are neglecting because of poverty.

b) Omission of Required Elements

..can find a job easy.

All this create problems to the economy of the country.

..and without achieve and develop our dreams of work.

In the Algerian education, everyone succeed and only very few people who get the job.

If anyone try to get a job in a company...

Things are get more and more complicate.

It makes many student think of other destinations...

.. and also the good salary attract people.

In our society, it really become hard to get a job.

Corruption destroy society.

They practise illegal deeds neglect all the important principles.

..to become more complicated than ever and that because of...

..and it spread quickly in our society...

..a system that encounter many problems.

There are a lot of people who have a degree but they don't have job.

Corruption is a source of jobless and finding...

c) Addition of Unnecessary Elements

The government suffering severe corruption...

I'm ready to starts any job in my field of study.

What I like best is any employments which helps me gain my life.

Not all people find what they looking for...

I'd like to be successfully in the first job given to me.

..whatever the obstacles, I will do my bests to solve the problems I face during...

The syllable designed to us is suitable in some way to our jobs careers.

What makes people waiting for jobs for many years..

There is no strict rules that governs the Algerian economy.

In economy, we lacks too much investments...

Appendix: 04

2) Students' Intralingual Errors

Sub-category: **Syntax**

More examples

Ignorance of Rule Restrictions

a) Selection of Incorrect Elements

If government will not proceed and follow different measures

The reason is that there is no good investments to...

..so, this negative features are...

..because when economy is growing, they will be plenty of jobs for everyone.

..by most accounts...

New comers to the labour market as well as the problems of immigration made of chronic unemployment crisis..

After graduation from university the diploma holder makes his best to find a job.

The job needed does not say the wage...

They just look about their needs.

Moreover, the spread of this phenomenon cause by the lack of strong institutions is capable...

It made under investments.

University students's studies are always considered as...

These people get jobs by bribery who the responsables take from them.

..someone he hasn't a dream for future career can do nothing..

This means that if someone who hasn't a degree of any domain...

These bad deeds who are dominating in our society...

..spread for racism between people.

..irresponsible persons those whom ask people for bribery

When someone graduates in his speciality, he doesn't got the suitable job.

Each one of them has to look out for a suitable job...

Jobs demanding experts are not too much comparing them to...

So, how are they suppose

b) Omission of Required Elements

Even who has no competence or not professional in that domain...

..like the lack of experience, bad workers also unavailability of work.

There are a lot of university students have a degree, but they still jobless.

People who apply to same job are numerous.

First, lack of specialists.

First, it is one of reasons which...

.. that why it can be possible to...

I think that it is responsibility of the government to provide the necessary...

..frustration, drug addiction, even suicides are...

It makes a distinction between poor and rich.

..in any domain and not only work.

The majority of who work there are the oldest people.

There are many apply for jobs as soon as they finish their university studies.

..because no conditions for a better life...

..and this is reality that only few people...

c) Addition of Unnecessary/Incorrect Elements

Responsibles they don't appoint the person according to his degree of competence.

You should have a well known people who will facilitate...

..fight corruption that what made people suffer from.

The most of people are jobless.

..but this, however, can lead to serious unemployment ...

..which is the nepotism and the bribery.

The job market suffers from lack of competence, and dishonest and unfair employers.

First the nepotism is the unfair use of power.

..and a lot of people who they have no level, but they get a job.

d) Misordering of Certain Elements

In our society, it becomes hard really to get a job.

..the impacts growing of modern forms of economy.

..the unemployment analysis problem and its causes..

..as the number of jobs created is sufficient for a big number of ...

..different categories of young people Algerian who receive a diploma professional in public or private sectors.

They don't only accept girls wearing Hidjab, but as well they ignore their capacities.

Also people suffer from the lack of job opportunities.

No one can speak even for his right for work.

What needs one is just the salary which helps him...

...where is importing more than exporting.

The person who is not qualified enough and educated...

The intralingual (developmental) Errors (**307**) and interlingual (interference) errors (**93**) stated above can be summarized in the tables below to comprise 72 phrases and 223 sentences.

Appendix: 05

Taxonomy of Students' Phasal Errors

		Function	Number
1)	Noun Phrase	Noun	05
		Gerund	02
2)	Adjective phrase	Adjective	07
		Present participle	01
3)	Verb phrase	Modal + base	11
		perfect	08
		Progressive	06
		Passive	09
4)	Adverb phrase	Adverb	06
5)	Prepositional phrase	Adjective	07
		Adverb	10
6)	Infinitive phrase	Infinitive	00

Appendix: 06

Taxonomy of students' sentential errors

No	Kind of sentences	S/V	T	CC	CrC	SC	WO	A	Pr
1)	Simple sent.	40	15	/	/	/	07	08	13
2)	Compound Sent.	27	11	08	02	/	13	05	04
3)	Complex sentence	12	07	/	/	08	17	05	07
4)	Compound-Complex Sent.	05	02	/	/	03	03	01	00

Appendix 07

3) Students' Intralingual Errors

Sub-category: **Lexis**

More examples

False hypothesized Concepts

..working in a place which cannot be served by their study or by their graduation.

if there is not this problem in our community, the job market gets more and more honest.

