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Mother Tongue Interference in Learning the Vocabulary of English as a Foreign Language

The Case of Third Year Students at the English Division of Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

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Dedication

Each challenge and hard work requires strong efforts, guidance, support, care and love especially from those who are very close to our hearts.

*I dedicate this humble work to my **Dearest Husband** because it was his dream to complete his studies; and without his understanding and encouragements, I would not have accomplished this work.*

I dedicate also this work to my sweet heart and dearest persons whose affection, love and prayers make me strong in hard times.

My Mother & My Father

To my dearest brothers,

Farid, Tarek, Naoui, and Mohamed

*To my kids to whom I promise more care and tenderness in the future, **Nour and Krimo.***

*For the beloved people who have meant and continue to mean so much to me. Although they are no longer of this world, their memories are imprinted in our minds. First and foremost, to my uncle **Dridi Amar** my aunt **Dridi Zohour** whose love for me knew no bounds. They taught me the value of hard work. Thank you so much; I will never forget you.*

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Abstract

The students' mother tongue has played a significant role in the foreign language learning and teaching and in the learners' performance as well. Therefore, the present research intends to examine the influence of the mother tongue in learning the English foreign language vocabulary. In addition, it aims at demonstrating the usefulness of the mother tongue as a pedagogical or as a hurdling factor in teaching and learning foreign language vocabulary. A descriptive method has been used to conduct this research and different tools have been employed to gather data. Indeed, we submitted a questionnaire to students, an interview to English teachers and performed a classroom observation with third year English students in which we have chosen eighty students randomly. The results obtained indicate that most learners are not aware of the similarities and the differences between their mother tongue and English; therefore, they face difficulties in learning English vocabulary and make errors in their written production. Lastly, we have proposed some effective recommendations that eventually would partly solve the problem.

List of Abbreviations

CLL: Community Language Learning

EFL: English foreign language

ESL: English second language

L1: First language

FL: Foreign language

FLL: Foreign language learners

MT: Mother tongue

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General Introduction

Introduction

The issue of the use of native language in foreign language classes has been a matter of controversy for decades. Some researchers support its use but others strongly refuse its implication in teaching foreign language classes. Many English language professionals dispute the L1 use in classrooms, something that should never happen in modern, communicative lessons. They wonder how students can truly learn the target language exchanges if they are continually relying on their native language. They note that L1 use may weaken the foreign language input of learners. They also observe that in EFL classes a number of teachers believe that L1 use will obstruct the English acquisition progress; therefore, they devise games, signals, and penalty systems to prevent students from using their L1. Weinberg (1990) for example punishes his students for using L1 "This is an English-only classroom, if you speak Spanish or Cantonese or Mandarin or Vietnamese or Russian or Farsi, you pay me 25 cents. I can be rich" (Weinberg, 1990, p. 5). Several researchers suggest that students' mother tongue does not play any significant role in foreign language teaching.

On the other hand, many scholars think that the effective way to teach English language is through the use of the mother tongue of the students. Atkinson (1987) advocates the positive role of L1 and also recognizes its uses in foreign language teaching: eliciting language, checking comprehension, giving instructions, enhancing cooperation among learners, promoting discussions of classroom methodology, improving presentation and reinforcement of language, checking for sense, testing, and development of useful learning strategies. He also claims that the key for the teacher seems to be using the mother tongue appropriately and avoiding the overuse which will make learners feel that they

cannot comprehend the input of the foreign language until it is translated into their native language. L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learner's experiences, allowing them to express themselves. Atkinson (1987), and other researchers assert that the appropriate use of the mother tongue in the classroom setting can be very beneficial. They also agree that L1 should be used with students who are not highly proficient in the target language. However, there are no highly empirical studies that have examined whether or not L1 is an effective tool for teaching a foreign language.

Based on the above arguments, many researchers with different approaches have dealt with vocabulary teaching. Although vocabulary is a very important component and an essential aspect of language, less research and studies have dealt with the issue. Yet, the importance of lexis in foreign language learning has been stressed by many linguists and methodologists. Nickel (1973) (as cited in Fisiak, 1990) argues that communication is based on more lexical than grammatical items. According to Hatch (1983), "basic communicative competence is largely concerned with strategies the learners use to solicit the vocabulary they need in order to get meaning across" (p. 74). It is not surprising; therefore, that in the eighties, more studies than before on vocabulary acquisition have seen the light (Merra, 1982; Ard & Homburg, 1983). In addition, among the teaching materials, some books have been devoted exclusively to the development of vocabulary (Rudzka, 1982; Wallace, 1982; Allen, 1984) (as cited in Fisiak, 1990). Scholars and researchers suggest many different methods to teach vocabulary .This includes dictionaries, translation, context use, word list, and other relevant ways. Many researchers in this area advocate the use of context for learning vocabulary to be more specific by using guessing technique. However, past research studies were against the use of context as a way of looking up words meaning.

1. **Statement of the Problem**

Scholars in the field of the acquisition of English as a foreign language propose that in any language, vocabulary source is the single largest component. Vocabularies are used in every aspect in any language that is the language system can never be completed without vocabulary. It was considered to be secondary and structure received primary attention. English teachers find it hard to depend on the English language only in teaching it to Arab students; because most students do not really comprehend some English words. Teachers and learners of English find difficulties in teaching English as a foreign language without referring to the mother tongue in some aspects. As a result, this research intends to investigate the interference of the mother tongue in learning the English vocabulary as a foreign language by the third year students at the English language department in the University of Mohamed Kheider, Biskra.

