People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

8 MAI 1945 UNIVERSITY / GUELMA — **جامعة 8 ماي 1945 / قالمة**

FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES — **كلية الآداب و اللغات**

DEPARTMENT OF LETTERS & ENGLISH LANGUAGE — **قسم الآداب و اللغة الإنجليزية**

Modern Standard Arabic Interference on English Foreign Language Students Spoken English Syntactic Structures: Case Study of First Tear Students of English in the Department of English at 8 Mai 1945 University, Guelma.

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Anglophone Language, Literature and Civilizations

Submitted by:

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Mr. CHETTIBI Mohammed Walid

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Examiner: Mrs. BISKRI Yamina - MAB **University of 8 Mai 1945- Guelma**

June 2018

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to,

My sympathetic father Ali and thoughtful mother Rahima whose love always strengthens my will.

My lovely sisters Hadia and Ikram. Thank you for being a source of encouragement and inspiration.

My brother Fahed who supports me.

My beloved husband Yacine.

My adorable sisters in law Amel and Rima.

My mother in law Razika

My little lovely cousins Massilia, Lydia and Syrine.

My aunts Ghania and Hakima.

All my teachers.

May Allah bless you all

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I would like first to thank Allah for giving me strength and capacity to complete this work.

I would like to express my extreme gratitude to my teacher and Supervisor Mr. Mohammed Walid Chettibi for his unaccountable guidance, support, help and patience.

I am enormously thankful to the members of the jury: Dr. Bengrait Nawel and Mrs. Beskri Yamina who read and examine my work.

I am likewise immensely grateful to all teachers who have taught me at 8 Mai 1945 Guelma University.

I gratefully wish to thank all the first year LMD students of the Department of English for their help and seriousness in completing the questionnaire.

Last but not least, my deepest appreciation and love also go to my family and friends especially my mother whose prayers and encouragement are the basis of my success

Abstract

English language learners commit oral syntactic errors because of mother tongue interference. All learners aim to use the target language fluently and appropriately; however, with mother tongue interference, they seem unable to achieve their aim. Native language interference makes learners produce oral syntactic errors; consequently, their utterances become ambiguous for the interlocutor. Error analysis appeared as a language study that focuses on learners' deviations and suggests solutions and techniques to help both teachers and learners to overcome this obstacle. In this context, the present work aims at analyzing the frequent syntactic errors committed by first year students of English (84 out of 252) in oral communication as a result of modern standard Arabic language interference which enables in suggesting solutions to overcome this problem. To achieve this goal, a descriptive method was adopted which involves quantitative tool by means of questionnaire and qualitative one through observation of students produced speech. The study proved that Arabic syntax interferes with the application of English syntactic rules and that this could be diminished if some recommendations are taken seriously by both teachers and learners.

***Keywords*:** Error Analysis, Syntax, Speaking, Mother Tongue Interference, Case Study

List of Abbreviations

ADJ: adjective.

ADV: adverb.

CAH: contrastive analysis hypothesis.

DET: determiner.

EA: error analysis.

EL: English language.

FL: foreign language.

L1 : first language.

MSA: modern standard Arabic.

N: noun.

NP : noun phrase.

NL: native language.

NUM: numeral.

PP: prepositional phrase.

PREP : preposition.

QUANT: quantifier.

REL: relative clause.

TL: target language.

Fem: Feminine

Masc: Masculine

Transliteration

NUMBER	MODERN STANDARD ARABIC ALPHABET	I.P.A.	NUMBER	MODERN STANDARD ARABIC ALPHABET	I.P.A.
1	أ	ʔ	20	ف	f
2	ب	b	21	ق	q
3	ت	t̪	22	ك	k
4	ث	θ	23	ل	l
5	ج	ʒ	24	م	m
6	ح	ħ	25	ن	n
7	خ	x or χ	26	ه	h
8	د	d̪	27	و	w
9	ذ	ð	28	ي	j
10	ر	r	29	ـَ	a
11	ز	z	30	ـُ	u
12	ش	s	31	ـِ	i
13	س	ʃ	32	ـا	a:
14	ص	sˤ	33	ـو	u:
15	ض	ðˤ	34	ـي	i :
16	ط	t̪ˤ	35	ـً	an
17	ظ	d̪ˤ	36	ـُو	un
18	ع	ʕ	37	ـٍ	in
19	غ	ɣ or ʁ			

List of Tables

Table 01: Students' Gender……..57

Table 02: Students' Years of Learning English Language……..58

Table 03: Students' Choice of Learning English……..59

Table 04: Students' Assessment of their Level in English Language……..59

Table 05: Learners' Most Important Skill……60

Table 06: Learners' Attitudes toward Speaking Skill Difficulty……61

Table 07: Learners' Assessment of their Current Level in English Speaking……62

Table 08: Degree of Liking Speaking English inside the Classroom……..62

Table 09: The Frequency of Practicing English outside the Classroom……..63

Table 10: Causes of Speaking Difficulties……..64

Table 11: Learners' Views about the most Important Component in Speaking Skill ……..65

Table 12: Learners' Rank of Errors in Productive Skill……66

Table 13: Level of Frequent English Speaking Errors……..67

Table 14: Learners' Attitude toward the Causes behind their Oral Syntactic Errors……68

Table 15: Learners' Solutions to Produce New Structures……69

Table 16: Learners' Views about the Type of Arabic syntactic Transfer on English Language speaking ……..70

Table 17: Learners' Attitudes toward the Reasons behind Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking……..71

Table 18: Factors Activate Language Interference……...72

Table 19: Most Frequent Error Caused by Arabic Interference in English Oral Production..74

Table 20: Consequences of Arabic Syntactic Interference on Learners' English Speaking Skill…….. 75

Table 21: Remedies for Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking Skill…….77

Table 22: Learners Misordering Errors……79

Table 23: Learners Misformation Errors…….80

Table 24: Learners Addition Errors……82

Table 25: Learners Omission Errors……83

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: English Clause……21

Figure 1.2.: English Sentence…….22

Contents

Dedication……..…….....i

Acknowledgements ……..……....ii

Abstract …….…….… ...iii

List of Abbreviations……..……..……...iv

List of Tables v

List of Figures……..……..…...……...vii

Table of Contents ……..……...……..…...viii

General Introduction

Introduction…….……..……..……..02

1. Statement of the problem ……...……..02

2. Research Questions……...02

3. Aims of the Study……...……...……...……03

4. Research Hypothesis……..……. ….03

5. Research Methodology and Design……..03

5.1 Research Method…….03

5.2 Population of the Study……..04

5.3 Data Gathering Tool……04

6. Structure of the Dissertation ……..……...……...04

Chapter One: Syntax of English and Modern Standard Arabic

Introduction ……....07

1. Definition of Syntax……..07

2. The Difference between Grammar and Syntax…….08

3. The Source of Syntactic Rules…….08

4. Syntax in English Language……09

4.1 English Syntactic Categories……...09

4.1.1 Nouns……10

4.1.2 Verbs…….10

4.1.3 Pronouns…….11

4.1.4 Adjectives……12

4.1.5 Adverbs……13

4.1.6 Conjunctions……14

4.1.7 Prepositions……..14

4.1.8 Interjections……..15

4.1.9 Modals…….15

5. English Word Order…….16

5.1 Word Oder in Noun Phrase……17

5.2 Word Order in Prepositional Phrase……....18

5.3 Word Order in Verb Phrase…….18

5.4 Word Order in Adjective Phrase…….19

6. English Clause……..19

7. English Sentence……..22

7.1 Interrogative Sentences……...23

7.2 Exclamative Sentences……23

8. Subject Verb Agreement in English Language…….23

8.1 Subject Verb Agreement Rules……...24

9. Verb Tenses……..26

9.1 The Past Tenses……...27

9.1.1 The Past Simple Tense…….27

9.1.2 The Past Progressive Tense……..27

9.1.3 The Past Perfect Tense…….28

9.1.4 The Past Perfect Progressive Tense……..28

9.2 The Present Tenses……..29

9.2.1 The Present Simple Tense……....29

9.2.2 The Present Progressive Tense…….29

9.2.3 The Present Perfect Tense……30

9.2.4 The Present Perfect Progressive Tense ……30

9.3 The Future Tenses……...31

9.3.1 The future Tense……..…….31

9.3.2 The Future Progressive Tense…….…….31

9.3.3 The Future Perfect Tense……..32

9.3.4 The Future Perfect Progressive……32

10. Modern Standard Arabic Syntax…….……32

10.1 Modern Standard Arabic Tenses……...32

10.1.1 Present Tense……..33

10.1.2 Past Tense……...33

10.2 Modern Standard Arabic Adverbs……...34

10.3 Modern Standard Arabic Sentence Structure……..35

10.4 Modern Standard Arabic Adjectives……35

10.5 Modern Standard Arabic Demonstrative Pronouns ……36

10.6 Defnite and Indefnite Articles in Modern Standard Arabic……36

Conclusion……36

Chapter Two: Speaking Skill

Introduction…….39

1. Definition of Speaking……39

2. Speaking Skill Functions……..40

2.1 Talk as Interaction……..40

2.2 Talk as Transaction……40

2.3 Talk as Performance……..41

3. Mother Tongue (MT) vs Target Language (TL) Speaking……..41

4. Teaching Speaking……..42

5. Factors Influencing Speaking…….44

5.1 Motivation ……44

5.2 Inhibition……....44

5.3 Vocabulary……..45

5.4 Grammar …….45

5.5 Mother Tongue……45

Conclusion……46

Chapter Three: Error Analysis and Language Interference

Introduction...…….……..48

1. Learners' Errors ……...48

2. The Concept of Errors……..…….49

2.1 Errors vs Mistakes……..……49

2.2 Error Analysis…….50

3. Model of Error Analysis……51

4. Types of Errors…….52

4.1 Omission…….52

4.2 Addition……..53

4.3 Misformation……..53

4.4 Misordering…….53

5. Sources of Errors ……..……53

5.1 Interlingual Errors…….……..53

5.2 Intralingual Errors…….……..54

6. Mother Tongue Interference…….54

7. Language Interference vs Language Transfer……..56

8. Language Interference Causes…….56

9. Language interference and Error Analysis……57

Conclusion……58

Chapter Four: Field of Investigation

Introduction …….60

1. Students' Questionnaire……...60

2. Methodology……60

3. Analysis of Learners' Questionnaire…….61

4. Summary of Learners' Questionnaire..…….....81

5. The Corpus……82

6 Description of the Observation…….....82

7. Procedures…….83

8. Learners' oral Syntactic Errors…….83

8.1 Misordering Errors……..83

8.2 Misformation Erros…….85

8.3 Addition Errors……..87

8.4 Omission Errors……..88

9. Summary of Observational data……...90

Recommendations……90

Conclusion……....91

General Conclusion…….95

References……..…….97

Glossary

Appendices

Appendix 01: Learners' Questionnaire

French Summary

Arabic Summary

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Language interference is one of the fundamental difficulties faced by foreign language (FL) learners; this linguistic phenomenon occurs when the native language has effects on the learning process of the target language (TL). Language interference can make the learning experience frustrating since it can appear at different linguistic levels (syntax, phonology, morphology, etc.) and affect the language skills.

Mastery of the language is the main objective behind learning FL; however, this cannot be easily achieved due to language interference. During the process of FL learning, learners rely on to their mother tongue as an attempt to facilitate the task of TL production, thus, learners' structures will be incorrect and the message they intend to convey will be misunderstood.

1. Statement of the Problem

The majority of the learners at the department of English, university 8 Mai 1945, Guelma, appear to be accumulating enough knowledge about the TL; however, most of them face the problem of structure organization in oral communication. Thus, common oral syntactic errors occur in their speech during lessons. This may be due to different factors, but the most influential one is mother tongue (MT) interference on FL oral production. In this respect, many learners depend on their knowledge about native language (NL) in order to master and understand the TL. Consequently, the use of the NL can hinder the proper internalization of the TL rules and pave the way for language interference to occur.

2. Research Questions

This research addresses the following main questions:

- What are the main syntactic errors English language learners commit in oral communication?
- Do learners care about learning and applying the syntactic rules of English?
- To what extent the modern standard Arabic (MSA) language affects the learning process of spoken English language?
- What are the main solutions that may help both teachers and learners to overcome this problem of language interference at an early stage of language learning?

3. Aims of the Study

This research is conducted in order to:

- Analyse the frequent syntactic errors committed by English language learners in oral communication.
- Provide an explanation about the way these errors can affect the potential of communication.
- Show the relation of those errors with MSA language interference.
- Provide teachers with some solutions on how to help the learners avoid language interference in an advanced level of learning.

4. Research Hypothesis

Language interference is one of the main causes behind oral syntactic errors committed by English language learners. In FL learning context, some errors may appear when first language (L1) structures influence the production of the TL structures. Although mother tongue can be helpful in English language learning process, but, it is preferable to put a clear cut between the two in order to avoid confusion and error making. In this research we hypothesize that:

- English FL students commit syntactic errors in speaking due to MSA interference.

5. Research Methodology and Design

5.1 Research Method

In order to confirm or disconfirm the research hypothesis, this study is conducted through quantitative descriptive method. This method helps us to make judgement about the relation between first and second language interference and oral syntactic errors and provide propositions for further inquiry.

5.2 Population and Sampling

The sample is chosen randomly, it consists of first year students at English department of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma University. First year students were selected to be as a population, because they have not fully mastered English system; so their speech may exhibit more errors and this will help in collecting some data of errors and providing some solutions.

5.3 Data Gathering Tools

In order to collect data, students' questionnaire is administrated. It provides us with valuable information about students' attitudes toward oral syntactic difficulties and to what extent MSA is taken into consideration. The observational method also is used in the study, which helps in collecting samples of speech errors.

6. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation is divided into four chapters:

- The first chapter entitled "Syntax of English and Modern Standard Arabic" provides an overview about English and Arabic syntax and the main syntactic rules concerning the order of affirmative sentences, subject verb agreement and verb tenses.

- The second chapter entitled “Speaking Skill” provides a definition of speaking, its functions, the difference between speaking the native and the TL, how to teach speaking and the problems that affect this skill.
- The third chapter entitled “Error Analysis and Language interference” deals with the explanation of the significance of learners’ errors in FL learning, the way to analyse those errors and their relation with language interference.
- The fourth chapter is the “Field of Investigation”. It includes the analyses of the questionnaire administrated to students, and also the analysis of observational data, as well as the interpretation of the results in relation to research questions and hypothesis. Finally, the general conclusion contains the propositions on how can learners decrease language interference on oral syntax as well as research perspectives and limitations.

CHAPTER ONE: SYNTAX of English and Modern Standard Arabic

Introduction ……..07

1. Definition of Syntax……...……...07

2. The Difference between Grammar and Syntax…….....08

3. The Source of Syntactic Rules……..08

4. Syntax in English Language…….09

5. English Word Order…….….16

6. English Clause…….…..19

7. English Sentence…….…..22

8. Subject Verb Agreement in English Language…….23

9. Verb Tenses……...26

10. Modern Standard Arabic Syntax…….32

Conclusion……36

Introduction

When people speak, they tend to use their mental capacities, facial expressions, hand gestures and body movements; in order to transmit their message in a manner that helps the interlocutor to achieve the right meaning and purpose behind the conversation. Syntax contains the rule that guides the speech order, it is the means through which the speaker organizes his/her words, phrases and sentences. Syntax allows the speaker to make his/her speech cohesive and coherent and be more understood and unambiguous to the hearer.

1. The Definition of Syntax

Syntax is something shared between writing and speaking, when we produce something either oral or written, we are unconsciously applying syntactic rules to organize our thoughts in a coherent manner. The word syntax is defined in oxford dictionary (3rd ed) as the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language, but Mathews (1982, p. 01) says that syntax "refers to the branch of grammar dealing with the ways in which words, with or without appropriate inflections, are arranged to show connection of meaning within sentence".

Van Valin (2001, p. 01) argues that syntax is the soul mechanism of languages which concentrates heavily on sentence structure. He confirms that the differences in combining words in a sentence determine the differences between the world's languages. According to Carnie (2013, p. 04), syntax "is the level that mediates between sounds that someone produces (organized into words) and what they intended to say". Therefore, syntax shapes the meaning of words by shaping their order within a sentence.