The rich have the priority than the poorer.

..the lack of skills that the worker should work...

Although those difficulties, Algeria tries to reduce...

Many size of population coupled with widespread illiteracy...

The job market is getting more and more complicated in our context.

In Algeria, there are plenty of people who have a diploma.

..the corruption that is expending in all areas of work.

If you have money, many ways will open for you.

..and they get rid of new graduates.

..because they miss the opportunity for work.

..too much job positions.

..working in a place which cannot be served by their study or by their graduation.

if there is not this problem in our community, the job market gets more and more honest.

The rich have the priority than the poorer.

..the lack of skills that the worker should work...

Although those difficulties, Algeria tries to reduce...

Many size of population coupled with widespread illiteracy...

The job market is getting more and more complicated in our context.

In Algeria, there are plenty of people who have a diploma.

..the corruption that is expending in all areas of work.

If you have money, many ways will open for you.

Appendix 08

4) Students' Intralingual Errors

Sub-category: Semantics

More examples

..according to his degree ; or to his experience. (punct.)

The second bad thing is the social problem , we observe that the number of population is increasing. (punct.)

..who give jobs only to their friends or neibers. (spell.)

..which limits us in our society. (mean.)

They are Not educated. (cap.)

Firstin our country... (punct.)

Corruption destroys society which leads to a bad person with selfishness. (mean.)

For example(,)the government spent billions of... (punct.)

indeed, bribery makes it even harder... (cap.)

They need experience, capacities and high level. (mean.)

People are suffering from many problems like _____: corruption...(punct.)

..what makes Algerian people leeve Algeria looking...(spell.)

.. first, there is no chance for ... (cap.)

..according to his degree ; or to his experience. (punct.)

In Algeria, there are defficultis to get a job. (spell.)

First, acquaintance means to use money as a way to get a job. (mean.)

..the spread of corruption in the Algerian goverment which is a big problem. (spell.)

Appendix 09

Error Analysis: Scope of Study

Subject: 'What are your expectations in the job market once you finish your university studies?'

Appendix 10

Error Category	Sources of Error
<p>1) Grammatical Errors :</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;">A) Morphological Errors</p>	<p>A) Intralingual (Intral.) Richards (1974: 12-22) Developmental Error (DE) or Overgeneralization (OG) Corder (1974:130)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ignorance of Rule Restriction • Incomplete Application of Rules Eg. They work <u>hardly</u>. Eg. I <u>speaked</u> to the manager.. (Richards 1971a in Ellis 2000: 59) • Building of False Concepts • False Analogy Eg. Leafs • Induced Errors: from classroom situation (the teacher/the designed material) • Selection of incorrect elements Eg. ..<u>that's mean</u> people who have jobs... • Omission of required elements Eg. ..possible that one has different <u>skill</u> • Addition of unnecessary elements Eg. ..but the big <u>phenomenens</u> are... Corder (1973:277) <p>B) Interlingual (Interl.) L1 Negative Transfer/Interference Weinreich (1953: 1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overextension of Analogy (Lott 1983 in Ellis 2000: 59) <p>A) Intralingual (Intral.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ignorance of Rule Restriction • Incomplete Application of Rules <p>Eg. He asked me where <u>did I get</u> my diploma. Eg. They <u>alreadyhave</u> applied for The job..</p>

<p>B) Syntactic Errors</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Induced Errors: from classroom situation (the teacher/the designed material) • Selection of incorrect elements Eg. Immigration made of chronic... • Omission of required elements Eg. Even who has no competence or not professional... • Addition of unnecessary elements Eg. Responsables <u>they</u> do not... • Misordering of certain elements Eg. The <u>impactsgrowing</u> of modern forms of economy... Corder (1973:277) <p>B) Interlingual (Interl.) L1 Negative Transfer/Interference Weinreich (1953: 1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overextension of Analogy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transfer of Structure <p>Eg. ..from the <u>companies responsables.</u> (Lott 1983 in Ellis 2000: 59)</p>
-----------------------------------	--

Students' Morpho-syntactic Error Sources with Examples

Appendix 12

Teachers' Checklist

By putting a cross (X) in the appropriate box, say whether the Algerian students' problems in English writings are due to:

	problem	Yes	No
<u>Weak foundation</u>	Status of English: a foreign language		
	The students' ignorance of the rules of L2		
	The students' negative attitude towards English		
	The teachers' lack of interest in teaching		
<u>Linguistic Environment</u>	The teachers and students' excess use of the mother tongue in English classes		
	Students' few opportunities to practice English		
	Isolated English culture		
<u>Method of teaching and learning</u>	Inadequacy of the designed programme		
	Traditional medium of instruction		
	The students' direct translation from L1 (CA)		
	The students' direct translation from L1 (AA)		
	Lack of writing practice in educational institutions		

Other possible reasons of learners' problems in English writings:

- 1)
- 2).....
- 3).....
- 4).....
- 5).....
- 6).....
- 7).....
- 8).....
- 9).....
- 10).....