2. **Significance of the Study**

The reason behind the focus on vocabulary acquisition is that it plays a central role in learning a foreign language. Moreover, foreign language learners need to have a considerable vocabulary size (Nation, 2001). Cook (1991) argues that vocabulary learning is essential for the four skills. The study of Ringborn in 1987 clearly indicates that L1 is significant in the deliberative learning of vocabulary. Auerbach (1993) claims that the use of learner's L1 in L2 classroom will have a positive effect on the foreign language learning, especially in the area of vocabulary.

Vocabulary has been considered as a neglected part of language learning. Indeed, it can be regarded as a victim in foreign language learning, by comparison with phonology, syntax and discourse; much less research has been carried out into vocabulary acquisition in foreign language. Learners of English as a foreign language and also teachers find

difficulty in learning or teaching new words, so the easy available solution is to use their native language to explain these words. Therefore, this research puts the light on this issue and tries to suggest some answers with respect to when, where, and how we can use learners' first language and at the same time to avoid any negative interference.

3. Research questions

In order to attain the objectives of the present investigation, we address the following research questions:

1. Are there similarities between the mother tongue and English as a foreign language?

2. What are the differences between the mother tongue and English as a foreign language?

3. Do foreign language learners of English find difficulty in learning new vocabulary because of the teaching methods of this language skill?

4. Do third year students resort to use the lexis of their mother tongue as a strategy to solve the problem of their poor proficiency in English vocabulary?

4. Hypotheses

We hypothesise that if foreign language learners are aware of the similarities and differences between their mother tongue and the target language, they would not find difficulties in learning the foreign vocabulary that would be reflected in their written production.

5. Aims

The main aim of this study is to demonstrate the usefulness of the native language in order to improve on students' proficiency in the English vocabulary. In addition to this, the present research aims at finding out the similarities that can help English learners and teachers in learning vocabulary and the differences between the two languages that may

prevent them from understanding the real and the intended meaning of the given vocabulary. And also, it seeks the effective methods in teaching and learning English foreign language vocabulary.

6. Methodology

In order to highlight this issue from all its aspects, we believe that descriptive research is the appropriate method which allows us to analyze the data that we will gather in the field work of the study and our data gathering tool are:

6.1. Questionnaire: A questionnaire will be submitted to third year English foreign language students. We will combine close-ended and open-ended questions, in order to analyse their attitudes toward using their mother tongue in learning English foreign language vocabulary.

6.2. Interview: The questions will be planned and managed according to the objectives and the aims of the research work. They will be carried out with different teachers who allow using their students' mother tongue and with other teachers who refuse its interference. We will enquire about their strategies and methods of teaching new vocabularies.

6.3. Classroom Observation: Classroom observation will focus on the written tasks that English foreign language learners perform. We will analyse how they deal with new vocabularies, whether they rely on their mother tongue or on other sources in order to grasp the intended meaning.

7. Population and Sample:

The overall population is third year English foreign language students, nearly 400 students. The researcher is going to select 20% of the population which have chosen randomly, to provide the opportunities for all the informants to participate in the study.

8. Limitation of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate and to analyse the influence of the mother tongue vocabulary in learning English vocabulary among third year students at the University of Mohamed Kheider, Biskra.

At this level, those students have normally reached a high proficiency in the English language. So, they probably have enough experience about English vocabulary (form/meaning). As a result, they can think about the use or not of their native language and can make self comparison between the two language vocabularies.

9. Literature Review

Odlin 1989 asserts that the study of the discourse transfer and the study of semantic transfer partly have attracted many researchers. Since discourse normally consist of sequences of statements, discourse analyses is closely linked to the propositional semantics or the study of meaning in statements, also related to lexical semantics which is the study of meaning in words. Strong relativist claims that language can determine cognitive processing. Although strong position is not acceptable, the weak relativist position is probable; a language may have an important but not total influence on cognition. In certain cases, cultural traditions may encourage or discourage certain types of thinking and those cultural patterns may be reinforced by the structural characteristics of a particular language. It is difficult to learn vocabulary when the two are completely

different such as 'Arabic language 'The abstract vocabulary of Arabic shows Greek influence .Arabic students may hardly understand a word ,this being almost entirely the result of unfamiliarity of the new vocabulary.

Cook (2010) claims that bilingualism and code switching, political and personal importance and the creation of identity are factors behind the use of students own native language in language classroom. A significant paper by Cook argues from SLA and particular pedagogic perspectives for a re-examination of the time honored view that first language should be avoided. Other arguments in favor of own language use concerning the inevitability of code switching and its positive effects on students identity and emotion. Many researchers found code switching to be more frequent than expected even by teachers. They also found that using the new language all the time was considered too much for lower levels. In his studies concluded that exclusive or near exclusive use of the new language is rarely encountered in monolingual classes. Complicating factors are introduced in such studies that there is considerable variation in attitude and use code-switching among teachers from different cultural background and educational traditions. Many authors advocate the use of code switching in language classes as having a positive emotional effects and putting students at ease conveying teacher's empathy and in general Creating a less threatening atmosphere'

Krashen (1981) indicates that for many years, it had assumed that performance of the first language was the cause of syntactic errors in adult second or foreign language performance. Experiential studies of errors made by foreign language students led to the finding that many errors are not noticeable to the structure of the first language but are common to foreign language performance of different linguistic backgrounds. The relevant findings on first language influence are summarized; native language influence appears to be strongest in complex word order and in word for word translation of phrases

(generalization). It is weak in bound morphology, and its impact seems to be powerful in "acquisition poor environment" (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Gillis & Weber; 1976) (as cited in Krashen, 1981). Its influenced errors are also in the part of word order.