2. The Differences between Grammar and Syntax

People tend to use the terms “grammar” and “syntax” interchangeably thinking that both refer to the same thing, which is word order. In fact, grammar is broader than syntax, and the two concepts are utterly different from each other. On one hand, grammar studies the structures and meaning of a language and the interaction between them. It is a mixture of syntax, lexicon and semantics (Jacobs, 1995, p. 4). On the other hand, syntax is a branch of grammar, that concentrates only on the rules that organize the combination of words in phrases and sentences in any language. Grau and Revees claim that “syntax is the component of the grammar of a language that deals with the structure of sentences” (1995, p. 65).

Briefly, Grammar can be defined as the linguistic field under which syntax can be studied. Radford (1997, p. 1) claims that grammar holds both studies of words’ formation (morphology) and words’ combination (syntax).

3. The Source of Syntactic Rules

Human beings acquire speaking skill in early ages before acquiring reading and writing. When people acquire to speak a certain language, they are implicitly acquiring its rules being taught. Friedmann and Rizzi (2000, p. 1) declare that “natural languages are extraordinarily rich and complex systems of knowledge; still, children acquire them early in life, with considerable ease and rapidity without, explicit instruction, and on the basis of limited exposure to linguistic data”.

Native speakers are unaware about the process they followed to achieve full mastery of the language, or how they have the ability to understand it; they use the language spontaneously and automatically without thinking about the position of the subject or the verb. This is mainly because they have unconscious knowledge about their language. (Radford, 1997, P. 2)

Therefore, it can be concluded that human beings are born with innate syntactic rules programmed into their brains. They need just to interact with the world around them to make use of these linguistic data, as a base to acquire the language and choose the appropriate grammar that enables them to interpret and use this language appropriately (Chomsky, 1965, p.31- 33)

4. Syntax in English Language

We cannot think of single, uniform English language in terms of its use, because all the factors like the linguistic background, regional origin, culture, sex and age can affect the way in which the language is used. However, when it comes to the sentence organization, English language speakers share common intuitions about the language, which constitute the body of grammar that enables them to speak one common English language.

4.1 English Syntactic Categories

English syntactic categories, also known as parts of speech, refer to the language category that holds words of the same grammatical behavior i.e., they have the same role in the sentence structure. According to Sasse (as cited in Rauh, 2010, p. 33), “The analysis of syntactic categories was familiar to the traditional grammarians under the title parts of speech.” Also, Haspelmath (as cited in Rauh, 2010, p. 2) agreed with Sasse by claiming that “word class”, “parts of speech”, “syntactic category” and “lexical category” have synonymous sense.

All languages around the world are categorized under syntactic categories in order to make them easy to be learned and described. According to Genetti (2014, p.101),“we can classify words based on their syntactic positioning but also on their morphological behavior.” Words of the same syntactic category share the same syntactical position in a sentence as they can share the same morphological behavior; for instance, verbs like “to go” and “to come” are

always preceded by the subject in the sentence and can be affixed by certain morphemes like (go-es and come-es) but not others like (go-ed and come-ed). In English language, there are mainly nine parts of speech including: nouns, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, adjectives, conjunctions, prepositions, interjections and modals.

4.1.1 Nouns

Words which lie under this part of speech are usually used to refer to persons, places and things (Brinton, 2000, p. 118). In English, we can define a word as noun if it can occur in a form of singular and plural or follow determiners (the, a, this etc). A word can be also classified as noun if it can be modified by an adjective. This syntactic category is an open class; it holds an infinite number of words in all languages. Moreover, Abbott (1881, p. 5-6) asserts that nouns can be divided into three types: proper nouns (names of persons like: john, Charles, etc.), common nouns (name shared by a given class like doctor, women, etc.) and collective nouns (name shared by a group like: family, students, etc.).

4.1.2 Verbs

Verbs are words which refer to actions, events, activities or states.This part of speech is the most important one, because it reflects the action of the subject in a sentence. Schachter defines verbs as “the name given to the parts of speech class in which occur most of the words that express actions, processes and the like” (1985, p. 9). The verbs in English language always agree with the subjects they follow or precede, as they can be accompanied with an auxiliary or modal (negation, obligation, ability etc.).

Moreover, mode defines the manner in which a thought, action or state of being is expressed by a verb. Fewsmith and Singer (1866, P. 54) confirm that English verbs have five basic modes:

- The indicative mode is used to make positive sentence or ask a question.
- The potential mode depends on the use of modals (can, must, may) to express ability, obligation, possibility etc.
- The subjunctive mode used to express doubt or something contrary to fact.
- The imperative mode expresses command, advice, warning, etc.
- The infinitive mode used to describe actions and state of being without referring to the subject.

English verbs are divided under three main categories: the first one is identified as physical action verbs, which includes verbs that refer to physical actions or something to be performed like to run, to write, to walk, to act, to teach, etc. The second category of English verbs is known as mental action verbs, which includes verbs that express abstract actions like to think, to guess, to consider, to forget, to hear, etc. The third category is known as state of being verbs, which does not indicate actions; but rather identifies who or what a noun, clause and sentence are. States of being verbs are also considered as linking verbs, which function as a link between the subject and predicate, such as: to seem, to appear, to become, etc.

According to Lester (2012, p. 01), verbs can be divided into two groups: stative and dynamic one. The first refers to “ongoing, existing states or conditions that are not time bound”(2012, p. 01); but, the second deals with verbs which are “time bound” (2012, p. 01). Stative verbs are not time limited actions; however, dynamic verbs are temporary ones.

4.1.3 Pronouns

In English language, Pronouns are words that can substitute nouns. They can also reflect the number and sex of the nouns they replace. According to Genetti (2014, p.111) “Pronouns appear as the sole element of a noun phrase; they do not co-occur with modifiers, thus they are distinct from nouns.”

In English language, there are many types of pronouns; for instance, there are relative pronouns like “which”, “that” and “who”, which are used to link clauses and phrases together. According to Yule (1998, p. 241), “it is common in grammar to treat the relative pronoun as a form that substitutes for a noun and to represent sentences”. Also, there are personal pronouns which are used to refer to a specific individual or group, as well as substituting a noun (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 341-342). These latter agree with the antecedent in number and gender; for instance, the personal pronouns such as “she”, “her” and “hers” are used in a sentence to refer to singular female subject. Demonstrative pronouns form another type; this category is used within a sentence to point to a person, thing or place we want to refer to (Wijesinha, 2004, p.33). The use of demonstrative pronoun is determined by the number and distance of the noun being pointed out. For example the pronoun “this” points to a singular and nearby noun, clause, and noun phrase or sentence; whereas, the pronoun “those” refer to plural and afar noun, clause, noun phrase or sentence.

4.1.4 Adjectives

Words under this category are used to describe, quantify, identifyand modify nouns, pronouns, clauses, noun phrases and sentences. According to Hall and Sonnenschein (1889, p. 6), “adjectives are used with nouns, to describe, identify or enumerate”. In many languages, adjectives agree with the noun and pronoun they modify in quality, size, shape and number, to make it more specific (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 527). For instance, in Arabic we say “أكلتُ تفاحةً كبيرة”, where both the noun and the adjective are singular and indefinite.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 471) state that adjectives cover two main syntactic functions: attributive and predictive one. The former occurs when the adjectives “pre-modify the head of noun phrase” (1985, p. 471) like in “the main cause”, “a total destruction”. Still, the latter

appears when the adjectives “function as subject complement or object complement” (1985, p. 471). Such as “I feel sick”, “the baby is asleep”.

There are many types of adjectives in English: descriptive adjectives are the most common category, which is used to provide detailed information about the noun, pronoun, clause, noun phrase and sentence they modify. In other words, they specify the shape, color, size, smell, and touch of a person, thing or place like: The “pretty” girl with “long brown” hair is Liza. Another category of English adjectives is the adjectives of quantity, which refer to the quantity of the noun or pronoun in a sentence. They answer the question “how much?” and “how many?”. Some of these adjectives are: some, any, little, much, sufficient, insufficient, etc.

4.1.5 Adverbs

Adverbs are usually distinguished from other words by the suffix “ly”; a word is defined as an adverb when it describes a verb, adjective or another adverb (Adams, 1838, p. 100). They also modify sentences and phrases like in “unfortunately, I lost the game”. Furthermore, they are considered to be the most flexible word class, since they can have different positions within the sentence in which they occur.

Adverbs are used within the sentence to specify the setting of the action and describe to what extent it was executed; thus, there are many types of adverbs according to their function in the sentence. Adverbs of manner are a common type which answers the question “how?” and to describe the way by which something is accomplished like the adverb “fluently” in this sentence: “he speaks English fluently”. Another type of adverbs is the adverbs of place which specify the place where things happen this type of adverbs answers the question “where”. For instance in this sentence: “My classroom is nearby”, the adverb “nearby” answers the question “where is your classroom?”.

4.1.6 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are used as joiners to connect two or more words, phrases and sentences. Parker (1847, p. 40) says that "conjunctions connect similar parts of speech and members of sentences". In English language there are three basic types of conjunctions: coordinating, correlating and subordinating conjunctions.

Coordinating conjunctions are the most common joiners used by English language speakers; they are used to connect between words, phrases and clauses. They are placed between equal grammatical parts that they connect. Subordinating conjunctions connect an independent clause with a dependent one, and determine the relationship between the two; for instance, whether the clauses have a cause and effect relation or conditional one. The subordinating conjunction is always placed at the beginning of the dependent clause, and connects unequal structures: the independent which express complete thought, and the dependent which does not form a complete sentence, and is always a part of the subordinate clause (Frank, 1972, p. 215). Some of English subordinating conjunctions are: although, if, unless, while, despite, since, as, etc.

The last category of English conjunctions is known as correlating conjunctions. This type is represented in pairs and connects two equal grammatical items (Lester, 1990, p. 65); such as, two subjects, two independent clauses or two prepositional phrases. Some of English correlating conjunctions are "both…and", "not…but", "whether…or", "neither…nor".

4.1.7 Prepositions

Prepositions are words which refer to locations, space, and directions, and must be followed by a noun object. Gelderen (2002, p. 16) claims that "prepositions often express place or time (at, in, on, before), direction (to, from, into, down), or relation (of, about, with, like, as, near). They are invariable in form and occur before a noun". In English language,

they occur only in prepositional phrases. Prepositions relate the noun phrase to other elements of the clause, where they indicate the grammatical relation between them, be it spatial, temporal, or logical relationship.

There are various types of prepositions in English language, but each one has it reference; for instance, the prepositions “beside”, “on” and “in” refer to location; whereas the prepositions “during”, “at” and “since” refer to time.

4.1.8 Interjections

Interjections are different from other words, because they often stand alone. In English language, interjections form an utterance by themselves without being included in syntactic structure.

Interjections are used in different contexts to express emotions and strong feelings (Hall & Sonnenschein, 1889, p, 20) like surprise, pain, approval, joy and greeting. Interjections differ from one language to another, they can be a single word, a phrase or a clause and usually they have no grammatical relation with the rest of the sentence they are rather separated with an exclamation mark or period. For instance:

e.1Ouch! I hurt my arm.

4.1.9 Modals

Modals are speech parts used with other verbs to express ability, possibility, obligation, necessity etc. According to Gelderen (2010, p. 107-108) “Modals do not have agreement or tense endings; they are the first to occur in a sequence of auxiliaries; and do not require an ending, i.e. affix, on the verb following them”. Thus modals are always followed by verb stem in affirmative sentences. Such as in: “you may leave the room”. Gelderen (2010, p. 107-108) added that English language holds nine basic modals that can be demonstrated as

follow: “can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would and must”. She assumes that some of those models are used to show politeness like “could” and others refer to the future like “will”. Semi modals like: have to, need to, dare to, and ought to, form another type of modals, which act in some ways as a model because they express obligation and necessity and in other ways like main verb.

5. English Word Order

Word order changes from one language to another; for instance, while verbs are always preceded by the subject in English language in affirmative sentences, they are rather placed before the subject in other languages like Arabic. According to Jacobs (1995, p. 33) “if variations in form from language to language are regarded as options… then different languages have different combinations of options”. In other words, word order is not restricted to a certain form but rather it is flexible in accordance with the language syntactic rules.

The language options which organize the form of the sentence are arranged under the language parameters. This latter determines the position of the word within the sentence as well as the word which precedes and follows. The language parameters mainly represent the rules upon which an utterance can be judged to be grammatically correct or not.

Genetti (2014, p.101) states that “A word is an independent, phonologically coherent linguistic unit, containing one or more morphemes, which can fill a particular slot in a sentence”. Words in any sentence have to be syntactically related to each other; because the meaning of the sentence is determined by the order of its words. In other words, the slot of the word affects the meaning of the sentence in which it occurs.

The combination of different syntactic categories (verb, prepositions, adjectives, adverbs, etc.) allows the language users to construct various types of phrases like: verbal phrase, noun phrase, adjectival phrase, etc.(Radford, 2009, p. 78).

5.1. Word Order in Noun Phrase

According to Jacobs (1995, p. 97) " noun phrases are used to refer to things people want to talk about, things as varied as boiled eggs, petroleum, hope for lasting peace, and the prime minister of Sweden." Genetti (2014 p 121) argues that "noun phrase is grammatically coherent syntactic constituent containing a head noun or a pronoun and optionally one or more modifiers." In English language, a phrase is determined to be nominal if the head (the word placed at the beginning of the phrase) is a noun or pronoun. Usually, the head of the phrase is followed by a modifier that can be a relative clause, numerals, adjective, article, quantifiers, etc.

The noun phrase must be a cohesive unit to form a syntactic constituent, that is to say, when the noun phrase moves it moves as whole cohesive unit. The whole noun phrase has to be replaced by the same pronoun rather than just a part of it. The simplest noun phrase in English language consists only of noun or pronoun;as well as the template for the English noun phrase is as follows: (Determiners) (Quantifiers) (Numerals) (Adjectives*) Nouns (prepositional phrase*) (Relative clause). The parentheses of the template indicate optional elements; whereas the asterisk indicates that we can have more than one of thosetypes of element in a single phrase. For instance:

e.2.a My previous first short experience in teaching.

e.2.b NP [DET(my)] [QUANT(previous)][NUM(first)][ADJ (short)][N(experience)] [PP(in teaching)]

e.3a The last three Arabic letters that he had sent.

e.3.b NP [DET (The)] [QUANT (last)] [NUM (three)] [ADJ (Arabic)] [N (letters)] [REL (that he had sent)]

5.2 Word Order in Prepositional Phrase

In prepositional phrases, the preposition is placed as the head that precedes the noun phrase (Radford, 2009, p. 474).The template of the English prepositional phrase is as follows: PREP NP. The order of the preposition phrase is fixed, thus, one may say: “she is at home” and not “she is home at”.

5.3 Word Order in Verb Phrase

Verb phrases are the syntactic constituents which have a verb as the head of the phrase and followed by a dependent clause that include an adverb, prepositional phrase, object noun phrase etc. Radford (2009, p. 39-40) insists that “help you” should be considered as a verb phrase; since it refers to an action and the verb “help” is the head of it. The Template of the English verb phrase can be demonstrated as follow:

V (ADV) (Noun phrase) (PP*) (ADV). Such as:

e.4. a The students succeed.

e.4.b [DET(The)] [N(students)][V (succeed)].

e. 5. a She travels occasionally to France.

e. 5.b [DET (she)] [V (travels)] [ADV (occasionally)] [PP (to France)].

5.4 Word Order in Adjectival Phrase

English adjectival phrase usually consists of one or more adjectives, which modify a noun, pronoun or noun phrase, as they can be modified by an adverbial phrase.Although adjectives make the head noun more identified, but its presence in the noun phrase is optional, i.e., its absence does not harm the meaning of the phrase.The simplest structure of adjectival phrase is as follow:(DET) ADJ (N), for example:

e.6.a An old city.

e.6.b [DET (An)][ADJ (old)] [N (city)].

e.7.a The young children

e.7.b [DET (The)] [ADJ (young)][N (children)].

6. The English Clause

According to Jacobs (1995, p. 65) “clauses are constructions with one phrase constituent, typically a noun phrase that bears the subject relation and another constituent, the verb phrase, bearing the predicate relation.” English clause contains a verb which is the central structure, the noun phrase as a subject and optional adverbial elements like prepositional phrase and adverbs. The clause must have only one tense, thus, it seems grammatically correct if one says: “she will travel to Egypt” and not: “she will travels to Egypt”.