Appendix 13

Teachers' Checklist

Whether the Algerian students' problems in English writings are due to:

	problem	Yes	%	No	%
<u>Weak foundation</u>	Status of English: a foreign language	100	100	00	00
	The students' ignorance of the rules of L2	23	92.00	02	08.00
	The students' negative attitude towards English	06	24.00	19	16.00
	The teachers' lack of interest in teaching	00	00.00	100	100
<u>Linguistic Environment</u>	The teachers and students' excess use of the mother tongue in English classes	22	88.00	03	12.00
	Students' few opportunities to practice English	24	98.00	01	02.00
	Isolated English culture	23	92.00	02	08.00
<u>Method of teaching and learning</u>	Inadequacy of the designed programme	12	48.00	13	52.00
	Traditional medium of instruction	16	64.00	09	36.00
	The students' direct translation from L1 (CA)	22	84.00	03	16.00
	The students' direct translation from L1 (AA)	02	08.00	23	92.00
	Lack of writing practice in educational institutions	22	88.00	03	12.00

Table F1: Results obtained from teachers answers in the checklist

ANNEXES



Students' chosen papers

Number of papers: 35

- Original copies have been compiled for the sake of this research
- These are photocopies numbered and made anonymous.

④

Step Draft

The point: the job market in the Algeria context is getting more and more complicated.

The job market in the Algeria context is getting more and more complicated. ^{T.E.} so it's difficult to get a job in Algeria. (First lack of post) and this resulting from lack of warehouse and corporation, this means year after year the number of graduates increases ^{S.E.} but they didn't get a job ^{S.E.} even if there is a post the managers give it the people who know ^{S.E.} then the problem in Algeria context is they respect the capable people and they concern ^{T.E.} just for diploma also when someone graduates in their specialty he didn't get the suitable job for example if someone study geometry ^{S.E.} at the end he find himself teaching. In other cases most of people think that the lower job as Baker or ironsmith ^{S.E.} is less worth in Algeria context and

ME

Step

everyone want to work in easy condition (However
is rather than in Europe or Japan every job
is good to gain the livelihood) and they develop
their country with this job.

N° 01

(6)

Step

The job market in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated, Today for instance a lot of low level graduated students cannot find jobs, because they are not qualified to ^{TE (SEY)} earn one, moreover the job market is controlled by brabery, ^{SE} for example it is always easy to get anything done or achieved if you have the enough amount of money specially ^{SE} a job, it is well common behavior to use brabery to ^{SE} earn a job in the Algerian context, and as a result of the job marketing ^{MELO} complication the number of the joblessness people is increasing in society.

N° 02

(10)

Step 1. Ex. amplification.

The job market in Algerian context is getting more and more complicated. First because of the percentage of graduation became extra high, illustrated by the demographic growth, so the number of workers is more than the work places, and this influence many people to get an opportunity of work. Next, immoral practices which effect our life career in the case of bribe the main boss, moreover nepotism when a person employed due to their relatives without appropriate qualification, also impetuosity of one's self against the responsible for the employment of workers. Lastly, lack of expertise which effect the practical progress and leads to undergo testes and experiments, reconsider the average, so this method prevent from getting a job.

N° 03

Based on the assumption that I am 2nd year master once I finish my university studies I expect that I will get a job in a firm. My prospects lean on a bunch of factors. First of all, my curriculum vitae (CV) facilitates my mission to get the job since I speak more than two languages and my university's grades used to be good. Secondly, when the firm will call for an interview every thing will be in my benefit. I am a self-confident person and this feature will help me to answer the interviewer's questions very confidently. Furthermore, I have an economical background that may please the company's boss. Being a creative person is another factor that boosts my chance to get the job deal. That is to say that I have new ideas that would appear interesting for them. Last and not least, I expect to face some obstacles to adapt with the new job. Mainly that the practical field is totally different from the theoretical side; we have never apply something that we (learners) have learned in the classroom out side it. In addition, I think that I'll be in need of time in order to gain the experience that may help me to adapt with the new job. Finally, I suppose that I'll experience new atmosphere that may frustrate me. I mean that I'll be surrounded by new people, new faces whom I know nothing about them. Furthermore, I assume that the job conditions will not fit me well (time devoted - holiday ...). To sum up with, my assumptions are based on several factors that I guess that it may explain my point.

SYC



All what I have to say is that the job market is getting just worse, people are running behind and chasing job, ready to spend money and even do illegal actions, it doesn't matter what it costs.