Vocabulary learning in a non native language presents a different picture. To begin with, the FL learners are prepared with L1 and have passed the stage of learning. Furthermore, they have learned from their L1 experience how the word works and hence they are unlikely to retrace their L1 route and apply it to foreign language learning. Therefore, Coady and Huckin (1997) develop and analyse different methods like, Grammar translation method, Audio-lingual, Direct method and provide different strategies like using dictionary, guessing, using L1 to teach vocabulary items to foreign language learners. They also deal with different attitudes and suggestions of researchers and scholars about vocabulary as a language aspect.

10. Structure of the Study

The present research is divided into two parts, one is the theoretical part which consists of two chapters, and the other one is the practical part which includes one chapter. In the first chapter, which is devoted to the mother tongue interference, we will discuss about the definition of the mother tongue interference, historical background of the mother tongue issue, levels of the mother tongue interference, views in support of the mother tongue use in English foreign language classes, and views against the mother tongue use in English foreign language classes. In the second chapter, which is devoted to learning foreign language vocabulary, we are going to talk about the description of vocabulary, the importance of teaching vocabulary, methods of teaching vocabulary, and contrastive analysis of the English and the Arabic languages. The last chapter is the practical part in

which we try to describe and analyze the results of the research tools, which are the students' questionnaire, teachers' interview and classroom observation.

Chapter One: Mother Tongue Interference

Introduction

This chapter reconsiders a question that many language teachers and educational researcher discussed which is the influence of a learner's mother tongue in the acquisition of a new language. In fact, the transfer or language interference has long been a controversial issue, but the recent studies support the view that native language interference can have an important impact on the acquisition of a foreign language. Therefore, this chapter investigates five important elements in the field of mother interference issue which are discussed by many researchers. The first element is the definition of mother tongue interference, which it implies a debate on the terms and concepts that refer to mother tongue theme and how researchers and linguist chose particular terms that reflect this theme. The second one is the historical background of the issue which reveals that this subject was neglected and avoided in the past studies. Even the focus on vocabulary was not clearly understood and has been given less importance as composed to recent studies. The third element is the levels of mother tongue interference, which discusses the influence of the native language on all the aspects of the foreign language acquisition, in terms of grammar, phonology, and in semantics. It analyses also the work and the studies of different researchers on these language aspects. The fourth one is the views supporting the use of student's native language in English classrooms. It discusses the views of teachers and educational researchers who support the use of L1 in foreign language classes. The last one deals with views avoiding the use of student's native language in English classrooms, it clarifies the ideas and reasons of teachers and researchers about L1 prevention in the target language classes.

1.1. Definition of Mother Tongue Interference

Mother tongue interference is an expression which is composed of two major significant concepts: Mother tongue and Interference. Many investigations carry out studies that have been built on these two concepts. There is a debate on the term "Mother Tongue", so there is no definite definition about it. Even the term "Interference", is used referring to other concepts such as transfer, cross-linguistic influences and language mixing, Before defining 'Mother Tongue Interference', we would propose an overview of definitions of both concepts separately in order to shed the light on the deep meaning that they bear when they are combined.

1.1.1.   Definition of Mother Tongue

A first language (also native language, father/mother tongue, arterial language or L1) is a language that a person has been exposed to from birth or within the critical period. If there are multiple L1, the designation 'First language' is used for L1 spoken the best or the one that is the basis for sociolinguistic identity. In some countries, the term native language or mother tongue implies more than one native language; they are bilingual communities. By mother tongue we understand that linguists usually refer to as L1, that is the language first acquired by a child and the first one to form expressions developed from the language Acquisition Device posited by Chomsky (1957). It may, however, also be the preferred language in multilingual situation, which presupposes a choice made from two systems or more.

1.1.2.   Definition of Interference

It is a noun, an act, fact or instance of interfering. Something that interferes. In linguistics (in bilingualism and foreign language learning), it is the overlapping of two languages, in other words it is the deviation from the norms of either language in such a

situation. From those definitions we can notice that mother tongue interference may have two aspects positive or negative interference (New Cultural Literacy Dictionary, 2005).

1.1.3. Definition of Mother Tongue Interference

Mother Tongue Interference is known as language transfer, L1 interference, and linguistic interference, and cross meaning. It refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their mother tongue to a second language. Dulay (1982) defines interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Lott (1983, p. 256) defines interference as "errors in the learner's use of foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue". Ellis (1997, p. 51) refers to interference as "Transfer", which he says is "the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of L2. He argues that transfer is governed by learner's perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker, 1971; Seligar, 1988; Ellis, 1997) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible.