The English language clause has a fixed structural order which makes it an important syntactic unit. The position of the noun phrase in relation to the verb phrase within the clause determines its grammatical relation. The noun phrase which precedes the verb is known as the subject however the one which follows it is known as the object. For instance “Jack plays

football". The noun phrase "Jack" precedes the verbal phrase "play" thus it is the subject. But, the noun phrase "football" follows the verbal phrase so it is the object.

It is divided into many types, the following figure 01illustrates all different kinds of English clauses:

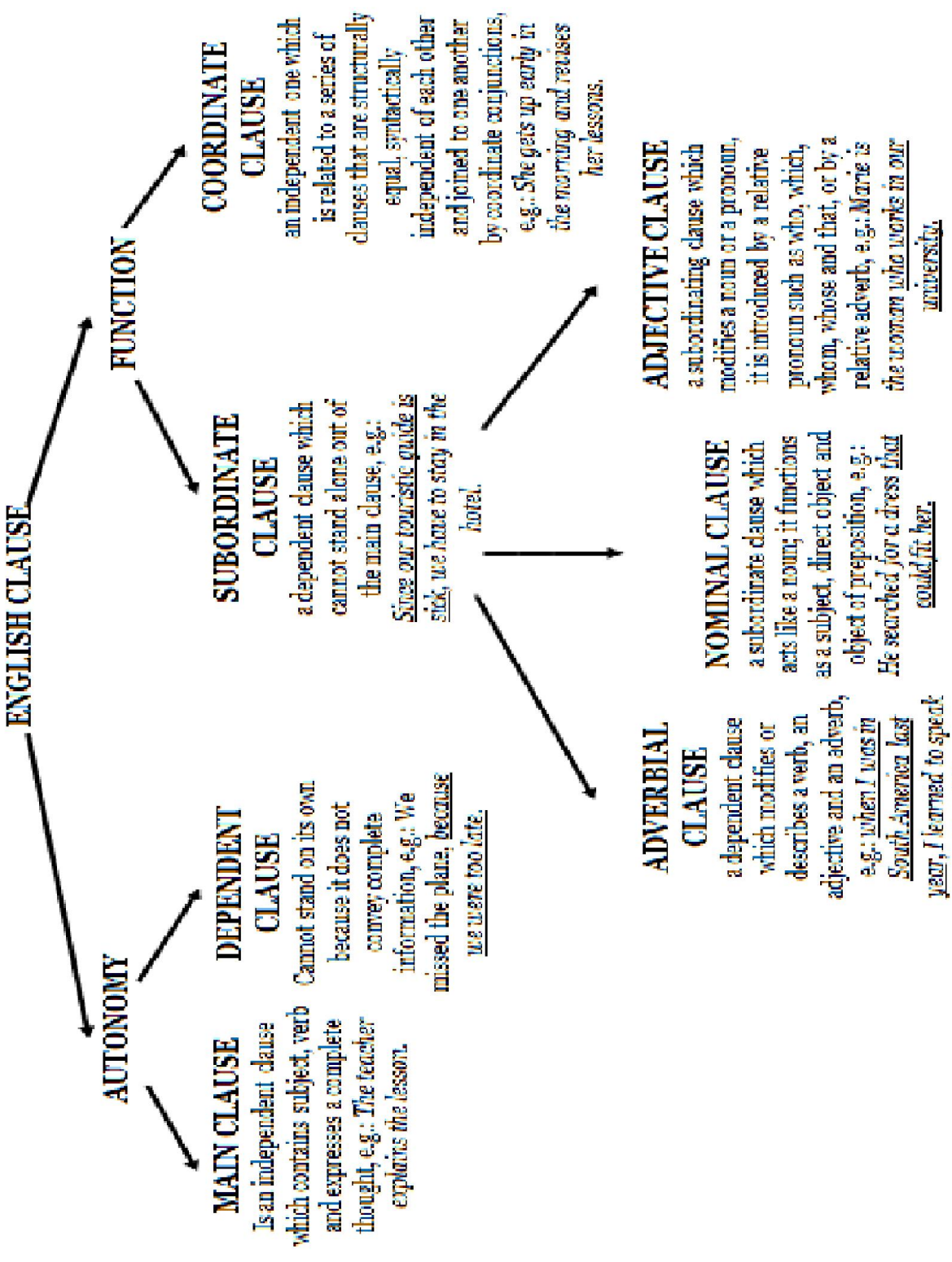

Figure 1.1: *English Clause*

7. English Sentence

Huddleston (1984 p. 18) states that a sentence is "the largest stretch of language forming a syntactic construction"

. In English language sentences consists of organized phrases, NP (the subject) VP (the verb plus the object), which is commonly recognized as SVO. The sentence can include one or more clauses, the clause consists of phrases and phrases are consisting of words. Simple sentence contains only an independent clause which expresses a complete thought like:

e. 9 He went to school.

e.10 I eat an apple.

It is divided into two types; the following figure 02 illustrates these kinds of English sentences:

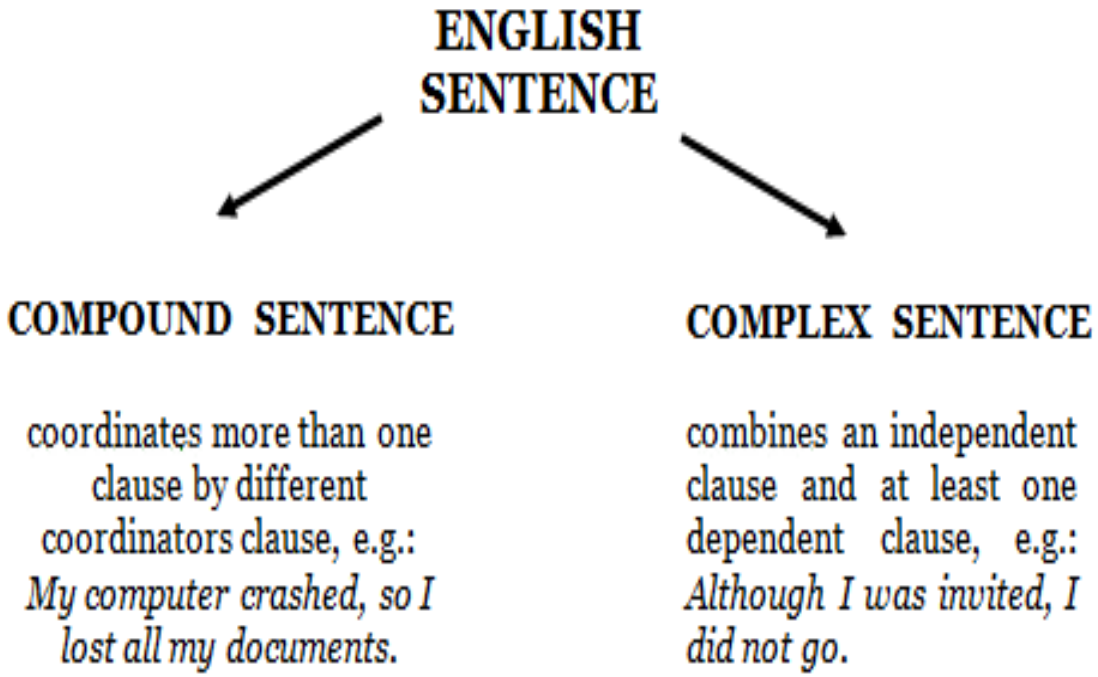

Figure 1.2: *English Sentence*

7.1 Interrogative Sentences

In simple words, interrogative sentence is a type of sentence used to form a question. It usually ends with a question mark "?". People form interrogative sentences to ask for information and clarification. According to Swick, there are mainly two types of interrogative sentences: "yes-no questions" and "questions using interrogative words" (2009, p. 12-19). The former are formed by placing the auxiliary before the verb and require yes or no answer for example: "are you here?". However, the latter is based on the use of wh-words like: who, what, why or when, which are placed at the beginning of the sentence. This type of questions is used to ask for more specific information and require a full answer such as: "who is here?"

7.2 Exclamative Sentences

Exclamative sentences are sentences which are used to "express strong feeling" (Welsh, 1896, p, 23). They help the language users to express different emotions like: wonder, joy, sadness etc. they usually end with an exclamation mark "!". Exclamative sentences are formed differently, some are formed with interjections like: ah, oh, oops etc., such as: ah, I hurt my arm!". Other sentences are formed with wh-words, such as: "what a fascinating view!" (Verma, 2016, p. 87).

8. Subject Verb Agreement in English Language

Subject and verb are the basic elements of sentences in almost all languages around the world. In English language, they are the main components to construct a sentence. The relation between the subject and verb is very crucial; since it has an effect on the meaning of the sentence, as well as on making the message seem clear. Both elements have to agree with each other, so that the utterance would appear understandable and coherent to the receiver.

Sometimes, EL learners fail to construct correct sentences because they have a problem with applying subject-verb agreement rules. There are many reasons behind this phenomenon like memory problems, slip of tongue or lack of attention; however, in most cases, learners' mother tongue is considered as the main cause behind this problem. In other words, English language learners commit some mistakes concerning subject-verb agreement rules, because either their mother tongue does not include such syntactical rules or the subject verb agreement rules of the first language are too different from the target language' rules being acquired.

Subject-verb agreement deviations are frequent errors among EL learners. Being unable to relate the verb with its subject creates confusion for FL students at all levels of proficiency, because it prevents them from expressing their thoughts and ideas appropriately. Although, some English learners consider subject verb agreement rules as less important as long as they can transmit their message; the more speakers respect, rules the more they seem fluent and their language fulfill its communicative goals.

8.1 Subject Verb Agreement Rules

In English language, the subject always comes before the verb in affirmative sentences; however, there are some stylistic cases where the verb appears before its subject like in the imperative form. Language users have to respect some basic rules, so that the subject agrees with the verb, and the utterance produced would appear more coherent for the receiver. The first and basic rule of subject verb agreement is about number. Barkley and Sandoval (2015, p. 109- 118) and Straus et al (2014, p. 3-6) provide basic subject verb agreement rules that can be summarized as follow:

The subject and verb must agree in number ;i.e., singular subject (he, she, it, Jack)should take a singular verb (is, loves, eats) and plural subject (they, you, kids, cars)should take plural form of verb (are, go, teach).

The language user should not be confused by words or phrases that separate the subject from its verb. No matter the number of words and phrases that appear between the subject and verb, they must agree in number. For example, the appearance of prepositional phrases between the verb and subject do not affect their agreement such as:

e. 11 The papers on the desk are mine.

When two or more subjects are joined by “and” they require a plural verb; however, when singular subjects are connected by (or, nor, not only/but, neither/nor, either/or) they should be followed by a singular verb. For example:

e.12 Jack and John are absents.

e.13 Neither Jack nor John is absent.

Language user has to buy attention to the beginning of the sentence to ensure the correctness of the verb. When a sentence begins with (here, there) the true subjects would follow the verb rather than precede it. For instance:

e. 14 Here is a difference between them.

e. 15 Here are the differences between them.

Some words like: “along with”, “besides” and “as well as” can be placed between the subject and its verb, but these words should not be treated as a part of the subject, rather they should be ignored, because they have no effect on the agreement between both the subject and verb. Such as:

e.16 The president, along with his ministers, rules the country.

e.17 Pizza, as well as hamburger, is my favorite snack.

Also, the verb has to take a singular form whenever the subject is preceded by: “each”, “every” and “no” or whenever the sentence begins with indefinite pronouns like: everybody, anybody, somebody, someone, and everyone. For example:

e. 18 No smoking or drinking is allowed inside the classroom.

e. 19 Everyone has the right for free education in Algeria.

Collective nouns, distances, periods of time and singular indefinite pronouns (everybody, anyone, nobody…) as singular units require singular verb, such as in:

e. 20 No one is participating in the competition.

e. 21 Twenty kilometers is a long distance to run.

9. Verb Tenses

When people speak, they shift from one tense to another; such as in talking about actions in the past then in the future then in the present. In English language, the verb changes its form to indicate the tense of the action or state. Time and tense are two different concepts. The first concept refers to time in general and it has no relation with language. But the latter, refers to the linguistic expressions of time relations which are reflected in the different forms of verbs. According to Declerck et al (2006, p. 96) “tense is the linguistic expression of a particular temporal meaning by a particular form (tense form)”.

There are mainly three forms of verb tenses in English: simple, progressive and perfect tense. The simple tense is the basic and simplest form of the conjugated verb; however, the progressive tense is used to indicate actions which happen while performing the action or with

verbs that progress and take a certain amount of time to be finished. The perfect tense shows that the action is completely done. Declerk et al (2006, p. 22-24) provide a detailed explanation about the formation of verbs in different tenses in English language that can be summarized in the following subtitles: (the interrogative and interro-negative forms of sentences in these following tenses are skipped, since the practical side of this research focuses only on affirmative forms)

9.1 The Past Tenses

The past tenses are used to talk about different actions which occur in the past; they are divided into four main tenses:

9.1.1 The Past Simple Tense

This kind of past tenses is used to indicate actions that are completed in the past.It is known as the simple past, because it does not require any auxiliary with the verb. In order to form the past simple tense, “ed” is either add to the stem or the irregular past form of the verbis used. The negative form of the simple past tense is formed as follow: did+ not+ the stem. For example:

e. 22 I called my friends.

e. 23 They taught English in the university.

e. 24 You did not write your lessons.

9.1.2 The Past Progressive Tense

It is also known as the past continuous, which is used either to indicate that the action was in progress in certain period of time in the past or to show that the action started in the past and continued until the present moment. It uses the past of the auxiliary verb to be and

the present participle of the verb. The affirmative form of the past progressive is constructed as follow: was/were+ verb-ing; whereas the negative statement is formed as follow: was/were+not+ verb-ing. Such as:

e. 25 We were working on the assignment all yesterday afternoon.

e. 26 I was not listening to the teacher when he explained the lesson.

9.1.3 The Past Perfect Tense

This kind of past tenses is used to indicate that the action occurs before something in certain period of time in the past, as it can show that the action finishes before something in the past. The past perfect is formed by the past form of the auxiliary to have and the past participle of the verb. The negative form of the past perfect is formed as follow: had not+ past participle. For instance:

e. 26 I had eaten my breakfast, before I went to the university.

e. 27 They were punished by the teacher, because they had not done their homework.

9.1.4 The Past Perfect Progressive Tense

This type of past tenses is used to describe an action that starts and progresses before a specific time in the past, as it indicates actions which occur over time in the past. The past perfect progressive tense is constructed by the past form of the auxiliary “to have”, the past participle of “to be” and the present participle of the verb (had + been + verb-ing). For the negative statement, it is formed by the placement of the negation “not” between the two auxiliaries had not been + verb-ing. For example:

e. 28 The baby had been crying all the night.

e. 29 The teacher sent for his parent, because she had not been doing all his assignments.

9.2 The Present Tenses

The present tenses are used either to refer to actions which occur in the present or to talk about factual and habitual things. There are basically four present tenses in English language:

9.2.1 The Present Simple Tense

The present simple tense is always used to indicate actions that happen in the present time, as it is usually used to refer to factual information that are true or opinions and points of view. If the subject of the sentence is “I, you, they” or “we” or plural nouns, the language user can only keep the stem of the verb to form the present tense; however, when the subject is “she, he” or “it” , singular nouns or a NP an “s” or “es” should be added to the verb. The negative statement of the present simple tense is formed by the addition of the auxiliary to do in the present and the negation “not” to before the stem, do/does + not + verb.Such as:

e. 30 He sleeps early.

e. 31 They move to London.

e. 32 Students, who live in the city, do not reside in the university campus.

9.2.2 The Present Progressive Tense

This type of present tenses is used to refer to action progress in the present or right now. The affirmative statement of the present progressive is: am/is/are + verb-ingi.e. the auxiliary “to be” in the present and the present participle of the verb. The placement of the

negation “not” between the auxiliary and the verb is sufficient to make the negative form of the present continuous. For instance:

e. 33 He is studying now.

e. 34 They are not traveling to America.

9.2.3 The Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect is a tense which indicate that the actions has started in the past and had finished recently before the present time. The present perfect is constructed by the present form of the auxiliary “to have” and the past participle of the verb: have/has+ PP. The negative statement of the present perfect has the following structure: have/has + not + PP. For example:

e. 35 They have eaten their dinner in a Chinese restaurant.

e. 36 She has not driven the car for 5years, because of her injury.