I'm not expecting a thing once I finish my university studies. As an economy section student, I know that economy represents such a basic factor that can effect the country positively or negatively, but as long as our thoughtless state is leaning on foreign companies and natural resources, there is no need for us, the new university graduates due to the lack of experience and practice especially internship. What we were talking about till now support mini-independent companies and private work, while the government is paying no attention or serious interest to the unlucky forgotten social status, instead it is focusing on investments and reputation that serve its global ranking.

As a summary, the conclusion to this topic is simply that work in Algeria become the main concern of each citizen and a necessity for a suitable future.

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Step first draft

Point: The job market in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated

Today, To gain money is the most desirable aim of ^{ME} the most of Algerian people, and to reach that aim they have to look ^{SE} out for a job and to try to swallow the bitter of the job market which is getting more and more complicated. First, Troubles began ^{ME} from the announcements of jobs which is demanding experts ^{SE} (not the new task in the new careers), system L.M.S For example is a new system and most of the job market ^{ME} do not trust ^{ME} on the new graduate students efforts or abilities, So how they ^{SE} suppose to be experts if they didn't give them the chance, Second, nepotism ^{SE} is a familiar and the most powerful word in Algeria context which aband ^{ME} and gives ^{ME} many chances and opportunities of jobs from every specialities. So the possibility of having jobs increase and vice-versa-. Finally, To have a honorable ^{LE} job is These complicated situations need patient, and Algerian

Step
especially the young ^{ME} Chinese ^{S.E} do bear these situations and look for
"easy money" like selling illegal stuff, illegal business
but if they had "the will" they would ^{ME} find any and every
or any other ^{IE (SE)} obstacle would stop them from reaching any other aims
and away to a job

N° 06

(17)

Step -

Getting job in the Algeria context is very difficult and passing many complicated. First, the influence of the job market in Algeria context by corruption especially bribery because the best solution for the majority of people, by giving some money to get work, without make any offices or have experience, although there are other's who are better than them, with a good level and passing more experiences but they haven't job. Second, the reputation that have and play the important role in getting job, especially now there is no job without reputation, that they need it like means of helpness. Third, some times level of study also cause difficulties to get job, that some companies has special condition like diplomas which is not always available on people, so it let them stay without job in jobless.

N° 07

19

As a student in second year master in economy section, I was asked to tell my expectations in the job market once I finish my university studies. I suggest that the job market seems unable to be furnished and given a lot of importance due to a bunch of considerable causes. First at all, ethics or ethical standards are nearly going to be disrespected in business affairs. Bribing, Counterfeiting and embezzlement would spread largely in the field of economy to a high degree. As a consequence, it would harm the productivity of making and buying goods. That ultimate may lead indirectly to the loss of both individual and communities' rights. Secondly, it's obvious that when we engage in such activity that many head companies and employers seem not well educated enough to take part in such work. That's why we may notice more and more misdeeds taking place without perfect planning set before, which might bring out the conception of the wrong attitude in the inappropriate situation. And finally, I expect what may make the job market going deteriorated is the absence of enlightening inside society. To engage in an economic activity, there should be a kind of knowledge base about such field of work. I consider that the wisdom of making right decisions, designs and strategies wouldn't be touched by the results of the main objectives of the job market's sub-activities.



People should as soon as possible be informed as much as they can to learn about the economic culture so that they would be allowed to create their own activities.

N° 08



2019

الورقة الإضافية رقم :

تاريخ الإمتحان :

المقاس :

الإسم واللقب :



COE

* Job market in the Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. ^(SE) first there is no chance for work what makes Algerian ^(SE) peopl. leave Algeria ^(SE) looking for a job. the job market in Algeria ^(ME) have a lot of problems like the lack of experience and bad workers ^(COE) also unavailability of jobs. second, the situation of job market in Algeria is getting ^(SE) wors. because of nepotism, corruption and other obstacles ^(SE) also absence of control which make people ^(ME) face a lot of difficulties. the job market in Algeria ^(ME) also suffering from ^(COE) lack of competence and dishonest ^(ME) unfair employers. all this make ^(SE) problems in economic ^(XSE) so in the market of job in Algeria ^(ME) there is no balance between graduates and work opportunities.



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الورقة الإضافية رقم :

تاريخ الإمتحان :

المقياس :

الإسم واللقب

The job market in Algeria content seems to get more and more difficult. First acquaintance means to use money as a way to get the job even though you don't have any level that allows to have it. eg. Second, lack of experience and now the institutions are concerned about the oldest workers because of their experience in jobs and avoid the new graduated workers. Third, the spread of corruption in the Algerian government which is a big problem because of the hunger of responsables.


 The (market) job market in the Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. ^(SE)
 First of all, the corruption of the responsible ^(SE) they don't appoint-
 the person according to his degree ^(SE); or to his experience ^(SE)
^{according} ~~so~~ but to his money. They can prepare an auction ^(SE) for ~~X~~ job and
 give it to who pay more. ^(IE) Secondly, nepotism ^(SE) if you have
an acquaintance you can't even dream about a job. This
 is a general truth in our country. Third, lack of experience ^(ME)
 of course if you didn't work before in your specialist ^(ME) and
 you don't have recommendation to work at that place you
^(ME) ~~chance~~ you can't have a chance. ^(SE) Finally, hard competition
^(SE) about a job because there is many persons ^(SE) apply to ^(SE)
^(ME) job and in the same time which ^(ME) mak your opportunity
 very weak.