Odlin (1989) asserts that when an individual's understanding of one language has an impact on his or her understanding of another language; the individual is experiencing language transfer. There can be negative transfer, when the understanding of one language complicates the understanding of another language. Alternatively, there can be positive transfer such that knowing one language can aid in developing skills for second language. Interference is the effect of language learners' first language on their production of the language they are learning. It means that the speaker's first language influences his/her second or foreign language.

The effect can be on any aspect of language, grammar, vocabulary, accent, spelling and others. Language interference is considered as one of error sources, negative transfer, although where the relevant feature of both languages is the same it results in correct language production (positive transfer).The greater differences between the two languages, the more negative effects of interference are likely to be. It will inevitably occur in any situation where someone has not proficiency in second language. Corder (1967) indicates one method in which interference can be recast as 'learner strategy'. He suggests that the learner's L1 may facilitate the development process of learning L2, by helping him to progress more rapidly along the universal route when L1 is similar to the L2. Krashen (1981) suggests that learners can use the L1 to initiate utterances when they do not have sufficient acquired knowledge of the target language.

The relationship between the two languages must then be considered. Albert and Obler (1978) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) state that people show more lexical interference or similar items. So it may follow that, languages with more similar structures (e.g. English and French) are more susceptible to mutual interference than languages with fewer similarities features (e.g. English and Japanese or Arabic). On the other hand, we might also expect more learning difficulties and thus more likehood of performance interference at those points in L2 which are more distant from L1, as the learner would find it difficult to understand completely new different usage. Hence the learner would resort to L1 structures for help (Dulay, 1982).

Mother tongue interference can be seen as when we confront with something new, whether it is new food, a different kind of music, or just new information. It is natural instinct to look for similarities with things that are familiar, to try to draw some comparison with what we know already. We bring what we know to what we do not, making it impossible to learn anything entirely from scratch. This is certainly true when we

set about learning a foreign language. Interference may be viewed as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997) (as cited in Odlin, 1989). They define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation, and speech sounds from the first language influencing the second. Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another. Orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another (Skiba, 1997). As a learning process, transfer supports the learners' selection and remodeling of input structures as they progress in the development of their interlanguage knowledge. As a production process, transfer is involved in the learner's retrieval of his knowledge and in his efforts to bridge linguistically those gaps in his knowledge which cannot be side-stepped by avoidance (Cohen, 1986, p. 22; Swan, 1985).

Weinreich (1968) claims that the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism and the person involved Bilingual. Those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of language contact will be referred to Interference phenomena of the speech, and their impact on the norms of either language exposed to contact, that invite the interest of the linguist. The term interference implies the rearrangement of patterns that result from the introduction of foreign elements in the more highly structured domains of language, such as the bulk of the phonemic system, a large part of morphology and syntax, and some areas of vocabulary, borrowing or more additions to an inventory. In more loosely patterned domains of a language, some of syntax, or vocabulary of an incidental nature, borrowing might more

probably be spoken of when the transfer of an element as such is to be stressed. But even there the possibility of ensuring the rearrangement in the patterns, or interference, cannot be excluded.

Odlin (1989) referred to interference as language transfer. He mentioned that many linguists to deal with the impact of mother tongue in learning English foreign language, they use the terms Transfer, Interference, influence, and Cross linguistic influence. The terminology to study language reflects and creates vexing problems. The issue of cross-linguistic influence is controversial with or without the term, but the long standing use of the term transfer lead to different opinions. Some scholars have advocated abandoning the term transfer or using it only in highly restricted ways (Corder, 1983; Kellerman & Smith 1986) (as cited in Odlin, 1989). Transfer is not a consequence of habit formation. A discussion of contrastive analysis and behaviourism by Caroll (1968) makes clear that the behaviourist notion of transfer is quite different from the notion of native language influence. The behaviourist notion of transfer often implies the extinction of earlier habits; whereas the acquisition of a second language does not lead to any replacement of the learner's primary language. This and other considerations suggest that behaviourism may never have been relevant to the study of transfer, even though behaviourism has contributed little to the study of language interference since 1970.

Odlin (1989) asserts that transfer is not simply interference. Despite the behaviourist view of language contact, the notion of interference seems to be applicable in the description of some aspects of second language performance, such as phonetic inaccuracies that look like sounds in the learner's native language. Then the term interference continues to be widely used. The influence of the native language can be very helpful, especially when the differences between the two languages are relatively few. For instance, the number of Spanish-English cognates (e.g. public and público) is far greater than the

number of Arabic-English cognates. Native speaker of Spanish have great advantage over native speakers of Arabic in English vocabulary acquisition. The term Interference implies no more than another term, negative transfer does, but there is an advantage in using it with positive transfer, in which it facilitates influence of cognate vocabulary or any other similarities between the native and the target languages.