9.2.4 The Present Perfect Progressive Tense

This type of present tenses is used to indicate actions that start in the past and progressed until the present time. The present perfect tense is constructed with the present form of the auxiliary “to have”, the past participle of the auxiliary “to be” and the present participle of the verb: have/ has + been + verb-ing. The negative statement of the present perfect tense is formed as follow: have/ has + not + been + verb-ing. For instance:

e. 37 We have been studying English for five years.

e. 38 She has not been feeling good lately; she is sick.

9.3 The Future Tenses

The future tenses indicate that something will take place in the future and the actions will occur later not now. There are several types of future tenses in English:

9.3.1 The Future Tense

This is the basic tense which indicate the appearance of certain actions in a future time. There are mainly two ways to make the future tense either with “will + stem” or with “am / is / are +going to +stem”. The negative statement also be formed through two ways as well either with “will + not + stem” or “am/is/are + going to + stem”. Such as:

e. 39 You will have an exam next June.

e. 40 She is going to call you tomorrow.

e. 41We will not wait for the next month; we have to find a solution.

9.3.2 The Future Progressive Tense

This tense shows that the actions progress over time in the future. The future progressive tense has two forms. The affirmative form uses either the first form which is “will+ be+ verb-ing” or the second one which is “am / is / are +going to + be +verb-ing”. For the negative forms it has the first form which is “will + not + be+ verb-ing” and the second one which is “am / is / are + not+going to + be +verb-ing”. For example:

e. 42My favorite team will be playing tomorrow afternoon.

e. 43 We are going to be studying tomorrow at 8:00.

e. 44 They are not going to be playing this night.

9.3.3 The Future Perfect Tense

The future perfect tense indicates that an action is completed before sometime or something in the future. For the affirmative form, the future perfect tense uses “will+ have +PP”; whereas for the negative form it uses “will+ not + have +PP”. for instance:

e. 45 I will have revised my lessons before I go to bed.

e. 46 The plane will not have left by time w gat there.

9.3.4 The Future Perfect Progressive

This type of future tenses is used by the language user to show that an action will progress until some point of time in the future. The future perfect progressive is formed as follow: “will + have + been + verb-ing”, and the negative statement is formed with the placement of the negation before the verb. Such as:

e. 47 My mother will have been coocking the cake for fifteen minutes.

e. 48 The policemen will not have been coming before the criminal escapes.

10. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) syntax

Regardless to different dialects and vernaculars used by Algerian students, MSA is the language used officially in academic setting and taught in schools. According to Aoun, Choueiri and Bennamoun (201, p. 02) MSA is “the language for writing and for formal speaking and is only acquired at school”.

10.1 Modern Standard Arabic Tenses

According to Schulz (2004, p. 11), Arabic verbs are either trilateral or quadrilateral. The former contains three consonants like “قرأ” (qa**r**aʔa) “he read” and the latter contains four

ones like “راجع” (ɾaʒaʕa) “he revised”. Those verbs can be conjugated into two tenses: the perfect tense which refers to the past الماضي (ʔelma:ɖˤi) and imperfect tense which refers to the present “المضارع” (ʔelemuɖˤa:ɾiʕ)**.**. There are mainly three conjugational patterns for both tenses which are singular “المفرد “ (ʔelmufraɖ) , dual “المثنى” (ʔelmuθanna) and plural “الجمع” (ʔelʒamʕ).

10.1.1 Present Tense

The present tense is used to express actions occurring in the present time as statement of fact or opinion (Ryding, 2005, p. 442). In MSA, a verb is conjugated in the present tense through the addition of some letters to the beginning and end of the verb stem (Wightwick & Gaafa, 2008, p.15). Some letters that are added to the beginning of the verb stem like “قرأ” (qaɾaʔa) “to read” are: “**يـ**” (ja) with third person masculine singular, dual and plural, such as: ”هو يقرا “ (huwa jaqɾaʔu) “he reads” or “هما يقران” (huma jaqɾaʔe:ni) “they (2rd dual masc person) read”. “**تـ**” (ʈa) with third person feminine singular, dual and plural like:” هي تقرأ (hija ʈaqɾaʔu) “she reads”or “ هما تقران” (huma ʈaqɾaʔe:ni) “they (3rd dual fem person) read” .“**نـ**” (na) **with** first person plural, for instance: “ **نحن نقرأ**” (naħnu naqɾaʔu) “we read”. “ أ ” (ʔana) first person singular, for example: “ أنا اقرأ” (ʔana ʔaqɾaʔu) “I read”.

Some letters that are added to the end of the verb stem are: “ن” (na) to second and third person feminine plural such as: “هن يكتبن” (hunna jakʈubna) “they (3rd dual fem person) write”. “ون” (u:n) to second and third person masculine plural, example: “هم يكتبون” (hum jakʈubu:na) “they (3rd dual masc person) write”. “ان” (e:n) to second and third, masculine and feminine dual, for example: “أنتما تكتبان” (antuma ʈaktube:ni) “they (2rd dual person) write”..

10.1.2 Past Tense

The past tense is usually used to report different actions and events that occurred and finished in the past. In MSA, The root verb is always in the past tense. According to Sawaies

(2014, p. 115) " verbs in the past are conjugated according to the pronoun used. This is manifested in the suffixes at the end of the verb". For instance, the suffix "ت" (ʇa) is added to singular pronouns like with the verb stem "درس" (ɖarasa) "study". For example: "هي درست" (hija ɖarasaʇ) "she studied"., "أنت درست" (ʔanta ɖarasʇa/i) "you (2rd sing masc/fem person) studied", or "أنا درست" (ʔana ɖarasʇu) "I studied". With dual pronouns, the suffix "تما" (ʇuma) is added with the second person feminine and masculine, such as: "أنتما درستما" (ʔanʇuma ɖarasʇuma:) "you (2rd dual person) studied", and the suffix "ا" (a:) is added to the third person masculine "هما درسا" (huma ɖarasa) "they (3rd dual masc person) studied". The suffix "تا " (ʇa:) is added to the verb with the third person feminine " هما درستا" (huma ɖarasaʇa:) "they (3rd dual fem person) studied". With the plural pronouns, the suffix "نا " (na) is added with the first person "نحن درسنا " (naħnu ɖarasna) "we studied".. The suffix " تم " (ʇum) is added with second person masculine"انتم درستم " (ʔanʇum ɖarasʇum) "you (2rd plural person) studied". The suffix "تن" (ʇunna) is added with the second person "انتن درستن" (ʔanʇunna ɖarasʇunna) "you (2rd plural fem person) studied". The suffix "وا" (u:) is added with third person masculine " هم درسوا" (hum ɖarasu:) "they (3rd plural masc person) studied". The suffix "ن" is added with the third person feminine, such as: "هن درسن" (hunna ɖarasna) "they (3rd plural fem person) studied".

In MSA language, there are no irregular verbs; all the verbs follow the same rule of conjugation, either in the present or past tense. Moreover, in this language there is no use of compound verbs in both tenses. In other words, there is no use of auxiliaries with verbs.

10.2 Modern Standard Arabic Adverbs

Adverbs are words that add specific information about time, manner and place to the meanings of verbs. There are different types of adverbs used in MSA language that can be divided under two main categories: adverbs of time and adverbs of space (Yoda, 2005, p.

265). Some of the adverbs of time are: الْيـــوْم (ʔeljawm) **"today", أَمْـس** (ʔams) **"yesterday",**(sˤabaħan**)** صَبَـاحًا "by morning", (masaʔan) مَسَـاءًا "by afternoon"**…** Some of the adverbs of space are: (xalfa) خَلْـف **"behind", هنـــاك** (hune:k) "there", فَـوْقَ (fawqa) "on/above", (ʈaħʈa) تَحْـتَ **"under/beneath",** (wasaʈˤa) وسطَ **"amidst" …**The adverb of time "أَبَدًا" (ʔabaɖan) **"**ever" is usually used to negate a verb. It is placed at the end of the sentence, for example: "لن افعل ما يسئ إليك أبدا" (lan ʔafʕala ma jusi:ʔu ʔileika/i) "I will not do what harms you(fem/masc**)".**

10.3 Modern Standard Arabic Sentence Structure

Arabic sentence is divided into nominal and verbal sentence. The nominal sentence contains two main components, the first is known as "المبتدأ" which acts like the subject or topic that could be a noun or pronoun ((ʔelʒaw) الجو "the weather", (huwa) "he" هو). The second is known as "الخبر " (xabaɾ) "news/information" which acts like the predicate that could be a noun, adjective, verb, clause or even a sentence ((ʒami:l) "beautiful" جميل, (jaɖrusu fi ʔeθθe:nawija) يدرس في الثانوية "he studies in High school" . Nominal sentence can be: "الجو جميل" (ʔelʒaw ʒami:l) "the weather is beautiful" or "هو يدرس في الثانوية" (huwa jaɖrusu fi ʔeθθe:nawija) "he studies in High school" (Ryding 2005, p. 59).

Verbal sentence in Arabic contains three main elements: verb, subject and object. The Arabic verbal sentence parameter is usually referred to as VSO. Like: "ضرب الطفل الكرة" (ðˤaraba ʔeʈˤʈˤiflu ʔelkuɾata) "the boy hit the ball". In MSA the subject could be incorporated into the verb as part of its inflection, the subject is not necessarily mentioned separately. For instance: "نجحتُ" (naʒaħʈu) "I succeeded".

10.4 Modern Standard Arabic Adjectives

Adjectives in MSA language give further information about a noun and usually come after the noun they describe and agree in definiteness, gender and number. Usually Arabic

adjectives are inflected to suit with the noun they modify. For example, masculine singular adjectives modify masculine singular nouns, for example "الوقت المناسب" (ʔelwaqtu ʔelmune:sib) "the right time". Feminine dual adjectives modify feminine dual nouns, for instance: "فتاتين جميلتين " (faṯe: ṯejni ʒamilaṯejni) "two beautiful girls" (Ryding, 2005, p. 241-243).

10.5 Modern Standard Arabic Demonstrative Pronouns

In MSA language, demonstrative are words that are used to pick out a specific item or set(s) of items, point to them and demonstrate what is being referred to, for example: (he:'ule:'I, he:ða/he:ðihi) ، هؤلاء(ðe:lika/ṯilka) هذه/هذا ، تلك/ذلك . According to Benmamoun, Eid and Haeri "demonstratives are normally placed in pronominal position" (1998, p. 29), for instance: "هؤلاء البنات" (he:'ule:'I ʔelbane:ṯ) "those girls", "ذلك الولد" (ðalika ʔelwalaḏ) "that boy". The demonstrative pronoun "هذه" (he:ðihi) "this fem" is used with both plural feminine and masculine nouns such as "هذه الأبواب" (he:ðihi ʔel'abwe:b) "these doors" or "هذه الأشجار" (he:ðihi ʔel'aʃʒaɾ) "these trees".

10.6 Definite and Indefinite Articles in Modern Standard Arabic

MSA articles are either definite or indefinite. The former is formed by adding the prefix "ال" (ʔel) "the" to the noun, "ال" (ʔel) is equal to **"the"** in English and it should be connected to the noun. Examples: (ʔezzamen) الزمن, (ʔelʕajn) العين, (ʔelqamaɾ) القمر. The latter refers to the absence of the definite article, the language user needs just to leave the word with no article. For example: ولد (walaḏ), (qiṯˤ) قط , طاولة (ṯˤa:wila).

Conclusion

Syntax is the basic language element one has to depend on to acquire and use the language. It provides language learners with the appropriate structures and rules needed to

master the language. Human beings have the capacity to acquire any language, if they follow its syntactic system. It holds all the parts of speech required in an interaction. It makes them aware of how they can order different types of sentences and phrases.

Furthermore, syntax allows the language users to construct simple and complex sentences of the language. It helps them to report facts and opinions in different tenses. In brief words, if we acquire a language without acquiring syntax, we will be always unable of using it no matter the amount of terminology we had learned.

CHAPTER TWO: SPEAKING SKILL

Introduction…….……..39

1. Definition of Speaking……..……40

2. Speaking Skill Functions……..40

3. Mother Tongue (MT) vs Target Language (TL) Speaking…….……41

4. Teaching Speaking……42

5. Factors Influencing Speaking……44

Conclusion……46

Introduction

Globalization has made English language the world leading medium of communication for the last three decades. People from different nations start to acquire English for different reasons (academic, commercial, touristic, technological purposes,…) and attempt to use it effectively and appropriately. The acquisition of English as a foreign language requires the development of both receptive (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing). Although, learners have to give all language skills the same amount of importance, the speaking skill always remains a priority and a common desirable goal for them. But, with people from different linguistic and cultural background improving speaking seems to be a challenging skill to be developed.

1. Definition of Speaking Skill

Speaking is a productive skill that refers to the process of producing sounds, words and utterances in order to express one's thought opinion, feeling and ideas. According to Carter and McCarthy (1997, p. 04), speaking can be defined as "one of the type of composing the language, the type that is swift, complicated, frequent and primary, because the language is symbolic used by communicators to construct and convey information".

For Bryne (1987, p. 08), speaking is a complicated process between the producer and the receiver, it includes both the productive skill of the speaker who produces the speech and the receptive skill of the listener who tries to understand that speech. Speaking requires a link between the speaker and the listener, the former uses oral language to transmit and makes his/her message as clear as possible, whereas the latter decodes what he/she receives to understand what the speaker attempts to mean. People use the language differently to share their messages in different contexts; hence, speaking is the use of verbal and non verbal

symbols to communicate different meanings in different settings (Chaney & Burk 1998, p. 13).

Luoma (2004, p. 01) states that “speaking in foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop”. Speaking seems to be a very complicated skill to be developed. On one hand, it may be affected by all the external factors like: teaching method, learning environment, material used,etc and internal factors like: attitudes, memory, motivation, etc. On the other hand, learners need a long time to become fluent and competent FL speakers.

2. Speaking Skill Functions

Speaking is a mean of communication that people use to express themselves in different contexts; that is why each talk appears to have specific form and function different from the other. Richards (2008, p. 21) claims that speaking has three main functions:

2.1 Talk as Interaction

Talk as interaction refers to the daily communication between people which has the social function. The focus in this function is on the speakers or participants themselves and how they speak and interact with each other in order to cover their social needs. This interaction can be formal or informal as it reflects the relation between the speakers through reflecting the degree of politeness in the conversation. For instance, a conversation may contain greetings, compliments, recounting recent experiences or small talk.

2.2 Talk as Transaction

Talk as transaction refers to conversations and interactions, where the emphasis is on what is said or done, i.e., it focuses on the message conveyed and how it should be completely clear and understood. The function of such conversation may be giving and receiving

information like sharing opinion and ideas or asking for direction and obtaining things like shopping and ordering meal.

2.3 Talk as Performance

Talk as performance is a public speaking produced by a single speaker to transmit information to an audience. It takes the form of a monologue rather than a dialogue. Also the language used in such talk tends to be more formal such as in public announcement, business presentation or lecture.

3. Mother Tongue (MT) Speaking vs Target Language (TL) Speaking

Theoretically speaking**,** FL learners are expected to use the TL the same way they use their MT. They are expected to be bilingual, fluent, accurate and competent speakers as well as able to perform equally the same speaking skills toward both languages. Thus, when they use the TL, it is claimed by Thornbury (1997, P. 28) that "they will be attending to their interlocutors, adjusting their message accordingly and negotiating the management of conversational turns". However, things take different path when it comes to practice because there are some similarities and differences between the MT and TL that affect speaking skill.

As far as similarities are concerned, there is no difference between L1 and FL speech production. In the two languages, learners move through the same speaking developmental stage: first they start by conceptualization level (forming concepts about things in their minds), then move to formulation stage (construction and production of language) and finish with articulation of the language (actual use of language).

Through comparison, especially at the level of language knowledge, there is significant difference between grammar and vocabulary acquired from both L1 and TL. The vocabulary gained from MT is easily integrated in the mind, and grammar of that language is

automatically respected, because its acquisition is so natural that natives are unaware of how they can reach such ability (Thornbury 2005, p. 01). L1 is acquired for granted, because learners are exposed to it in their everyday life. Harmer argued that in addition to understanding meaning and forms as well as practicing the language, language exposure is an important element that promotes this skill (1998, p. 64).

When it comes to TL knowledge, learners always complain about being unable to produce correct utterances or use new structures. Language knowledge concerning grammar and vocabulary is not well integrated into learners' minds; hence, they face the problem of lack of vocabulary and miss grammatical arrangement of words (Thornbury, 1997, p.28). As a solution, Learners need to be exposed to TL and given the opportunity to use it (Harmer, 1998, p. 84), because these help them to enrich their linguistic repertoire as well as make the language use seem more natural.