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Step Drafting

The job market in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated. First of all, it is caused by the corruption feature which is wide spread in new days and as muslims ~~we~~ we are not allowed to give the under payment in order to have job so, it is forbidden by our religion. Second, hard tests, employers do hard tests on purpose which ^{is} to make the majority of candidates lose the opportunity of work which can be available for others. Third, the feature of nepotism it is also well spread in the Algerian society, nepotism makes jobs specified for specific people, I mean who have people with great status in companies and other work institutions, even if this people are not qualified or graduated, they take great status and respected job without making efforts or having enough information in the domain they work in or deal with. Finally, our companies and work institutions are suffering from the lack of qualified employees, they cannot make the difference between qualified and unqualified workers because they get their jobs in illegal way. So we are not going to get rid of the job complications if we don't change many things in the society especially in the work establishments.

The job market in the Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated.

First, a lot of people suffer from unemployment and that has many causes. For example nepotism, which is dominant in our society because the qualification is uncountable. ??

The spread of corruption in the Algerian society makes people who hasn't level to take places of the others who have the right to work.

The lack of the opportunity of the work that refers to the responsible who don't play the real role. ??

Another point which is very important is the classes of people that means the rich has the priority than the poorer.

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step ...

The job in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated and this ^{IE} back to different reasons, First because of the corruption that it is expanding ^{LE} in all the country that means if you bribe ^{SE} someone in order to have a job you will get it easily and this ^{SE} as reality that only few people taken their jobs in a legal and honest way, the other reason is "nepotism" if you have ^{SE} a known people ^{SE} they will facilitate things for you to have ^{SE} the job that you want, ^{SE} money is another reason, if you have it many ways are going to be opened for you and one of these things is that you are going to have the job you dreamed about.

first

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first draft :

The job market in Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. First, corruption is a source of jobless and finding difficulties to get a job, as a result corruption is the most principal cause of spreading nepotism, bribery and embezzlement. So, this phenomena can effect in society and make many distinctions between people, specially in work, nepotism can enjoin people who want to find jobs it make a distinguish between post and X rich, so only who know just who know some people in high position can find work easy, even who has no competence or not professional in that domain, in our society most of them are bribe in any domain not only work, even houses, administration, more over spread of jobless cause of lack of institution, this lack can effect to find difficulties in job, because there are no institution and companies it make under investment, and all of this is source of scarless of government.



48

Managing a global marketing organization after getting the MA degree would lead me to face three main obstacles. First of all the lack of experience: It is obvious that joining the working world for the first time is often faced with an environment that implies a very different behaviour than the one we observed at university, such as the shift from the theoretical tasks to the practical ones, and the adaptability with the new context as a manager. Secondly, building a Business relationships: it would be a challenge for me as a fresh boss to have a good connection with every one I deal with across business, as the heads of customer service department, the product manager and may be the ordinary workers too. Third, making a successful plan: assuming the responsibility of managing an organization need a hand over of mine inside to craft the right business plan concept and thoroughly to introduce our work for the foreign investors in the best way. Finally: we can say that these three obstacles stay an expectation of mine about my future career in the job market.

SE

LE

IE

SE

SE

LE

SE + LE

(X) In our world today especially in Algeria context getting the job is being more and more difficult and complicated

First, there are a lot of jobs because of (the) lot of graduates if the person isn't qualified enough and educated he can't get the job easily so he (should) should study hard to get the diploma which opens the doors of (the) opportunities for him if the person is not educated he will face hard conditions

like working in inappropriate places with minimal wage which can't even support him (S) but there are some people who are educated and qualified and have the diploma but unfortunately they don't have the chance to get the job and that leads us to another factor which is (the) nepotism and (the) bribery which are destroying

(IE) first by hit our society there are a lot of people who faced this obstacle my neighbour is one of them after he had graduation from college and holding the degree with his he seeks for job and when he found it his place was taken by another guy who had (the) nepotism and (the) money (that) man he had the paper so the one who had the money and (the) nepotism had (the) power (L)

(SE) and they can't do any work he wants even if he is well qualified or educated like my french teacher (who was) because of her my level at english was and still is so bad

18

Step

The job market in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated. First, there is no networking from the companies responsible. There is no commercial communication, for example, if you have nepotism you will be treated as a queen. Second, The prerequisites of the job are not clear to the employee. For instance, the job needed doesn't precise the wages, so the employee can't be satisfied about his wages. Finally, there is joblessness, such as, when the position is low and the number of candidates are higher than supply.