Transfer is not simply a falling back on the native language. In an elaboration of an analysis originally proposed in 1960s; Krashen and Terrel (1983, p.148) claim that:

> Transfer . . . can still be regarded as padding, or the result of falling back
>
> on old language, the L1 rule, when new knowledge . . . is lacking. Its
>
> cause may simply be having to talk before ready; before the necessary
>
> rule has been acquired . . . that the use of L1 rule . . . is not real progress.
>
> It may be merely a production strategy that cannot help acquisition

Analysing transfer as simply 'falling back' faces many problems; it disregards the head start that speakers of some languages have similarities to a new language (Singleton 1987). For instance, the similarities in vocabulary, writing systems, and other aspects of English and Spanish reduce the amount that may be utterly new in English for Spanish speakers in comparison with Arabic speakers. Krashen (1981) implies that native language influence is always marked in some transparent L1 rule. But, native language interference can interact with other influences so that sometimes there is no precise connection between learners' native language patterns and their attempts to use the target language. He also claims that the transfer or any interference is simply "a production strategy" which fails to recognize that cross-linguistic can be helpful in listening or reading comprehension.

Despite the problematic terms that are used among linguist and researchers, mother tongue interference occurs from a learner's conscious or unconscious result that some elements in the native language and some elements in the target language are related. This

issue of similarities and differences between two or more languages remains unclearly understood among linguist and researchers. In addition, the two concepts acquisition and learning are not clearly well defined by scholars. However, lot of studies and models have been carried out on second language acquisition, without a definitive model to agree with (Ellis, 1985).

1.2. Historical background of Mother Tongue Issue

Language interference starts with the work of the American linguist in 1940s and 1950s. It is a controversy issue in the nineteenth century. Among linguists the works of Fries (1945), Lado (1957) and others were important and significant. Language is learned in contact situation; it may or not share some kind of language mixing, that is, the merging of characteristics of the two or more languages in any verbal communication. The native language influence can be one of the possible forms that take place in the contact languages. Borrowing can be also a form of mixing from foreign language to the native language (e.g. the use of English speakers of loanwords like 'croissant' from French to describe a kind of pastries). Other forms can take place such as code switching in which there is a systematic interchange of words: phrases, and sentences of two or more languages (Odlin, 1989).

Speakers in a verbal communication may show some kind of awareness of language mixing, although they are not familiar with the concepts of transfer, interference, or code switching. For example, the Indians in Vaupés region of the Amazon rain forest, there is a keen conscious of the mixing that is clear in their Multilanguage (Sorenson 1967; Jackson 1974) (as cited in Odlin, 1989). And this awareness may have started from prehistory. People often show different attitudes when they belong to different social groups. And the language that they use determines and differentiates the groups. Therefore, it does not

come by chance that the names of languages designate ethnic groups (e.g. Chinese, Navajo, and English). Besides, any borrowing or language mixing is considered as a kind of a 'Linguistic intrusion' or as a 'foreign import' and it may be accepted or refused (Tabouret Keller, 1985) (as cited in Odlin, 1989). For example, the Indian Vaupé do not show significant from language mixing, it is not welcome to use words from other languages.

There is a historical record of people associating language contact and mixing with contamination (Silvestri, 1977; Thomason, 1981(as cited in Odlin, 1989). The major one of those associations were scholarly debate in Renaissance Europe about the relation between Latin and vernacular languages. However, some schools have worked before the nineteenth century, and their claims about language contact and mixing was rather indefinable. They presented few remarks about loanwords, a little decision about the features of the nature of cross linguistic influences or examples of their impacts. Then, the debate and emphasis on language contact and mixing increased in the nineteenth century. In this period, linguists have been interested in two major issues: language classification and language change. The stable structures of grammars of language play an important role in distinguishing and classifying human languages.

Many scholars agree that grammar is the major element that can differentiate languages. On the contrary, lexical borrowing often makes classification of languages more difficult. Consequently, linguists find that the grammar is the only sub-system that is unaffected by other language systems. For example, Muller (1965) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) notices that many elements of loanwords from Latin, French, and other languages are used in English, but he considered the English language grammar to be untouchable from cross linguistic influence or any other interference. He claims that grammar is the blood and the soul of a language and it is pure and unmixed.

Many researchers believe that the uniqueness of grammar is related to the assumptions of the tree model of language transfer, in which languages are seen like a family tree. For example they considered Latin as the parent language and French, Spanish, Rumanian, and other Romance tongues as the daughters. Thus, the languages of the same origins may share elements, and this can help students in leaning the target language vocabulary, whereas languages with different origins like Arabic and English can have many differences that can be an obstacle in learning the target language.

This became clearer and evident with the study of Pidgin and Creole, and it was intensified at the end of the nineteenth century. Beside the research on the Pidgins and Creoles, the analyses increased in the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries and demonstrated the importance and significance of cross linguistic interference. Weinreich (1968) used the term Interference to cover any case of transfer. His study of bilingualism demonstrates that the effects of cross linguistic influence are not monolithic but depend on the social context of languages. These effects are known by 'borrowing transfer or substratum transfer' (Thomason & Kaufman, 1988).

1.3. Levels of Mother Tongue Interference

1.3.1. Grammatical Interference

According to Odlin (1989), there is a debate on the systematic interference in languages. Although; there is lack of cross linguistic influence in some studies, many researchers have shown significance proof and remarks for positive transfer including articles and other syntactic structures. However, others have indicated negative interference on syntactic structures as in the Hebrew-English verb phrase (e.g. He's after telling a lie). Many studies, on the interference of languages, have been dealt with word order, relative clause, and negation. There are numerous studies and investigations that

focus on learners' word order pattern. The research on second or foreign language order is beneficial not only for good comprehension of interference but also for understanding of the discourse, syntactic typology, and also other elements that may influence the foreign language acquisition.