4. Teaching Speaking Skill

Speaking skill is a focal objective that neither EL teachers nor learners can neglect its necessity and importance, Richard stated that "The mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign-language learners" (2008, p. 19); but at the same time, teaching and learning speaking is a challenge for both EFL teachers and learners. On one hand, Speaking is both a theoretical and practical task where learners need to be exposed to different communicative strategies, speech acts, grammar, vocabulary, phonology etc, given the opportunity to practice that knowledge either inside the classroom, through different activities (discussions and role play) or outside the classroom, whenever they have the opportunity to use the TL (online communication with native speakers). In brief, the acquisition of speaking skill can be achieved only through practice and the use of language

since Scrinvener argued that “there is no point knowing a lot about language if you can’t use it” (2005, p. 146).

In some mother countries, learners do not have the opportunity to use the EL outside the classroom; hence, the classroom becomes learners’ refuge to practice the language intensively and regularly. Teachers need to be aware about the importance of the learning space and provide learners with the appropriate conditions that help them to practice the TL as much as possible in the learning setting. According to Scrinvener (2005, p. 18) the only way teachers can help their students is to “help create the conditions in which they might be able to learn”. Classroom is the first place where FL learners are going to experience speaking; thus teachers have to create safe, friendly atmosphere that helps the learners to overcome their fear like making mistakes before their peers or receiving critics from the teacher. In order to create good learning conditions, the teachers have to know what role to be played and when, they should decide whether to be a controller, prompter, assessor, participant, observer, resource, tutor or organizer, and how this role should be accomplished (Harmer, 2001, p. 58-63).

Speaking skill can be enhanced only through practice and this means that the teaching and learning process is going to be based on oral activities. Through oral activities, teachers raise students’ chances of speaking inside the classroom. Teachers have to prepare and choose the appropriate activities that fit with the oral proficiency level of their students (O’Malley and Pierce, 1996, p.59). Oral activities make the learning environment more active because they motivate learners to try their knowledge and test their progress as well as improve their communicative skill.

The flexibility in the choice of activities helps the teachers to cover the needs of their learners from different levels. In his work, Nunan (2003, p.56-58) presents a variety of activities that can be used for oral practice activities. Information gap activities are the

activities in which learners share information orally between each other, as well as keep the needed information that they lack from their partners. Role plays are another type of activities that serves in developing learners speaking skills, in such activities learners pretend they are in various social or imaginative situations to be able to explore various contexts and discuss different topics. Another type of activities presented by Nunan is contact assignment, in which learners are asked to make real conversations in the TL like making conversation with tourists.

5. Factors Influencing Speaking

Speaking is considered as one of the difficult tasks in acquiring FL, it can be affected by many factors, such as:

5.1 Motivation

Motivation is the engine that activates speaking skill, i.e., language use is affected by both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation refers to the external factors and environment that affect speaking skill like: the learning atmosphere and teachers' feedback. Intrinsic motivation holds the internal factors that affect learners'speech performance like: learners' interest and ambition to use the TL (Harmer, 1997, p. 4-7). Both extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are interrelated; for instance, if the teachers succeed to choose the appropriate teaching method for their learners, they will be able to create a motivational atmosphere which by its turn raises learners'willingness toward using the language, and help them to overcome their fears and become risk takers.

5.2 Inhibition

When EL learners are inhibited to use the TL, they are afraid from expressing their ideas and feelings in the TL in front of others. Littlewood said that learners inhibition can be

justified either by their feeling of linguistic inferiority before teachers, or by their fear of making errors before a critical audience. He added that the shyness and anxiety that inhibition creates for learners, make them prefer to keep silent and not speak or participate during class discussions (1981, p. 93).

5.3 Vocabulary

Vocabulary is an indispensible element of speaking skill; it has a great effect on learners speaking performance. FL learners differ in the amount of words they understand and use; however, the more vocabulary they acquire the more successful they will be in their speech and vice versa. According to Wilkins (1972, p. 112) “without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”; hence, when learners lack vocabulary, they cannot find words to construct the message itself and as a result, they feel unable to achieve the intended meaning.

5.4 Grammar

Grammar is one of the basic aspects of speaking, According to Scacella and Oxford (1992, p.141), it holds all what learners need to use the language. It is consisted of syntax, vocabulary, phonology. Without grammar, FL learners will not be able to make comprehensible sentences or sound like native speakers. In brief words, grammar helps learners to deliver their opinions, feelings and taught in an organized manner.

5.5 Mother Tongue

L1 is another factor that can obstruct FL speaking skill development. Usually when FL learners share the same L1, they prefer using their MT in their everyday speech and avoid using the TL; eventhough, the use of the L1 blocks learners from developing the TL. Furthermore, L1 stands as barrier for TL speaking because learners transmit rules from L1 to FL (Baker & Westrup 2003, p. 12); hence, they cannot acquire speaking effectively.

Conclusion

Speaking skill is a basic element in FL acquisition. It is considered as a common goal among EL learners. Learners need to develop speaking to communicate effectively and perform different functions; hence, teachers have to choose the appropriate strategy and provide suitable conditions to help their learners to practice this skill. Teachers also have to take into consideration some factors that affect the language use; since they may prevent learners from producing coherent and correct utterances.

CHAPTER THREE: ERROR ANALYSIS AND LANGUAGE INTERFERENCE

Introduction...……..48

1. Learners' Errors ……...48

2. The Concept of Errors……...49

3. Model of Error Analysis……...51

4. Types of Errors……..52

5. Sources of Errors……...53

6. Mother Tongue Interference…….54

7. Language Interference vs. Language Transfer …….56

8. Language Interference Causes …….…….56

9. Language Interference and Error Analysis……...57

Conclusion……58

Introduction

FL learners' errors are a valuable source of evaluation and improvement of the teaching and learning methods. Based on that, error analysis (EA) appeared as a linguistic study which focuses on those deviations as an attempt to determine their sources and consequences on the learning and teaching process. EA defines MT interference as a major source behind learners' errors. It occurs when learners bring knowledge from L1 to FL to facilitate the language acquisition. Although, this is a natural process human being follow to acquire new things. Interference between languages can create negative results. Because, aspects and features differ from one language to another and what is valid in one language is not for the other.

1. Learners' Errors

Regardless to what learners possess as knowledge about the TL, many of them commit different errors when they use English. Language teaching and learning approaches show different perspective about learners' errors; but without any doubt, learners' erroneous utterances have significance in FL learning. Errors are used as a vital tool to acquire the TL (Selinker 1992, p. 150); they help learners to test the accuracy of their hypothesis about the language, the feedback learners receive after their errors help to move them toward their desired goal.

Errors provide researchers with valuable information about the procedures, strategies and processes learners follow to discover English. Ellis (1986, p. 6) claim that "the utterances that the learner produces are treated as windows through which the internalized rule system can be viewed" consequently, errors are an aid for teachers to evaluate the credibility of knowledge of their learners. Furthermore learners' errors are useful for teacher in terms of

teaching style, they reflect the effectiveness of the teaching style and what change teachers have to make to achieve better outcomes (Erdogan, 2005, p 267).

2. The Concept of Errors

As ordinary people, errors are usually defined as something wrong and incorrect; however, linguists have defined errors differently each from his/her theoretical position and linguistic perspective. Errors are defined by Richards and Schmidt as "the use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning" (2010, p.201); thus, native speakers' production is used as standards of correction, and learners are considered as erroneous whenever their utterances are deviated from those of native speakers.

Delisle has another explanation for the concept of errors, he argued that errors are "a failure to communicate" (1982, p. 39). Learner's utterances are meant to be erroneous when they deviate from the rules used by the native speakers and prevent learners from communicating their intended meaning. Errors are everything learners produce; but do not cope with TL rules and prevent them from using the language effectively.

2.1 Errors vs. Mistakes

People tend to use the terms mistakes and errors interchangeably, synonymously to something faulty and wrong. In the field of linguistics, mistakes and errors are technical terms used separately to refer to different things. Brown (1980, p. 165) maintains that "it is crucial to make a distinction between mistakes and errors [because they are] technically two very different phenomena". It is better to use mistakes to refer to errors of performance, and use errors to refer to systematic errors. Mistakes occur when learners fail to perform their competence, but errors occur because learners lack the competence itself.

Norrish (1983, p. 7-8) claimed that errors are systematic deviations which occur because of the lack of knowledge; however, mistakes are inconsistent deviations which learners commit because of the misapplication of known rules. James (1998, p. 83) also make the difference between the two words by defining errors as deviations which “cannot be self corrected” whereas mistakes are the ones that “can be self corrected if the deviation is pointed out to the speaker".

2.2 Error Analysis

In simple words, error analysis is a linguistic analysis that deals with errors either in written or oral production made mainly by second and foreign language learners; EA is done through the comparison between the error and the TL itself. Richards (1974, p. 32) defined error analysis as the field “dealing with the differences between the way people learning a language speak and the way adult speakers of the language use the language”. Brown (1980, p. 166) proposes that EA is a process of observing, identifying, classifying, and interpreting deviations committed by FL learners.

EA is a technique used to predict learners’ errors, in order to find out the causes behind learning difficulties and obtain the needed information to evaluate their knowledge, as well as the teaching method. EA is seen by James (1998 p. 62) as “the study of linguistic ignorance; the investigation of what people do not know and how they attempt to cope with their ignorance”, for this reason, EA focuses mainly on what learners do not know because their lacks are the reasons behind their errors.

EA is a cornerstone in the field of language learning and teaching, where it provides researchers with valuable information about the process of FL acquisition, and evidence about how language is developed. In terms of language teaching, Sampson (as cited in Richards, 1974, p.15) state that “error analysis will continue to provide one means by which the teacher

assesses learning and teaching and determine priorities for future effort"; hence, it helps teacher to improve the teaching methods based on the evaluation of learners' progress.

3. Model of EA

Linguists created various models to be followed in error analytical studies; an example of such models is presented by Ellis (1994, p. 48), who argued that EA is carried out in four steps:

- The first one is the collection of sample of learner language. In this phase, the researcher has to make a choice between two procedures of data collection: either to use spontaneous or elicited procedure for both written and oral data. In this stage, the error analyst has also to take into consideration the factors that affect learners' language as well as the conditions under which learners produce the language (Ellis, 1994, p. 49).
- The second step in this model is the identification of errors, in which the error analyst makes the distinction between errors and mistakes. There are different ways to identify learners' errors; for instance, checking the frequency of a given mistake made by the same learner or asking learners to correct their utterances. Accordingly, if the learner keeps committing the same mistake repeatedly, then it is considered as an error; or if the learner is asked to correct hi/her utterance and succeeded to do so, then the deviation is regarded as a mistake rather than an error.
- The third stage is the description and classification of errors. In this stage, the researcher compares between learners' errors and the correct form of the TL, as well as detecting the level of the error (syntax, phonology, etc). Based on that, errors can be classified into various categories and subcategories (omission, addition, misformation and misordering). According to Ellis (1997, p. 23) the classification of errors "help us

to diagnose learners' learning problems at any stage of their development and to plot how changing in error patterns occur over time".

- The last stage in Ellis' model is the explanation of errors. It is considered the most important phase, where the error analyst reports why and how learners' occur. Ellis and Barkhuizen say that "explaining errors involves determining their sources in order to account for why they were made" (2005, p. 62). The explanation of errors helps the error analyst to establish the causes and sources behind erroneous utterances like interlingual and intralingual errors.

4. Types of Errors

Linguists depend on various taxonomies to classify errors into different types. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, p. 146) propose a surface strategy taxonomy, under which errors are classified into four basic categories (omission, addition, misinformation and misordering). This taxonomy classifies errors according to some apparent surface characteristics regardless of the causes and sources of the error, i.e., it focuses only on how the surface structures are altered. The four types of errors are classified as follow:

4.1 Omission

Omission refers to the absence of an item that does not have to be omitted in order to form a correct utterances. In other words, the item which must appear to form a well utterance is absent. For example:

e. 49 I a student. (the absence of the auxiliary am)

4.2 Addition

Addition is the opposite of omission. It is the presence of an extra item that should not appear to form correct utterances**.** This category is divided into three other subcategories double making, regularization and simple addition. Such as:

e. 50 Double making: he did not studied (for “he did not study”)

e. 51 Regularization: teached (for “taught”)

e. 52 Simple addition: she does sings (for “she sings”)

4.3 Misformation

Misformation is the use of morphemes or structures in wrong manner. For instance:

e. 53 We goed together to school. (for “went”)

4.4 Misordering

Misordering refers to erroneous utterances, where a morpheme or a group of morphemes are misplaced. Like:

e. 54 What students are studying? (for“what are students studying?”)

5. Sources of Errors

Most of scholars agree that there are mainly two main sources which stand behind learners’ errors: interlingual and intralingual errors.

5.1 Interlingual Errors

Interlanguage errors are the result of the interaction between the learners’ MT and the TL. Lee (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 308) argues that “the prime cause, or even the sole cause,

of difficulty and errors in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner's native language." The source of interlingual errors is the transfer of semantic, morphological, phonological and syntactic knowledge from L1 to TL. Brown states that learners' wrong assumption about the similarities between L1 and FL is the main cause behind their errors (1980, p. 160). The Interlingual errors are justified by the lack of TL necessary information. This means that, when learners lack the rules and structures of the TL, L1 becomes a dependent source on which they rely, to cover this lack and as a result, they come with faulty production.

5.2 Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors come from the TL itself; they are caused by incomplete learning of the TL, misunderstanding of its rules or the difficulty of the TL itself. Erdogan (2005, p. 266) claims that "intralingual errors occur as a result of learners' attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from their limited experience with it". Many scholars work to classify intralingual errors into various categories, such as Richards (1974, p. 120) who classifies them under four basic types: overgeneralization (the overuse of a certain form even where it should not be used), ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of the rules and false concept hypothesized.

6. Mother Tongue Interference

MT is the first language people are exposed to from early stages. It is the basic medium of communication and intrinsic system to receive, evaluate and understand information. MT, L1 and NL are used interchangeably. According to Richards and Schmidt, MT is

> [Usually the language which a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and/or it is the language of the country where he or she is living. The native language is often the first language the child acquires] (2010, p. 386)

Mother tongue interference refers to the transmission of knowledge (rules, structures and meanings) among different languages. It was first used in 1957 in the field of second language acquisition to refer to the influence of L1 on FL learning (Meriläinen, 2010, p. 07). Linguists assume that interference is the use of MT structures and meanings to understand and produce the TL (Lado as cited in Gass & Selinker, 1983, p. 25), i.e., it refers to the use of L1 as a mean to facilitate the development of TL especially in early stages of learning (Ringbom, 2007, p. 02). Language interference is studied from two different perspectives: psychological and sociolinguistic. The former refers to the influence of old habits on the new ones being learned; whereas, the latter refers to interactions between languages or interference of the L1 habits that causes difficulty of the mastery of the TL(Dulay et al, 1982, p. 98).

For many scholars, language interference is the sole cause behind learners errors, Weinrich (1953, p. 1) argues that it refers to "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, i.e. as a result of languages in contact". Lott (1983, p. 256) also supports the same idea; according to him, language interference is defined in terms of errors made in FL and "traced back to the mother tongue".

Based on such arguments, it can be concluded that language interference mainly signifies the negative influence of one language on the other since it leads to committing errors and ineffective use of language.

7. Language Interference vs. Language Transfer

Language interference and language transfer are different concepts in terms of the influence they refer to. On one hand, Interference refers to negative influence of L1 on TL being acquired; it is the result of learners' misconceptions about what is transferable, which leads to the transfer of L1 knowledge that impedes the TL learning. Language interference occurs mainly when the two language systems are distinctly different from each other (Littlewood, 1984, p. 17), which results in learning difficulties and errors.

On the other hand, language transfer is "the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2" (Ellis, 1997 p.51); it is the result of the similarities and differences between the two languages. Transfer refers to both negative and positive influence of NL and any other already acquired language on FL (Oldin, 1989, p. 36). The first (negative transfer) occurs when the structures of both languages are different and hence, the transfer from L1 to TL leads to errors in acquisition. However, the latter (positive transfer) appears when both languages are structurally similar and the transfer facilitates language learning.