N° 18

④

The job market in Algerian context is getting more and more complicated, one of its main features is the emergence of bureaucracy for example an employee sticks to his job until he gets retired or offered it to another person, and job system doesn't depend primarily on merit like it suppose to be but rather on administrable reputation. Furthermore the administrable complexity creates obstacles to algerian and even foreign exporters due to bribery forgery , also people suffer from the lack of job opportunities especially certain domains for instance most algerian people focus on education and commerce rather than agriculture and industry that leads to expansion and job loss as a result, this lack is well exemplified by the issue of ||||| ??

88

o3 = Abuse of power for personal purposes
Support idea = 4 = Difficulties by the government to work

Detail o1 = Asked a lot of papers and files

o2 = complicated things and conditions for
making

N° 20

o3 = complex laws and procedures alienate
common people to ask for any help from government

o4 - write the first draft

The job market in Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. First, corruption & bribery because of the lack of interest by officials. people complain in the spread of bribery, the government on being severe corruption is highly ineffective and disorganized??, poverty and deterioration of order in the country, the abuse of power for a benefit or the expense of the duties of the position due to need, vast size of population coupled with widespread illiteracy and the poor economic infrastructure lead to endemic corruption in public life, abst aphic harsh conditions and laws. Second, the lack of companies and institutions X because of underinvestment, not efficient at work, the exploitation of the country's wealth to import everything. Third, nepotism, every government names close associates to key cabinet positions, friends and family can usually be counted on for loyalty, and office holders are in good position to know their strengths, abuse of power for personal purposes. Finally, include difficulties by the government to work, asked a lot of papers and files, complicated things and conditions for making, complex laws and procedures alienate common people to ask for any help from government

0

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Step

The job market in the Algerian context is getting more and more complicated. First, (the) nepotism takes an important role in our society without it, no one can get jobs easily. For example, when you want to be a teacher, you must have X looking for help by some workers in the educational union to give you a hand to get it as soon as possible or you won't be acceptable. Second, Bribery which is an unethical way for greedy people like when you ask for a job, you have to pay before getting it, X for example footballers sometimes pay a lot of money just to win the match, this causes a great stir today because there is no equality, In addition, segregation is spread all over the world, as in some European countries, it's forbidden for women to get job of "stewardess" because they don't accept girls wearing "Hidjab" or they will be ignored and jobless. Finally, the national service to become an obstacle for some men X they can't get jobs without the reform which is an important today, for example, when you want to work abroad, it's forbidden to travel or you will be wanted



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الورقة الإضافية رقم :

تاريخ الامتحان:

المقياس:

الإسم واللقب

The job market is getting more and more complicated in our context. First, the corruption destroy society, which led to a bad person with selfishness for example, bribes to get a nice job as you like. All so spread of racism between people "poor and rich or from man and woman, like the jungle law which is the stronger eat the weaker, neglect the important companies because no conditions and there is bad materials. Second, The nepotism in all domaine which is success in all the competitions without any difficulties of work "job market", irresponsible person those whom asked you to give them bribery. In Algeria there is plenty of people have a diploma but the big phenomena of jobless it caused by fullness of production and no responsible people. Finally, sometimes the job get by the chance and destiny of God.

N° 22

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Step ... Draft ...

To have a job in our society it's something become ^(Sye)

difficult and that's because of the corrupted system

of our government that ^(ME) face many problems and

points of weaknesses. First, the problem of bribery,

^(Sye) it's a dangerous phenomenon that is controlling

people minds where they use money in order to

have jobs or anything they want, and it ^(ME) spread

quickly in our society. Second we have the bad

use of money, because ^(Sye) there's no clear strategies

to use their money to create new jobs, and how

to manage a good system that lead government ^(Sye)

to solve these problems, for example ^(Sye) the government

spent the year before the last ^(Sye) over 180 billion

algerian dinars on fire works ^(Sye) in the 50th anniversary

of independence, which is a big number, also we have

^(Sye) a corrupted responsables who ^(ME) took a lot of money

using their powers. Finally, our economic system

Step

Sy. E

is poor, the reason is that there's no good investments

that fix our economic system, no good local

industry where is importing more than exporting

and the bad quality of local merchandise

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Step

The job in the Algerian market is getting more and more complicated. First
SESE
the management of the Algerian system is not at all effective, there is no
balanced system between the rate of graduation and the working places
also, responsables are presenting the working places at the first place for
their personal services and government is proceeding with wrong
measures which consist on catering the needs instead of satisfying them
Second, the Algerian society is dominated by segregation in all fields
"economy, education, trade...". The simplest example is that, if you are a
graduated person and you are searching for a work, it is neither your
diploma nor your capacities that would provide it, it is rather your
shoulders in life and the warmth of your pocket that will make it yours
Segregation can also be exemplified in the different treatment of people because
of their difference in (the) social status, race and cultures. Alg, Kabalia,
Mizab and so on. Finally, our whole country is governed by the sake of
personal potentialities rather than the economic and social stability
We can see the validity of this statement in today's news, where the educational
system became a jungle and each union is only seeking its own benefits