The majority of human languages have VSO, SVO, or SOV as their fundamental word order. Most of languages can be compared according to this word order system. For example, Russian and English languages have SVO as their essential word order, but they differ in terms of 'rigidity' (i.e. unable to change). The following example of Russian sentences by Thompson (1978) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) has shown different word order as comparing it with English translation that has SVO order:

Kolja   Kupil   mašinu   Kolya bought the car (neutral)

Kolya   bought   car

 S   V   O

Kolja   mašinu   Kupil   Kolya BOUGHT the car

S   O   V

Kupil   Kolja   mašinu   kolya did buy the car

V   S   O

Kupil   mašinu   kolya   KOLYA bought the car

V   O   S

Mašinu   Kolja   Kupil   The car, kolya BOUGHT it

 O   S   V

Mašinu   Kupil   Kolja   The car, it was kolya who bought it

 O   V   S

This example shows the flexibility of Russian word order. The form of "mašinu" indicates the syntactic part of direct object with other forms like "mašina", which can mark the role the subject. Also, it shows the relaying on bound morphology which can be viewed

in languages that have flexible word order. According to Thompson (1978) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) and other researchers, the relative rigidity of word order is significant typological property, VSO, SVO, and SOV languages can be classified according to the rigidity of their word order. This table can illustrate the language differences on word order:

Language	Word order	Rigidity / flexibility
Irish	VSO	Rigid
Biblical Hebrew	VSO	Flexible
English	SVO	Rigid
Russian	SVO	Flexible
Persian	SOV	Rigid
Turkish	SOV	Flexible
Arabic	VSO	Flexible

Table 1: Language differences on word order

The degree of rigidity or flexibility also can be varied between languages. Irish language may be more rigid than English, Russian may be more flexible than Spanish (Filppula, 1986). The categories of rigidity or flexibility have raised more important syntactic differences between languages and especially in the process of foreign language acquisition. Speakers of flexible languages can have opportunities of using several word orders in English although English word order is rigid. So, rigidity can be seen as language transferable property. The study of Granfors and Palmberg (1976) show the significant errors in English word order by native speakers of Finnish as a flexible SVO language. This example shows a negative transfer: This weekend got F any fish (This weekend F caught no fish). This negative transfer is due to the flexibility of Finnish word order. On the other hand, native speakers of Swedish have made less error because of the rigidity of Swedish language word order. Trévise (1986) (as cited in Odlin, 1989)suggests cases that can be a sign of the flexibility of French word order, for example: I think it's very good the analysis between the behaviour of animals and the person.

Comprehension studies have also demonstrated the significance of rigidity word order (Gilson, 1985). Gilson (1985) studies point out that the difficulties on comprehension, which the English speakers learning Spanish face, are due to the flexibility of Spanish word order. However, rigid word order may be beneficial in the understanding and in the production of the foreign language by the younger learners in some cases. Many studies indicate the importance of rigid word order, as an advantage factor for its facilitation of the language processing routines (Clahsen, 1984). Flexibility word order can be seen as another advantage in the discourse conditions. The flexibility of word order in the learners' use of foreign language can reflect discourse constraints in their native language and also may be found in all languages.

Beside studies on word order that reflect differences and similarities between languages, there are some research that suggest important relations between the location of words and phrases in a clause and the place of clauses in a sentence. Kuno (1974) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) has studied the tendency in VSO languages for relative clauses to follow the noun. This may be clear to compare English (SVO) with Japanese (SOV) as it is shown in this example:

The cheese that the rat ate was rotten
Nesumi ga tabeta cheese wa kusatte ita
Rat   ate   cheese   rotten was

This example shows the difference between English and Japanese syntax. The SVO order of English may constrain the use of relative clauses following the subject of the main clause. This may lead to the difficulties in comprehension. Comparing with Japanese context, the Japanese language does not lead to centre-embedding with relative clause. Those kinds of differences in comprehension can lead to the 'branched directions'. Thus, English language relies on the 'Right Branching Direction' (RBD), in which the relative

clauses can be seen in the right of the head of a noun as it is clear in the above example. While Japanese depends on the 'Left Branching Direction' (LBD).

Many studies suggest that principles of branching directions of the two languages (the native and the foreign languages) can show difficulties or facilities in the acquisition of languages syntax. When two languages demonstrate difficulties in branching directions, the understanding of the target language will be more difficult than with languages that they have the same branching directions. Flynn (1984) has a greater success in the analysis of the Spanish speaker language. She shows that Spanish, like English, is an RBD language (Right Branching Direction). When LBD is predominant in L1 of the students, the acquisition of the RBD of English is more difficult (Flynn & Espinal, 1985).

The differences in branching directions may be clearer in under production (Schachter, 1974) (as cited in Odlin, 1989). According to Schachter's studies, the speaker of Japanese and Chinese, which they are considered as LBD languages, often do not use relative clauses in their written compositions; while students who speak Arabic and Persian, which are considered as RBD languages like English, used varied relative clauses. Despite the great number of errors that the Arabic and Persian speakers may produce in using relative clauses, this gives them more opportunities to produce more sentences with relative constructions.