8. Language Interference Causes

Language interference is an obstacle that complicates FL learning. Weinrich (1970, p. 64-65) distinguishes various factors that lay behind such phenomenon:

- The first reason that leads to MT interference is the speaker bilingual background. Bilingualism is a major factor that contributes in interference, because the language user is influenced by both native and second language, and hence, his/her knowledge of the NT interferes in the production of TL.
- The second factor is disloyalty to TL; in this case, the speaker disobeys the structure of the TL. This means that he/she depends on the structures of L1 to produce the TL.

- The third factor is the limited vocabulary of TL mastered by a learner. To use the language effectively, FL learners must have a big language repertoire because lack of vocabulary forces them to use their MT which leads to interference.
- The other factor presented by Weinrich is needs of synonym. TL users need to acquire different synonyms of a given word to avoid interference, in terms of adoption and borrowing words from the L1.
- The last factor behind language interference is prestige and style. The users of the TL tend to utilize unfamiliar words, foreign words, words of specific specialty, and jargon without fully understanding their different meanings depending on the context, just in order to get a sense of pride, and impress others. Unfortunately, interference will appear as the intended meaning is incorrect.

9. Language Interference and Error Analysis (EA)

EA was developed when contrastive analysis hypothesis was rejected by FL learning researchers. CAH was harshly criticized by many scholars; because it was built upon mainly two basic assumptions. The first assumes that language learning is a habit formation process and the second proposes that only the differences between the L1 and TL should be studied, since they are seen as the major cause behind language interference, as well as learning difficulties and errors.

Under EA, L1 interference is studied as one cause behind learners' errors along with other factors such as the learner´s age, personality, motivation and self-confidence (Odlin, 1989; Ellis, 1997; and Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008). Learners' errors under this approach are taken as a positive aspect of language acquisition (Svartvik, 1973, p. 9) which indicates the learning stages.

EA is used as a theoretical framework to investigate language interference. It helps the researchers to classify errors into different categories (omission, addition, etc); then, group

them according to their sources (interlinguage and intralinguage errors). These procedures help researchers to focus only on the needed data for an effective transfer research; because the errors are a useful tool to study the interaction between languages. It is argued that the duty of the transfer research is the explanation of how and why knowledge among languages influence each other (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 111)

Conclusion

Learners speaking errors should be regarded as a valuable source of information, because through the analysis of those deviations, we can investigate MT interference in FL learning and make appropriate changes for better acquisition. English language learners should be informed about the negative results of language interference on their language speaking in general and oral proficiency in particular to become more dependent on the TL and solve the problem of negative transfer.

CHAPTER FOUR: FIELD OF INVESTIGATION

Introduction …….60

1. Students' Questionnaire……....60

2. Methodology…….……60

3. Analysis of Learners' Questionnaire…….61

4. Summary of Learners' Questionnaire……...81

5. The Corpus……82

6. Description of the Observation…….....82

7. Procedures…….83

8. Learners' oral Syntactic Errors…….83

9. Summary of Observational Data……...90

Recommendations …….....90

Conclusion ……...91

Introduction

In order to develop learners' speaking skill, it is necessary for researchers to investigate learners' errors caused by L1 interference in oral production. The study of errors can be done through error analysis process; since, it allows the researchers to identify the interlingual source of deviations, as well as to provide solutions to improve speaking skill.

The aim of this study is to describe the oral syntactic errors committed by English language learners because of MT interference, and explain the effect of such language influence on learners speaking skill, as a well as provide solutions and suggestions to help learners to overcome this learning obstacle.

1. Students' Questionnaire

To accomplish this research, a written questionnaire was given to first year students of the department of English language at the University 8 Mai 1945 Guelma. This questionnaire was used to generate data about syntactic speaking difficulties, in order to prove the existence of the problem of language interference, and confirm or disconfirm the hypothesis that learners syntactic speaking errors are due to the Arabic interference with English language learning.

2. Methodology

The informants engaged in this study are 84 out of 252 first year students at the department of English, university 8 Mai 1945, Guelma. Students were asked to answer a questionnaire of twenty one questions, fifteen closed questions and six open ended questions, divided under three sections. In the first section; entitled "general information", the students were required to answer questions about their gender, years of learning English, choice of learning it, and their level in that language. The second section: "speaking skill", provides

details about students' opinion about their current level of English speaking skill and some information about language use difficulties. The last section "syntactic errors and interference in speaking" covers all the questions related to learners' oral syntactic errors, the relation of Arabic interference to those errors, and the possible solution for this problem.

The questionnaire was administrated during class period schedule and the students needed about 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Their contribution in this questionnaire was remarkable; they were too cooperative and accept to answer and give some personal information without hesitation.

3. Analysis of Students' Questionnaire

Section One: General Information

Question 01: Students' Gender

In question 01, students were asked to tick the appropriate option which refers to their gender. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 01

Students' Gender

Gender	Number	Percentage
Male	23	27.38%
Female	61	72.62%
Total	84	100%

Concerning learners' gender, the participants were divided into twenty eight males (27.38) and sixty one females (72.62%). Hence, learners are unequal in terms of gender,

females represent the majority of the sample; whereas, males represent the minority. This indicates that females are more interested in FL learning.

Question 02: The Period of Learning English Language

In question 02, students were asked about the number of years they had been studying English language.

Table 02

Students' Years of Learning English Language

Years	Number	percentage
7 years	68	80.95%
More than 7 years	16	19.05%
Total	84	100%

Concerning learners' years of learning English language, the majority of learners (80.95%) opted for 7 years, mainly because this is the average of learning English language in Algeria; since, students studied English for four years at the middle school and three years at the secondary school. Students also are required to study English at the university whatever the field of study is. Only sixteen students (19.05%) claimed that they study English more than 7 years. The results of this question prove that the majority of students were exposed to English language only when they started to learn it in an academic setting.

Question03: the choice for learning English

In question 03, students were asked to select the adjective that describes their choice of learning English.

Table 03

Students' Choice of Learning English

	Number	percentage
Personal	70	83.33%
Imposed	14	16.67%
Total	84	100%

Concerning learners' choice to acquire English, the majority of students (83.33%) claimed that it is their own choice to study English, whereas the rest (16.67%) said that it is imposed on them. As a result, English learning can contradict with the desire of some learners, which can affect their learning achievements.

Question 04: Learners' Own Assessment of their Level at English

In question 04, students were asked to portray their level in English. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 04

Students' Assessment of their Level in English Language

	Very good	Good	Medium	Bad	Very bad	Total
Number	13	37	31	03	00	84
Percentage	15.48%	44.05%	36.90%	03.57%	00%	100%

Concerning learners' assessment of their present level of English, only three students (3.57%) agreed that their level is bad; however, all of the rest ignore the last choice.

Thirteen students (15.48%) chose the first option which is “very good” and thirty one of them thought that their level is “average”. The other thirty seven students (44.05%) claimed that they have a good level at English language. The results of the question prove that learners do not have a real assessment of their level in the TL. The answers show that learners assess themselves based on their marks, rather than on their actual use of the language.

Section Two: Speaking Skill

Question 05: Learners’ Most Important Skill

In question 05, students were asked to choose the language skill which they consider as the most important. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 05

Learners’ Most Important Skill

Option	Speaking	Writing	Listening	Reading	Total
Number	38	23	15	08	84
Percentage	45.24%	27.38%	17.86%	09.52%	100%

Concerning learners’ most important language skill, thirty eight (from84) students selected “speaking” to be the most important one followed by “writing” chosen by twenty three learners (27.38%). However, fifteen students (17.86%) chose “listening” and only eight participants (9.52%) from the whole group went for reading skill. Hence, it is concluded from the analysis that learners focus more on the productive skills (speaking and writing) and neglect the importance of receptive skills (listening and reading).

Question 06: Learners' Attitudes toward Speaking Skill Difficulty

In qustion06, learners were asked to choose the appropriate answer concerning their attitudes toward speaking skill difficulty. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 06

Learners' Attitudes toward Speaking Skill Difficulty

Option	Very easy	Easy	Moderate	Hard	Very hard	Total
Number	19	36	23	05	01	84
Percentage	22.62%	42.86%	27.38%	5.95%	01.19%	100%

Concerning learners' attitudes toward the speaking skill difficulty, only one learner (1.19%) chose the last answer which is "very hard". Thirty six students (from 84) believed that speaking is an easy skill. Nineteen ones (22.62%) said that it is very easy to speak English language; however five learners (5.95%) agreed on the fourth choice which is "hard". This implies that students think that speaking is not very difficult to be learned.

Question07: Learners' Assessment of their Current Level in English Speaking

In this question, learners were asked to choose the appropriate adjective which describes their current level in speaking skill. Table 07

Learners' Assessment of their Current Level in English Speaking

	Very good	Good	Medium	Bad	Very bad	Total
Number	14	33	30	07	00	84
Percentage	16.76%	39.29%	35.71%	08.33%	00%	100%

Concerning learners' current level in English speaking skill, the first choice "very good" attracted fourteen learners (16.67%). Thirty three students (39.29%) opted for "good level"; whereas thirty participants (35.71%) selected "medium level". Only seven students (8.33%) claimed that they have a bad level in speaking English; but no one chose the last option "very bad". This indicates that the majority of the students think that their level in speaking English language is acceptable.

Question 08: Degree of Liking Speaking English inside the Classroom

In this question, learners were asked to pick the degree which corresponds to their liking of using English inside the classroom.

Table 08

Degree of Liking Speaking English inside the Classroom

Option	Very much	Average	Little	Not at all	Total
Number	26	43	15	00	84
Percentage	30.95%	51.19%	17.86%	00%	100%

Concerning learners' degree of liking speaking English inside the classroom, the second choice "average" attracted more than the half of the participants (51.19%); whereas, the first "very much" attracted twenty six learners (30.95%). Only fifteen students (17.86%) claimed that they like speaking just a little; but no one opted for the last option "not at all". The results show that students are hesitant to use English even inside the classroom.

Question 09: The Frequency of Practicing English outside the Classroom

In question 09, learners were asked about how often they use English outside the classroom.

Table 09

The Frequency of Practicing English outside the Classroom

	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Number	14	17	26	20	07	84
Percentage	16.67%	20.24%	30.95%	23.81%	08.33%	100%

Concerning learners' frequency of using English outside the classroom, seven learners (8.33%) claimed that they never use English outside the classroom; however, fourteen (from 84) use it always in their daily life. Seventeen learners (20.24%) use it usually.Twenty six learners (30.95%) use it sometimes and twenty learners (23.81%) use it rarely outdoor the classroom. The answers of this question indicate that the learners are not aware about the importance of practicing speaking outside the classroom and they might be afraid of others' reactions.

Question 10: Factors Caused speaking difficulties

In this question, we asked learners to choose the factors that may cause speaking difficulties. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table10

Causes of Speaking Difficulties

	Number	Percentage
Lack of time for preparation and performance	35	41.67%
Fear of criticism	56	66.67%
Lack of Motivation	27	32.14%
Lack of confidence	24	28.57%
Anxiety	10	11.90%
No topical knowledge	18	21.43%
Lack of vocabulary	13	15.48%
Inhibition	16	19.05%
Fear of making mistakes	18	21.43%
Other	0	0%

Concerning the causes of speaking difficulties, learners had to choose one or more answers from the nine choices provided as they could select “other” if they have other causes which are not mentioned. More than the half of students (66.67%) agreed on “fear of criticism” which implies that learners find a difficulty in using the TL because they are afraid from receiving negative comments. Thirty five students (41.67%) went for “lack of time for preparation and performance”, which means that free discussions affects speaking because learners prefer to have time to prepare and organize their ideas before they express them.

Twenty seven learners (32.14%) opted for the third choice “lack of motivation” and twenty four of them (from 84) selected “lack confidence”. So, lack of motivation and self

confidence are two factors behind speaking difficulty. “Anxiety” attracted ten students (11.90%) and “inhibition” sixteen learners (from 84). Hence learners are inhibited to use the language especially when they are anxious. Eighteen learners (21.43%) chose the sixth answer “no topical knowledge” and thirteen ones chose (15.48%) “Lack of vocabulary”. Thus, learners cannot use the language when they have no idea about the topic being discussed or when they lack words to express themselves. Eighteen students (21.43%) agreed on“fear of making mistakes” as another factor of speaking difficulties. However, no learner opted for “other” which shows that learners are unaware about the other factors which lead to speaking difficulties.

Question 11: Learners’ Views concerning the most Important Component in Speaking Skill

In this question, learners were asked to choose the right component they consider as the most important element in speaking skill.

Table 11

Learners’ Views about the most Important Component in Speaking Skill

	Fluency	Accuracy	Grammar	Vocabulary	Total
Number	20	17	13	34	84
Percentage	23.80%	20.24%	15.48%	40.48%	100%

Concerning learners’ views about the most important component in speaking skill, Thirty eight students (40.48%) claimed that “vocabulary” is the cornerstone of speaking skill. this means that many learners think that acquiring lots of vocabulary is the key to use the language appropriately. However, twenty participants (23.80%) thought that “Fluency” is the

most important component of speaking which means that learners are aware about the importance of using the language smoothly without hesitation. The second choice "accuracy" attracted seventeen students (from 84) which indicates that they look for the correctness and completeness of utterances in speaking. Only thirteen students (15.48%) opted for the third choice which is grammar. Hence, most of learners underestimate the importance of rules in using the language.

Section three: Syntactic Errors and Interference in Speaking

Question 12: Learners' Rank of Errors in Productive Skills

In this question, learners were required to choose the language Productive skill in which they commit more syntactic errors.

Table 12

Learners' Rank of Errors in Productive Skill

	Number	Percentage
Speaking	34	40.48%
Writing	50	59.52%
Total	84	100%

Concerning the rank of errors in productive skills, more than the half of students (59.52%) claimed that they commit more errors when they write; whereas, the rest (40.48%) thought that they make more errors when they speak. Hence, learners believe that they commit more writing errors than speaking errors, may be because when write they can verify their structures and extract the deviations; but when they speak they cannot check their utterance, so they cannot feel that they produce erroneous sentences.

Question 13: level of frequent speaking errors

In this question, we asked learners to choose the appropriate level of language where they commit more English speaking errors.

Table 13

Level of Frequent English Speaking Errors

	Syntax	Semantics	Phonology	Morphology	Total
Number	19	25	23	17	84
Percentage	22.62%	29.76%	27.38%	20.24%	100%

Concerning the level of frequent English speaking errors, twenty five learners (29.76%) opted for the second answer "semantics", which indicates that they commit more errors at the level of constructing meaning of utterances. The third choice "phonology" attracted twenty three students (27.38%). This implies that learners make errors at the level of organizing and using English sounds. However, nineteen (from 84) believed that they make errors at the level of constructing utterances "syntax". The rest of students (20.24%) selected the last choice "morphology"; which means that that they find difficulty in forming words. The answers of the question prove that learners concentrate more on the meaning rather than the structure of the utterance.

Question14: Learners' Attitude toward the Causes behind their Oral Syntactical Errors

In this question, learners were asked to choose the cause which they consider as the reason behind their oral syntactic errors.

Table 14

Learners' Attitude toward the Causes behind their Oral Syntactic Errors

	Number	Percentage
Lack of concentration	20	23.81%
Mother tongue interference	33	39.28%
Lack of English rules	18	21.43%
Missing words	0	0%
Mistranslation of Arabic knowledge	13	15.48%
Total	84	100%

Concerning the cause behind oral syntactic errors, thirty three participants (from 84) supposed that MT interference leads to syntactic errors in oral performance. So, they are aware that Arabic can affect their EL learning achievements. Twenty responses (23.81%) were given to "lack of concentration". Thus, learners think that their syntactic erroneous utterances are caused by lack of attention and not because of lack of competence. Eighteen students (21.43%) went for the third choice "lack of English rules". which implies that some students make errors because they do not know the English syntactic rules or how to apply them correctly. The rest of the participants (15.48%) chose "mistranslation of knowledge". This indicates that learners commit some speaking syntactical errors because they fail to translate their knowledge from Arabic to English. No one selected the last choice "missing words", which shows that learners do not have a problem with lexical gaps.

Question 15: Learners' Key to Produce New English Structures

In question 15, we asked the learners about what they do when they are asked to produce new English structures. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 15

Learners' Solutions to Produce New Structures

	Number	Percentage
Ask the teacher about the English syntactic rule	29	34.52%
Try to apply the Arabic syntactic rule	55	65.48%
Total	84	100%

Concerning learners' solution to produce new English structures, more than the half of learners (65.48%) selected the second choice which is "trying to apply the Arabic syntactic rule". However the rest of the participants (34.52%) argued that they ask the teacher about the English syntactic rule. This implies that learners depend on Arabic in learning English without taking into consideration the effect it has on their speaking skill.