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الورقة الإضافية رقم:

المقياس: ٤٥٣ تاريخ الامتحان:

الإسم واللقب:



The jobs market in the Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. First, the nepotism is the unfair use of power in order to get jobs or benefits for your family or friends. in Algeria if you know someone has acquaintance and of course you must have money, he'll use this nepotism and money to get the job or office easily. Second, the corruption of the responsables, they didn't give the job or office to who deserve it, there are a lot of university students have a degree and diploma and they jobless, and a lot of people they have no level but they get jobs and this by bribery who the responsables take it. Third, lack of capability of professional now in Algeria the majority of who waste one just the oldest, all the institution concerning about the old workers because they have the capability of professional and the experience and they avoid the new graduates because they miss the capability.

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Step 3

In Algeria there is difficulties to get a job and the job market is getting more and more complicated. First the influence of nepotism to getting a job like corruption which take huge place in Algerian Society and bribery because some people give money to the responsible to get the job they want and there is no fair with people and some of them are negotiating because of poverty and unknown persons. Second missing of companies and poste of work, the missing of factories, schools, magazine... take the chance of getting a job impossible and also missing of material what make people waiting a job for many years their different studies without purpose and without achievement and develop dream work because people study for many years and when they graduate they didn't find a job, there is no strict rules in Algerian education every one succeed and just one get a job

The job market in the Algerian context seems to get more and more complicated. First, in our country, the corruption is increasing. only who gives bribery is lucky to get a job. moreover our government does not work with integrity and it is clear in the approval text. In addition, the whole issues are badly managed although our country has the abilities to secure too much job's positions but we see the contrast. The second bad thing is the social problem, we observe that the number of population is increasing so our government is unable to secure the job's positions for all and I think that no one is in his right position for instance, you find a person who is specialised in biology but he works as a teacher of french language. Then, in economics, we lack too much investments, we are just rely on machines and exports and the worst thing is that the foreigners workers like chinese represent the high percentage of our workforce.

(28)

The job market in Algeria context seems to get more and more complicated. First in our country the corruption and nepotism were increasing. Our country was very rich it was able to secure the jobs to the people but we see the contrast. Only who had power and give bribery get jobs. Second the biggest problem we never found some one in his position that why the most of people are jobless and who had knowledge are jobless (and also in competition) they win because of nepotism because our responsible didn't do their job. Some one who study english teach french. Finally we observe there are no strategic plans that all the king of our government because they have every thing to secure the jobs to people but we found most people are jobless.



In the Algerian context the job market seems to get more and more complicated because there are many problems in our society, such as, the spread of corruption for example the Bribery, it means even if some one has a degree or level of any domain he can work as a manager or something like that, because someone helped him to get a job and he paid for it.

There is also nepotism which is a big problem. For example when I want to do something in school or any associations should know someone to do it well.

If there isn't this problems in our community the job market get more and more honest.

In our society it become really hard to get a job.
it passes from a lot of drawbacks first, lack of specialities it means
you study a special branch but you are obliged to work on other
thing, but this idea is not supported by the other persons
who refuse this job. secondly is the problem of corruption which
is the biggest one (and it take the necessity) mainly in our daily
life in this situation if you don't pay money you can't get
a job. so here you can think about (the) poor persons and
and what will happen to them? thirdly we have also the
a problem which is lack of experience that the worker should
work before he takes his job. for instance if you look to the
society it will not accept you until you have an experience X
and how can we improve our selves and skills. the last problem
is employment which means the big number of job less because
we don't have factories and if we think to go out of Algeria.

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job market in the algerian context

seems to get more and more complicated, first ^{SE} these

are no job opportunities because in algeria there is a small

number of companies, which contain a very old employer? ^{IE}

that do not want to renew to let other's work, the ^{ME}

algerian ^{ME} ~~traveller's~~ makes it more difficult, But ~~barbary~~ ^{SE}

also ^{ME} ~~do~~ ^{SE} that ~~instead~~ ^{SE} barbary makes it even harder, ^{SE}

Second ^{SE} the educational level because in algeria to get

a job you should have a higher educational level,

but the big problem is that youth do not care

about their studies, and sometimes we even ^{ME} found that

people with diplomas do not get a job because they

study about models which are not available ⁱⁿ to work in

algeria, finally the ^{ME} prevalence which means

the lack of private companies, because people

742
The job market in Algerian context is more and more complicated, First, many features and conditions that are obliged to the government to establish them like factories, companies, schools ^{SE} et which led to have the lot of resources, every action has specific materials to facilitate the employers for win (the efforts, money and time) so must be original to get good results that are unknown in our companies, the most of employers are not serious doing these job not by heard tricks blamed the company and have problems with peoples, in contrast of the wealth of our land but the falling of national income ^{M.E} more and more rise ^{I.E} led to never build and developed our economic domain, Second, the phenomena of racism is appear in all of domains, the most important at all is the respect and equality that are neglected between people, the spreading of corruption in Algeria society specially bribery even if there are hard workers whom deserve so,

the arbitrary phenomena persecuted poor people whom cannot have capacities to get the job causing by the jugs of appearances and power of people even if they deceive them, Finally, all of people have their own hopes to realize them in school performance but some difficulties destroy people carrier, free of universities and efforts made to hisitating people and escape to complete their studying, In Algerian context you must have specific evage in passing bac exam and no chance to change the speciality of studying even if you haven't will and capacities to get diplomat on it in any way unadmitted, each year there are some needs of specific speciality employment so this is the matter of chance and destiny of god.