1.3.2. Phonological Interference

The native language is a major influential factor in the phonetic and the phonological patterns of the foreign language. Languages have mixed and varied sounds, some are shared between many languages and some sounds are limited to specific languages. Although, there is no specific vowel or consonant phoneme found in every language, some sounds are common. For example, the sounds /i/, /u/, and /a/ which appeared in 250

languages, the bilabial /m/ appeared in approximately 300 languages, and the voiced bilabial stop /b/ is found in nearly 200 languages. Whereas, some sounds are not common, for example the German /x/ found in 76 languages and the German /ts/ in 46 languages (Maddieson, 1984).

Beside the importance of the aspect of languages such as phonology and syntax, the writing system has also a significant role in the acquisition of foreign languages; it holds the relationship that exists between pronunciation and writing. Moreover, it reflects the sound patterns in a language and shows the familiarity with the phonetic and phonology of the two languages being compared. Therefore, the negative transfer may be clear in misspelling which originated not in the native language orthography but in the native language pronunciation. So, literacy includes more than just the ability to encode or decode the symbols used in writing systems. Successful reading and writing also need a good mastery of encoding and decoding skills. However, these skills must be enriched with awareness of systems of those symbols (Odlin, 1989). Thus, learners should be aware of and recognize the association between letters and phonemes. Scribner and Cole (1981) suggest that to learn a syllabic system such as the Vai script used in West Africa, one must be aware of association between written symbols and syllables. And to become literate in a so-called ideographic system such as Chinese, one must recognize the correspondences between written and symbols and morphemes (Coulmas, 1983).

Pedagogical practice shows that the more similarities in writing systems of the two languages, the less time and efforts learners will spend to develop their encoding and decoding skills. For example, Spanish and English are very similar in their writing systems. In contrast, Chinese and English have different writing systems. Therefore, the similarities that appear in two languages which have the same alphabet play a great role in reducing time to become literate in the target language. Also, difficulties may appear in the

spelling, for example, Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) mention examples of misspelling which are caused by the cognate status of words in English, as a target language in their investigation, and words in the learners' native language. So, speakers of Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese spelled the word 'comfort' as 'confort', because of the cognate form in all these languages uses 'n' instead of "m".

In addition to the spelling convention, pronunciation is also an important element. For example, English makes phonemic distinction between the sounds /p/ and /b/, but in Arabic speakers do not. Following this example, Jordanian learners of English as a second language make errors such as: blaying, bicture, and bombous, which is primarily due to the influence of Arabic as native language (Ibrahim, 1978). On the other hand, the results of many investigations indicate many errors that learners of a foreign language produce are due to the overgeneralization. The English language has an orthography particularly difficult for native as well as non native speakers. Many errors reflects the idiosyncrasies of the system; therefore, the errors that are produced by English foreign language students are most of the time the same to those made by native speakers, like in 'tought', instead of 'taught' and 'sleaping' instead of "sleeping" (Ibrahim, 1978).

The comparison of sounds in two languages should involve both description of the phonetics and phonology of the native and the target language (Briére, 1968). Description of the phonetics is very important because the sounds of the two languages show different physical features. For example, the pitch of the sound and the articulatory features show how widely the mouth is open in pronouncing a sound. For instance, the American English sound /d/ to compare it with Saudi Arabia sound /d/ shows several differences (Flege, 1980). The distinction of an English /d/ at the end of a word, as in bad, seems to be shorter than in the Arabic language. The Saudi students' pronunciation of English /d/ seems to be more longer than the English sound norm. In addition, Fledge (1980) in his analysis

suggests that students are able to make their pronunciation come closer to the pronunciation and sounds of the target language norms. However, this change will not often lead them to be like native speakers, but to be in "approximations" which is neither native nor target. This case indicates the significance of the learners' unconscious judgments, which are primarily influenced by learners' knowledge of their native language and how the phonetic system is structured in the target language.

The differences in the pronunciation of the sound /d/between the two languages Arabic and English show the learners' identification and also the significant similarities in "interlingual" identification (Slinker, 1972). The interlingual identifications are the attempts of the learners to create the correspondences relations between the native and the target languages. The set of relations implied in the phonemic system can be another factor that influences Interlingual identifications. Scholes (1968) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) in his study of vowels by native and non native speakers of English suggests classifying foreign language sound in terms of the phonemic inventory of the native language. In his work, native speakers can differentiate between the vowels /e/ and /æ/ (e.g. rain and ran), but speakers of Russian and Greek cannot. Persian speakers can distinguish between these two vowels /e/ and /æ/. Spanish language has a nasal consonant /n/, which is like the English sound /n/. The Spanish sound /n/ occurs, like English /n/, at the end of the word. So, the Spanish speakers of English will not find difficulties in the pronunciation of this sound (e.g. ran), but they may find some difficulties in making the difference between the sounds /n/ and /ŋ/ like in the word 'fang' (Marckwardt, 1946) (as cited in Odlin, 1989).

Other evidence which shows that learners can identify sounds different from the sounds of their native language is the phonetic mimicry. Native speakers of English imitate the Spanish accents and they can produce sounds often near the Spanish vowels and consonants (Flege & Hammond, 1982). The phonetic sensitivity is evident among the

learners of a foreign language, which can show their identification. Speakers of Japanese and Korean for example, they may found difficulties in pronunciation and in making the difference between the sounds /l/ and /r/ in English which they do not have phonemic distinction (e.g. lice and rice). However, learners can show success and efforts in performing pronunciation closer and similar to the target language which is kind of awareness of the differences between the native and the target language norms (Flege, 1980).