Question16: Learners' Views about the Type of Arabic Syntactic Transfer on their Speaking Skill

In this question, learners had to select the appropriate type ofArabic syntactic transfer on English language speaking.

Table 16

Learners' Views about the Type of Arabic syntactic Transfer on English Language speaking

	Number	Percentage
Positive transfer	49	58.33%
Negative transfer	35	41.67%
Total	84	100%

Concerning learners' views about the type of Arabic syntactic transfer on their English speaking performance, more than the half of learners thought that the transfer of syntactic rules from Arabic to English is positive. So, they believe that Arabic syntactic rules can be applied in English to produce correct utterances. However, twenty eight learners (33.33%) found that Arabic syntactic transfer is something negative.This means that some learners avoid using Arabic rules in speaking English because it leads to the production of erroneous structures. Consequently, they think that Arabic does not help them in learning the TL.

Question17: Learners' Attitudes toward the Reasons behind Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking

In this question, we asked learners to pick the reasons they consider as the main causes behind Arabic syntactic interference on English speaking.

Table 17

Learners' Attitudes toward the Reasons behind Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking.

	Number	percentage
Both language systems are similar	0	0%
Both language system are different	23	27.38%
Arabic is acquired before English	42	53.57%
English syntactic rules are difficult to be learned	22	26.19%
It happens unconsciously	33	39.28%
Other	0	0%

All learners neglected the first reason "both language systems are similar"; however, twenty three students (27.38%) opted for the second option "both language systems are different". This indicates that all the students think that language interference does not occur because of the similarities between the two languages but some of them related it to the differences between Arabic and English. Half of students (from 84) chose the third answer "Arabic is acquired before English", which means that language interference occurs because Arabic syntactic rules are acquired before the English ones. Twenty two learners (26.19%) selected "English syntactic rules are difficult to be learned", which implies that the difficulty of English syntactic rules paves the way for the Arabic ones to interfere. Thirty three learners

(39.28%) related language interference to unconsciousness. This shows that language interference is something people cannot pay attention to. All the students did not add other reasons, which means that they do not think of other reason for Arabic syntactic interference with English speaking.

Question 18: Factors Activate Language Interference

In this question, we asked learners to choose the appropriate factor which provokes language interference.

Table 18

Factors Activate Language Interference

	Number	Percentage
Lack of proficiency	22	26.19%
Lack of practice	43	51.19%
Lack of teacher correction	30	35.71%
Anxiety	24	28.57%
Fear of making errors	27	32.14%
Teaching procedures	12	14.28%
Other	0	0%

Concerning the factors which activate Arabic syntactic interference with English speaking, learners had to choose one or more answers from the six choices, or they could select “other” if they thought of other factors which are not mentioned. The first choice “lack of proficiency” was chosen by twenty two learners (26.19%) which means that learners with

low level are the ones who face language interference problem. The half of students (51.19%) opted for the second factor which is “lack of practice”. Hence, the shortage of speaking opportunities prevents learners from enhancing their speaking skill.

Thirty learners (35.71%) selected “lack of teachers ‘correction” which implies that teacher correction has an important role in repairing language interference. Twenty four learners (28.57%) went for “anxiety”, which indicates that learners’ nervousness and worry foster the interference of Arabic rules onto English speaking. “Fear of making errors” was selected by twenty seven participants (32.14%). So, learners are totally sure about the correctness of their Arabic syntactical rules, so they use them as a way to avoid errors in English speaking skill. For twelve learners (14.28%), “teaching procedures” were the reason behind English interference; thus, when the teachers use Arabic to evaluate, assess and instruct learners, this encourages them to use Arabic in English speaking. No learner opted for “other” which means that learners do not think of other reasons that lead to Arabic interference.

Question19: Most Frequent Syntactical Error Caused by Arabic Interference in English Oral Production

In question 19, students are required to select the most frequent errors they commit because of Arabic interference in English speaking skill.

Table 19

Most Frequent Error Caused by Arabic Interference in English Oral Production

	Number	Percentage
Word choices error	19	22.62%
Sentence structure error	43	*51.19%*
Subject/ verb agreement error	28	*33.33%*
Singular/plural noun ending error	0	*0%*
Tense error	42	*50%*
Subject repetition error	9	*10.71%*
Verb formation error	21	*25%*
Other	*0*	*0%*

Concerning learners' frequent errors caused by Arabic syntactic interference, learners were asked to choose one or more answers from the seven choices. They could also select "other" if they think of other types of errors which are not mentioned. Forty three of students (51.19%) opted for the second type of errors which is "sentence structure errors". Also, the fifth choice "tense error" attracted forty two students (50%). So, learners think that they commit more errors at the level of utterance organization and tense use. Twenty eight students (33.33%) selected "subject/verb agreement error" as the frequent type of errors caused by Arabic syntactic interference. Twenty one learners argued that they commit more errors at the level of verb formation, which implies that they do not differentiate between regular and irregular verbs. Nineteen participants (22.62%) said that they cannot choose the appropriate word in the appropriate position. The rest of participants (10.71%) thought that their errors are

the result of subject repetition. Surprisingly, all the learners ignored singular/plural noun endings errors. No one chooses “other”, which indicates that learners are no aware about all the types of errors they make.

Question 20: The Consequences of Arabic Syntactic Interference on Learners’ English Speaking Skill

In this question, learners were asked to choose the right effect of Arabic syntactic interference on their English speaking skill.

Table 20

Consequences of Arabic Syntactic Interference on Learners’ English Speaking Skill

	Number	Percentage
Preventing learners from achieving high level of language proficiency	47	55.95%
Making learners’ speech seems ambiguous for native hearers	26	30.95
Production of erroneous utterances	40	47.62%
Leading to language learning failure	11	13.09%
Other	0	00%

Concerning the consequences of Arabic syntactic interference on learners' English speaking skill, learners were asked to choose one or more answers from the four choices. Learners could opt for "other" if they have other consequences, which are not mentioned. Forty seven students (55.95%) chose "preventing learners from achieving high level of language proficiency". So, Arabic syntactic interference blocks learners from using the language effectively. Forty participants (47.62%) went for the third answer "production of erroneous utterances" which indicates that learners speaking errors are the results of language interference. Twenty six students agreed on "Making learners' speech seems ambiguous for native hearers" because language interference makes learners utterances seem unclear for native speakers; however, the rest of them (13.09%) selected the last choice "leading to language learning failure", which indicates that Arabic syntactic interference prevents learners from achieving a good level in FL learning. No one opted for "other" which indicates that learners do not think about the consequences of Arabic syntactic interference on their English speaking skill.

Question 21: Remedies for Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking Skill

In this question, learners were asked to choose the appropriate remedies for Arabic syntactic interference on English speaking skill.

Table 21

Remedies for Arabic Syntactic Interference on English Speaking Skill

	Number	Percentage
Acquisition of English syntactic rules by heart	25	29.76%
Practicing the language inside and outside the classroom	75	89.28%
Immediate correction by the teacher	55	65.48%
Other	00	00%

Concerning the remedies of Arabic syntactic interference on English speaking skill, the majority of learners (89.28%) opted for language practice as solution of language interference. The third answer was selected by fifty five learners (65.48%), who agreed that through immediate correction, teachers can fix the problem of language interference. "Memorizing English syntactic rules by heart" was a good solution for twenty five learners (29.76%) in order to avoid the Arabic interference. No one decided on "other," which implies that learners do not think about further suggestions to solve the dilemma of language interference.

4. Summary of Learners' Questionnaire

From the results of the questionnaire, it is concluded that learners are motivated and prepared for the study of English as FL. They are engaged in the field of study with a good level which allows them to develop the language skills easily. However, learners' interest is

devoted more toward productive skills in general and speaking skill in particular. Students are hesitant to use the language either inside or outside the classroom, they are afraid from others criticism. Learners think that vocabulary is the main component of speaking as they believe that they commit more errors in writing. But in fact, EL learners seem to be unable to achieve a high level of language proficiency, because of language interference. They rely on Arabic syntactic rules whenever they feel unable to produce new structures in English, because they find that the transfer of knowledge from the former to the latter can be positive. Learners' responses contradict each other since although they argue that Arabic helps them to acquire English they claim that both language syntactic systems are dissimilar and what activates language interference is the lack of practice. Students think that the frequent oral syntactic errors are: verb tense and sentence structure. Language interference prevents learners from achieving high level of language proficiency and leads to the production of erroneous utterances. According to learners the best remedy for learner' oral syntactic errors caused by language interference can be language practice inside and outside the classroom.

5. The Corpus

The corpus of this study is obtained from the observation of the oral production of 25 first-year students of English at 8 Mai 1945 Guelma University during the session of oral expression in the second semester of the academic year 2016- 2017. The sample used in this study consists of 20 females and 5 males.

6. Description of the observation

The observation made was structured in terms of the data collected. The observer mainly focused on learners' interlingual errors that can be justified by MT interference. The researcher in this study was a passive participant as an indirect observer, who was integrated

in the group without informing the students about the aim of the investigation. The purpose behind this observational method is to keep learners' oral production as spontaneous as possible, as well as to help the researcher to collect instant data. Only one group was observed in order to check the frequency of the same type of errors and make sure that the deviations collected are errors and not mistakes.

7. Procedure

First of all, the observation was planned in terms of what should be taken into consideration and what should be collected as data to be worked on. The research followed the four steps of EA presented in the previous chapter; hence, after the collection of data, the errors were identified, classified within the subcategories of omission, addition, misformation and misordering and finally explained. The following part deals with the syntactic errors recurrent in the learners' oral production.

8. Learners' Oral Syntactic Errors Analysis

8.1 Misordering Errors

One of the most frequent syntactic errors recorded in the corpus are those of word order which refers to the syntactic arrangement of words in a sentence.

Table 22

Learners Misordering Errors

Error classification	Error identification	Error correction
Misordering	1. I had driven an expensive car never.	1. I had never driven an expensive car.
	2. Forgive the parents their children.	2. The parents forgive their children.
	3. He was king a smart and a brave.	3. He was a smart and brave king.

In the first sentence written in the table 22, the adverb of frequency "never" is placed at the end of the utterance; while it should be used at the beginning between the auxiliary "have" and the verb "drive" since the verb is compound one. The use of the frequency adverb in the utterance is similar to its equivalent Arabic word " أبدا or مطلقا" (ʔabaḏan or muṭˤlaqan) "never" which is usually put at the end of a sentence like: "أنا لم أسُقْ سيارةً باهضةَ الثمن أبداً" (ʔana lam ʔasuq sajjaraṯan bahiðˤaṯa ʔeθθaman ʔabḏan) "I had never driven an expensive car". In the second sentence, the student follows Arabic syntax to construct his/her sentence, because he/she places the verb before the subject. In Arabic we say ".يسامحُ الأولياءُ " (jusa:miħu elʔawlije:ʔu) " the parents forgive" but in English it is the opposite and we say "the parents forgive."

In the third sentence, the adjectives are placed after the noun as in Arabic language where the adjective "الصفة" has to follow the noun "الإسم" or "الموصوف" like in the sentence: "كان الملكُ الذكيُ و الشجاعُ" (kena ʔelmaliku ʔeððakiju wa ʔeʃʃuʒe:ʕu) "he was a smart and

brave king". However, in English language the adjective should precede the noun like: "He was a brave and smart king".

8.2 Misformation Errors

Students commit some misformartion errors when they utilize an incorrect form of a morpheme or structure.

Table 23

Learners Misformation Errors

Error classification	Error identification	Error correction
Misformation	1. I spended all my money on my family.	1. I spent all my money on my family.
	2. Oh my god, this games are so dangerous.	2. Oh my god, these games are so dangerous.
	3. My mother had took me to the doctor	3. My mother had taken me to the doctor.

Students make some misformation errors by producing wrong TL structures. In the first sentence, the student uses the regular marker "ed" of the simple past tense in an irregular verb. Usually, students make such verb formation errors; because of Arabic language influence on English. In Arabic language, all verbs follow the same conjugation in the past tense without any exception, for instance both verbs **"**كتبَ**"** **(**kaʇaba) "write" and "اِستخرجَ" (ʔisʇaxraʒa) "extract" are formed in the past with the first person "أنا" **(**ʔana**)** "I" by adding **"**ʇa**"** of the subject with **""**ḍˁamma**"(** تاء المتكلم مع الضمة). Hence, the speaker has to say "كتَبْتُ أنا**"** **(**ʔana kaʇabʇu**) "** I wrote" or "إسْتَخرجتُ أنا**"(** ʔana ʔisʇaxraʒʇu**)** " I extracted" . However, in

English language verbs are formed differently with the same personal pronoun in the past simple tense; since there are two types of verbs: regular and irregular ones. The first type is formed by the addition of “ed” to the end of the verb; yet the second one is formed in different ways. For example, the two verbs “walk” and “leave” have different formation with the first personal pronoun “I” thus one can say “I walked” but cannot say “I leaved” he/she can rather say “ I left”.

In the second sentence, the speaker uses the demonstrative adjective “that”, which refers to singular nouns, to refer to a plural noun. In English language, there are mainly four demonstrative adjectives “this” and “that” to refer to singular countable or uncountable nouns and “these” and “those” to refer to plural countable nouns. However, in this case the student makes such error because he/she thinks that the demonstrative “this” is similar to Arabic demonstrative “هذه” (haðihi) “this\ these” that is used with singular or plural noun. Thus, in Arabic language, the speaker can say “هَذه اللُّعبَة” (haðihi ʔelluʕba) “this game” or “هَذه الألعَاب” (haðihi ʔelʔalʕe:b) “these games” ; but in English one may say “this game” and not “this games”, but rather “these games”.

In the last sentence, the speaker produces an erroneous utterance, because of the misformation of the verb. The student makes a wrong form of the past perfect by putting the simple past instead of the past participle after the auxiliary “to have”. In this case, the student is influenced by the equivalent Arabic word “لقد” (laqaḏ) of the auxiliary “to have”. The word “لقد” (laqaḏ) “had” in Arabic language is always followed by the past tense when it is used to confirm past actions like “.لقد أخَذتني” (laqaḏ ʔaxaðṯani) “ she had taken me” and makes student create an erroneous utterance.

8.3 Addition Errors

Addition errors which are recorded in this corpus are related to the errors learners make when they use an extra item that should not appear in well-formed utterance.

Table 24

Learners Addition Errors

Error classification	Error identification	Error correction
Addition error	1. I have not never seen a famous person.	1. I have never seen a famous person.
	2. Christianity it is the religion of Jesus.	2. Christianity is the religion of Jesus.

In sentence number one, the student adds an extra element "not" to the adverb "never" to make the negative form, which makes his/her sentence incorrect; since the adverb carries a negative meaning by itself. Students make double negative errors as they construct their utterances depending on Arabic syntax, where the speakers can use both the word "لم" (lam) and the frequency adverb "مطلقا or أبَداً " (muṯˤlaqan or ʔabaḏan) "never" in the same sentence to make the negative form. In Arabic, the speaker can say "أنا لم أرَ شَخصاً مشهوراً أبَداً" (ʔana lam ʔaɾa ʃaxsˤan maʃhu:ɾan ʔabaḏan); however, in English the speaker either say "I have not seen a famous person" "أنا لم أرَ شَخصاً مشهوراً" (ʔana lam ʔaɾa ʃaxsˤan maʃhu:ɾan) or "I have never seen a famous person" "أنا لم أرَ شَخصاً مشهوراً أبَداً" (ʔana lam aɾa ʃaxsˤan maʃhu:ɾan ʔabaḏan) but cannot use both "not" and "never" in the same sentence.

In the second sentence, the student makes an error by following the noun "Christianity" by its pronoun "it" to give its definition, which causes a redundancy in the

sentence. Usually, this structure is related to Arabic language, where the user uses a pronoun directly after the noun to define it. For instance, in Arabic the speaker can say "المسِيحيةُ هي ديانةُ عيسَى" (ʔelmasi:ħija hija ḍije:naṯu ʕisa) "Christianity is the religion of Jesus". However, in English one has to say either "Christianity is the religion of Jesus." or "It is the religion of Jesus".

8.4 Omission Errors

When students make omission errors, they exclude some items which should appear in a correct utterance.

Table 25

Learners Omission Errors

Error classification	Error identification	Error correction
Omission	1. Each one live his world.	1. Each one lives in his world.
	2. My friend calling me to meet her this evening.	2. My friend is calling me to meet her this evening.
	3. Police office is too far.	3. The police office is too far.