Finally, The weak of regulation and
control because responsables or peoples
don't respect and apply or work with
laws and conditions

So, This negative features is big mistake
and bad behaviour in our religion and
life in general.

Step

Third, As the majority of Algerians say it's not what you know, but who you know.

I totally agree with this parole because nepotism and favouritism give advantage to someone who doesn't merit this job. and when it comes to getting good jobs, if you don't have any connections, there is no need to try to find a job.

Also, Newcomers to the labor market as well as the problems of immigration made of chronic unemployment crisis.

Finally, many social problems are spread through the joblessness: frustration, drug addiction, even suicides.

Abstract

Algerian Arabic Varieties Speakers' Errors in English Writings "A Contrastive Error Analysis Study"

The present doctoral thesis aims at investigating the main causes behind the grammatical errors the Algerian students at university tend to make in their written production. Based on the contrastive error analysis procedure, the focus is made on the contrast and comparison of the two basic morpho-syntactic systems of English and Arabic to predict and explain the unnatural word combination as well as the morphological errors extracted from a selected sample of 160 essays written by students at the Economic and Management Faculty in Tiaret University. The students' incorrect shift of various grammatical structures and word formation errors clarify clearly the evidence of Arabic interference into English as a result of the structural differences between the systems of both languages. This would stress the hypothesis that learners' already acquired knowledge affects their performance in L2.

Key Words: Error analysis - Contrastive analysis – Grammar – Syntax – Morphology – Interlanguage- Language interference and transfer.

Résumé

Les Erreurs en Anglais Ecrites Commises par les Locuteurs des Variétés d'Arabe Algériennes 'Étude Contrastive et Analytique de l'Erreur'

L'objectif de cette thèse de doctorat est d'explorer les causes principales derrière les erreurs grammaticales que les étudiants universitaires Algériens dans les branches scientifiques font dans leurs productions écrites. Basé sur une méthode d'analyse contrastive, ce travail est concentré sur la comparaison et le contraste des deux systèmes morpho-syntactiques de l'Anglais et l'Arabe afin d'expliquer les combinaisons peu naturelles des mots ainsi que les erreurs morphologiques retirées d'une sélection d'échantillons de 160 essais écrits par les étudiants de la Faculté d'Économie et de Gestion à l'Université de Tiaret. Le changement incorrect de plusieurs structures grammaticales et les erreurs de formation des mots que font les étudiants explique clairement l'évidence de l'interférence de L1 (Arabe) vers L2 (Anglais) suite à la différence qui existe aux niveaux du système des deux langues. Cela souligne l'hypothèse que les connaissances déjà acquises par les apprenants affectent leur performance en L2.

Mots Clés: Analyse des erreurs - Analyse Contrastive – Grammaire- Syntaxe - Morphologie - Interlangue - L'interférence et le transfert de langues

المخلص

الأخطاء الكتابية في الإنجليزية لمتحدثي أصناف العربية الجزائرية 'دراسة تقابلية وتحليلية للخطأ'

يتفحص البحث الخاص بـمذكرة الدكتوراه الأسباب الرئيسية وراء الأخطاء النحوية التي يرتكبها الطلبة الجزائريون بالجامعة عند تناولهم للنصوص الكتابية. معتمدين على طريقة الدراسة المقارنة، فإن التركيز يدور حول الاختلاف و كذا مقارنة النظام النحوي للـلغتين الإنجليزية و العربية لمعرفة و شرح التركيب الغير طبيعي للكلمات و المأخوذ من نماذج لـ 160 عمل كتابي لطلبة كلية الاقتصاد والتسيير بجامعة تيارت. التغيير الغير صحيح للعديد من التركيبات النحوية و كذا التركيب الخاطئ للكلمة يفسر بشكل واضح التداخل اللغوي من العربية إلى الإنجليزية، و ذلك بسبب اختلاف اللغتين. و هذا ما يدفع إلى تأكيد الفرضية التي تقول بأن المعارف المكتسبة سابقا من قبل المتعلمين تؤثر على أدائهم بالنسبة للغة 2.

مفاتيح الكلمات: - دراسة الأخطاء - دراسة مقارنة - القواعد - النحو - الصرف - اللغة الوسيطة - التداخل اللغوي