In the first sentence, the TL student makes an error at the level of subject-verb agreement by omitting the "s" of the present tense with the third person singular. In English, in order to form the present tense, the user must add an "s" to the base of the verb with the third person singular (she, he and it) and say "he, she or it lives". The reason behind such error is the interference of Arabic language, in which the speaker does not need to add any inflection to the end of the verb with third person singular to form the present tense "المضارع" (ʔelemuḍʕa:riʕ).. Rather, the speaker has only to add "ja" "يـ" to the beginning of the verb to

refer to the third person masculine singular and "t̪a""تـ" to refer to the third person feminine singular with "d̪ˤamma" "الضمة" at the last letter. For instance, the speaker says "هويعيشُ" (huwa jaʕiʃu) "he lives" or "هي تعيشُ" (hija t̪aʕiʃu) "she lives". The absence of the final "s" in Arabic language can be the reason behind its omission in English; because of its inference on the TL learning process.

In sentence number two, the student omits the auxiliary "to be" before the present participle to form the tense needed in the utterance, which is the present continuous. Usually, to form the present progressive, native speakers use the auxiliary "to be" in the present besides the present participle of the main verb like: "my friend is calling". The absence of compound verbs in Arabic influences the students to forget about the auxiliary in English. In Arabic, speakers put the verb directly after the subject to form any tense without the need of the auxiliary like: "صديقي يتصلُ" (sˤad̪iqi jat̪asˤil) "my friend is calling". Thus, this has an effect on the TL and appears on the omission of the auxiliary.

In the last sentence, the student forgets the article "the" before the noun "police" which makes his/her sentence incomplete. There are mainly three articles in English language "the" (definite article), "an" and "a" (indefinite articles). "The" is similar to the definite Arabic article "اَلْ" (el) "the", which is considered as a prefix added to the beginning of the word, for example: "اَلْكتاب" (ʔelkit̪e:b) "the book". However, due to language interference, whenever the article "اَلْ" (ʔel) is omitted in Arabic, learners tend to omit it in English language too. For instance, in Arabic we say " مَركزالشُرطةِ بعيدٌ جداً" (maɾkaz ʔeʃʃuɾt̪a baʕi:d̪un ʒid̪an) "the police office is too far". The effect of the absence of the article "el" "اَلْ" in the beginning of the noun "مَركزُ" (maɾkaz) "office" is noticeable in the English utterance in the omission of the article "the" in front of the noun "police".

9. Summary of Observational Data

The results of observational data show that students make common errors of misordering, misformation, addition and omission in their oral production. Most of students' errors were due to Arabic syntactic interference. These findings confirm students' carelessness about the correct application of English syntactic rules; since, during the oral production, they seem more reliable on their NL rather than on the competency they have about the TL. In other words, even though students know English syntactic rules, they do not apply them in real life.

Recommendations

- English syntax has to be taught and explained to TL learners in details and with all the exceptions. This help learners to enrich their competency and use the language effectively.

- Any oral syntactic error caused by MT interference must receive an immediate correction. This will help students to become more reliable on TL competency.

- Teachers should expose learners to the differences and similarities between both MT and TL syntactic systems, and what can be transferable from one language to another to avoid language interference.

-Teachers should make more oral expression sessions aiming at developing learners' oral proficiency by simulating real life situations.

- After learners' oral production, teachers must identify and record the most frequent syntactic errors and discuss them with learners.

- Oral expression class should be a practical session, where students perform the theoretical knowledge they obtain from the grammar session.

- Teachers must not focus only on the message and neglect the structure while evaluating learners' utterances.

- Students have to practice the TL both inside and outside the classroom in order to improve their speaking skill.

- Learners should ask their teachers about the English syntactic rules they confound with the Arabic ones.

- Neither teachers nor learners should be allowed to use Arabic language inside the classroom.

- Teachers should make the role of syntax more prominent in English learning.

- Both teachers and learners must re-evaluate the way they teach and learn syntax.

- Teachers should not neglect students who do not participate inside the classroom, rather they have to give all learners equal opportunity to communicate and express themselves.

- Teachers must help learners to overcome their fear of using the TL outside the classroom.

Conclusion

This study is based on the errors made because of MT oral syntactic interference on TL speaking skill by first year English students at The University of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma. Depending on the analysis of data collected from students' responses to the questionnaire as well as the observation, it is concluded that learners are motivated and prepared for the study of English as FL. They are engaged in the field of study with a good level which allows them to develop the language skills easily. However, learners' interest is devoted more toward productive skills in general and speaking skill in particular. But in fact, EL learners seem to be unable to achieve a high level of language proficiency, because of fear of criticism as well as lack of language practice either inside or outside the classroom.

Learners' neglect of the importance of English grammar paves the way for Arabic syntactic rules to interfere in English speaking skill. Learners consider English syntax as unimportant component of language, since Arabic rules can be used is to cover this lack. They believe that Arabic has a positive effect on English speaking because it is the L1 to be acquired, and consequently, it can be used as leading map to explore other languages.

Questions about language interference show that learners do not have sufficient information about the problem. Learners' responses contradict each other, for instance, learners think that oral syntactic interference is a result of the differences between the two language systems; but at the same time, they believe that Arabic may be helpful in learning English, since there can be a positive transfer from the former to the latter. This shortage of information makes learners incapable of to thinking about further causes, consequences or remedies for the problem.

Further more, the findings show that students make common errors of misordering, misformation, addition and omission in their oral production. Most of students' errors were due to Arabic syntactic interference. These findings confirm students' carelessness about the correct application of English syntactic rules; since, during the oral production, they seem more reliable on their NL rather than on the competency they have about the TL. In other words, even though students know English syntactic rules, they do not apply them in real life.

Speaking is one of the most important skills TL learners tend to achieve; thus, it can be a base that one can depend on to evaluate the effect of Arabic on English learning process. The erroneous utterances constructed by the learners in this study are highly convincing to validate the strong influence of Arabic on English language learning process. They prove that learners' dependence on Arabic syntax in English speaking is a barrier which prevents them from using the TL language appropriately and fluently.

The results indicate that both teachers and learners need to work corroboratively to put a limit or diminish the overt influences of Arabic syntax on English learners' oral utterances to be able to achieve fluency.

The aim of this study is to describe learners' oral errors caused by Arabic syntactic interference. Accordingly, the observation focused only on learners' deviations caused by negative transfer. Moreover, some errors were neglected because their source might be French as well not Arabic. Thus, it should not be neglected that sometimes Arabic can contribute in learning the TL.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

Learning FL does not mean just to learn new words and expressions; it is rather to acquire how to use this language correctly and effectively. The study was conducted to investigate oral syntactic errors, committed by first year students of English language at 8 Mai 1945 Guelma university, caused by MT interference. The research was designed to shed light on the effects of such phenomenon on language learning process in general and speaking skill in particular.

This research depended on four basic research questions.The questions were mainly about the main oral syntactic errors constructed by learners, students' attitudes towards applying English syntactic rules, the extent to which Arabic effects English learning process, and the solutions that can be proposed to overcome this problem. The answers of the questions and the analysis of both learners' questionnaire and observation were used to confirm or reject the research hypothesis.

The findings confirm that language interference is prevalent among first year students of English language at 8 Mai 1945 Guelma university, which is revealed in their oral production. It was deduced that MT interference affects the performance of English; as it prevents learners from constructing correct syntactic utterances. When learners mistrust the English syntactic system and rely on Arabic rules to structure a sentence, their speech will be unclear and incorrect.

These obtained results could be richer, if time was sufficient enough. the findings cannot be overgeneralized on the whole population because the number of the sample was too limited and they may change by the change of the sample.

Concerning suggested areas for further studies, researches should be conducted on the differences and similarities between Arabic and English syntactic rules. Moreover, a study should be done on how MT influences English phonology and morphology.

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Glossary

Determiner: an affix that belongs to nouns modifiers; it includes articles (the), demonstratives (this), possessives (my) and quantifiers (many).

Head: the initial constituent of a phrase that determines its type.

Modifier: an optional constituent that modifies another element in a sentence. It can be a word (adjective adverb), phrase (prepositional phrase) or clause (relative clause) that can be removed without affecting the meaning of the sentence.

Numeral: a determiner that indicates number like: cardinal numerals (one, two, three), ordinal numerals (first, second, third), multiplicative numerals (once, twice, thrice) etc.

Predicate: a word that gives information about the subject.

Quantifier: a determiner that indicates quantity like: all, some, many etc.

Template: a way used to represent the syntactic order of sentence' elements.

APPENDIX

Appendix 01: Learners' Questionnaire

Appendix 01: Learners' Questionnaire

Dear students,

I am investigating the issue of language interference on learners' oral syntax. You are invited to take part by filling in the questionnaire below.

Your assistance in completing the following questions is greatly appreciated, Please put a tick (√) in the box beside the option(s) you choose or give a full answer in the space provided.

Section one: general information

1. Gender:
   a. Male ☐
   b. Female ☐

2. How long have you been studying English?

   ……. Years.

3. Your choice to study English is:

   a. Personal ☐
   b. Imposed ☐

4. How do you assess your present level at English?

   a. Very Good ☐
   b. Good ☐
   c. Medium ☐
   d. Bad ☐
   e. Very bad ☐

Section two: Speaking Skill and Syntax

5. Which of the following language skills is the most important for you?
   a. Speaking ☐
   b. Writing ☐
   c. Listening ☐
   d. Reading ☐
6. How do you find speaking?
   a. Very easy ☐
   b. Easy ☐
   c. Moderate ☐
   d. Hard ☐
   e. Very hard ☐
7. Is your oral proficiency:
   a. Very good ☐
   b. Good ☐
   c. Medium ☐
   d. Bad ☐
   e. Very bad ☐
8. How much do you like speaking English in class?
   a. Very much ☐
   b. Average ☐
   c. Little ☐
   d. Not at all ☐
9. How often do you practice speaking of English outside the classroom?
   a. Always ☐
   b. Usually ☐
   c. Sometimes ☐
   d. Rarely ☐

c. Never ☐

10. What factors affect your speaking performance? (You can tick more than once choice)

a. Lack of time for preparation and performance ☐

b. Fear of criticism ☐

c. Lack of motivation ☐

d. Lack of confidence ☐

e. Anxiety ☐

f. No topical knowledge (having no background knowledge about a topic) ☐

g. Lack of vocabulary ☐

h. Inhibition ☐

i. Fear of making mistakes ☐

j. Other ☐

If other, specify……..……..

……..…….

11. What is the most important speaking component?

a. Fluency ☐

b. Accuracy ☐

c. Grammar ☐

d. Vocabulary ☐

Section Three: syntactic errors and interference in speaking

12. In which productive skill you commit more errors? In:

a. Speaking ☐

b. Writing ☐

13. At what language level you commit more speaking errors?

a. Syntax (the construction of phrases and sentences) ☐

b. Semantics (the meaning of linguistic expressions) ☐

c. Phonology (the organization and use of sounds in language) ☐

d. Morphology (the forms of words) ☐

14. What are the causes behind your oral syntactical mistakes?

a. lack of concentration ☐

b. Mother tongue interference ☐

c. Lack of English grammatical rules ☐

d. Missing words ☐

e. Mistranslation of Arabic knowledge ☐

15. When you are asked to produce a new sentence structure in English which you had not learn before, you:

a. Ask your teacher about the English syntactic rule ☐

b. Try to transfer the Arabic syntactic rule to English ☐

16. What is the type of Arabic syntactic rules transfer to English?

a. Positive transfer ☐

b. Negative transfer ☐

17. What are the reasons behind Arabic syntactic interference in English language speaking? (You can tick more than once choice)

a. Because both language systems are similar to each other ☐

b. Because both language systems are too different from each other ☐

c. Because Arabic is acquired before English ☐

d. Because English syntactic rules are too difficult to be learned ☐

e. It happens unconsciously ☐

f. Other ☐

If other, specify ……...

18. What activates language interference? (You can tick more than once choice)

a. lack of proficiency ☐

b. lack of practice ☐

c. lack of teacher correction ☐

d. Anxiety ☐

e. Fear of making mistakes ☐

f. Teaching procedure (ways the teacher explains, instructs, evaluates and corrects the Students) ☐

g. Other ☐

If other, specify…….

19. What are the most frequent errors caused by Arabic syntactic interference in English speaking?

a. Word choice errors ☐

b. Sentence structure errors ☐

c. Subject verb agreement errors ☐

d. Singular/plural noun ending errors ☐

e. Tense errors ☐

f. Subject repetition ☐

g. Verb formation (regular/irregular) ☐

h. Other ☐

If other, specify…….

20. What are the consequences of Arabic syntactic interference in English speaking? (you pick more than once choice)

a. Preventing learners from achieving high level of language proficiency ☐

b. Making students' speech seems ambiguous for foreign language hearers ☐

c. Production of erroneous utterances ☐

d. Leading to language learning failure ☐

e. Other ☐

If other, specify…….

21. What are the most effective remedies for language interference? (You can tick more than once choice)

a. Acquiring English syntactic rules by heart ☐

b. Practicing the language inside and outside the classroom ☐

c. Immediate correction by the teacher ☐

d. Other ☐

If other, specify……

RESUME

Les apprenants de la langue Anglaise commettent des erreurs syntaxiques orales à cause de l'interférence de la langue maternelle. Tous les étudiants visent à utiliser la langue cible couramment et de manière appropriée; toutefois, avec l'interférence de la langue maternelle qui demeure une barrière, ils semblent incapables d'atteindre leurs but. L'interférence de la langue natale a un lien direct sur les erreurs orales syntaxiques commises par ces derniers; en conséquence, leurs énoncés semblent ambigus pour l'interlocuteur. L'analyse des erreurs est apparue comme une étude qui se concentre sur les aberrations des étudiants et suggère des solutions et des techniques pour aider les enseignants et les universitaires à surmonter ce problème. Dans ce contexte, le présent travail vise à analyser les erreurs syntaxiques fréquentes en communication orale commises par les étudiants (84 sur 254 étudiants) de la langue anglaise en première année à l'université Guelma du 8 mai 1945 à cause de l'interférence de la langue standard moderne arabe ce qui aide à suggérer des solutions adéquates au problème linguistique. Pour atteindre cet objectif, une méthode descriptive a été adoptée qui implique un outil quantitatif au moyen d'un questionnaire et un outil qualitatif par l'observation des discours produits par les étudiants. L'étude a prouvé que la syntaxe d'arabe interfère avec l'application des règles de syntaxe anglaise et que ceci peut être réduit si quelques recommandations sont prises en considération sérieusement par les enseignants et les étudiants.

***Mots clef*:** Analyse des Erreurs, Syntaxe, Compétence Orale, interférence de la langue natale, Cas d'étude.

ملخص

يرتكب متعلمو اللغة الانجليزية أخطاء نحوية شفوية بسبب تداخل اللغة الأم . يهدف جميع المتعلمين إلى استخدام اللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة وبشكل سلس، إلا أن اللغة الأم تبقى حاجز يمنعهم عن تحقيق هدفهم. إن تدخل اللغة الأم يجعل المتعلمين يرتكبون أخطاء نحوية شفوية؛ وبالتالي، تصبح تراكيبهم مبهمة بالنسبة للمتلقي. وظهر تحليل الأخطاء كدراسة ترتكز على أخطاء المتمدرسين و تعمل على اقتراح حلول و تقديم تقنيات لمساعدة المعلمين والمتعلمين لتغلب على هذا المشكل. وفي هذا السياق، يهدف هذا العمل إلى تحليل الأخطاء النحوية المتكررة في التواصل الشفوي التي يرتكبها متعلمو السنة الأولى إنجليزية (84 من 252 طالب) بسبب تداخل اللغة العربية مع اللغة الهدف و اقتراح حلول مناسبة لهاته المشكلة. ولتحقيق هذا الهدف ، تم تبني الطريقة الوصفية التي تتضمن أداة كمية كالاستبيان وأداة نوعية كملاحظة كلام الطلاب الشفوي. الدراسة اكدت ان النظام النحوي للعربية يتداخل مع تطبيق قواعد النحو الانجليزية وأن هذا الأمر يمكن تفاديه إذا تم اخذ بعين الاعتبار الاقتراحات من طرف الأساتذة والطلبة.

الكلمات المفتاحية: تحليل الأخطاء، النحو، التكلم، تداخل اللغة الأم، دراسة حالة.