1.3.3. Semantic Interference

A major and central issue in dealing with semantic transfer or interference is the relation between language and thought. The expression "learning to think in French" explains the belief that learning a particular language should involve its characteristics and its norms. It reflects that learners are still using their native language as a reference for cognitive activities and also explains how language and thought are related (Whorf, 1956). In addition, this leads to the question in which extent native language semantics structures can affect and influence the learners' performance in foreign language. Some researchers indicate that cross-linguistic differences in structures can reflect the differences in thinking.

Beside the differences in thought patterns of people among different speech communities, there is some evidence of universals in cognition human reasoning processes may show significant similarities in empirical cultural research. For instance, the study of Hamill (1978) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) of reasoning in conversation in Mende (a West African language) and in English demonstrated that there were a few cross-cultural variations in either success or failure in reasoning. A speaker in both languages showed an awareness of such basic logical rules as contradictions: that is, if a preposition "x" is true, a negative of the same proposition (i.e., not "x") must be false. For instance, Paris is the

capital of France and Paris is not the capital of France, cannot be both correct. In Hamill's investigation, English speakers and Mende speakers use the same rules in both suitable and fallacious interpretations of sequences of statements (Hutchins, 1981). Another important source of differences is possibly the form of education that children obtain (Scribner & Cole, 1981).

Differences also lead to the contrastive analysis and linguistic variations. Lot of researchers have signalled that differences in thought are related to the language differences as instrument for voicing ideas but rather than is itself the shaper of ideas, the program Whorf (1956, p. 213) states:

> The background linguistic system (in other words grammar) of each language
> is not merely a reproducing and the guide for individual's mental activity,
> for his analysis of impressions, for this synthesis of his mental stock in
> trade formalisation of ideas is not an independent process, strictly rational in the
> old sense ,but it is part of a particular grammar, and differs, from slightly to
> greatly, between different grammars. We dissect nature along lines laid down
> by our native language. The categories and the types that we isolate from the
> world of phenomena we do not find there because they stare every observer in
> the face; in the contrary, the world is presented in a kaleidoscopic flux
> of impressions which has to be organized by our minds and this means largely
> by the linguistic system in our minds.

Many elements in this passage show the support of relativist position, which claims that languages can determine cognitive processes. But, many scholars have noticed that this determined position can reflect many problems, for instance, if the individual's languages and thoughts patterns were totally different, as the relativist claims, the acquisition of the foreign language might be impossible. Some language speakers found themselves unable to learn some patterns of the foreign language because of the different structures in their

native language or in the foreign language. This difficulty referred to by linguists and scholars as "the acquisition barrier" between speakers of different languages (Bloomfield, 1981).

In some cases cultural traditions may encourage or discourage some types of thinking and those cultural and social elements can be reinforced by the structural characteristics of a specific language. Comparing the English and Chinese, Bloomfield (1981) claims that Chinese are perfect in speaking about imaginary situations of affairs, although the syntactic structure of Chinese language does not clearly encode some semantic differences that are linked to unreality, whereas English verb system can do. For example, if you burned your finger, it would hurt and if you had burned your finger, it would have hurt.

Lot of teachers and linguist believe that differences and similarities in word forms and in word meaning have a major part in learning a foreign language. For example, in the French language the word "justifier" and in English "justify". This example of similarities between French and English may help French learners to study English in the acquisition of English vocabulary. In the comparison of difficulties that speakers face in learning the European and oriental languages, Sweet (1972) claims that:

> Mastery of vocabulary of most European languages means simply
>
> learning to recognize a number of old friends under slight disguises,
>
> and making a certain efforts to learn residue of unrecognizable words,
>
> which, however, offer less difficulty than they otherwise would
>
> through being imbedded in a context of familiar words. The higher
>
> vocabulary of science, art and abstract thought hardly requires to be learnt
>
> at all; for it so consists either of Latin and Greek terms common to most
>
> European languages or translations of them (p. 65).

It is very different with a remote disconnected language such as Arabic or Chinese. The abstract vocabulary of Arabic shows Greek influence, although this affords very little

practical help, but the terminology of Chinese philosophy and science is independent of western influence, so that every extension of vocabularies requires a special effort memory and reasoning. The task of mastering such languages is factually an endless one. Sweet (1972) also indicates that:

> Enough Arabic grammar for reading purposes is soon acquired, the construction
>
> being always perfectly simple at least in ordinary prose, but the student may read
>
> one class of texts for many years, and a word, this being almost entirely the result
>
> of unfamiliarity of new vocabulary required then, when he proceeds to another
>
> branch of literature, he may find that he can hardly understood (p. 64).

Sweet's analyses explain the effects of lexical similarities. Comparing the Finnish and Swedish speaking students on a ESL test, Sjöholm (1976) (as cited in Odlin, 1989) observed that the Finnish group did not do well as the Swedish group on vocabulary questions. This is due to the fact that Finnish language is not similar to the cognate vocabulary of English like the Swedish language. Another similar study in the United States by Ard and Homburg (1983) compared the performance of ESL students who speak two different native languages: Arabic and Spanish. The speakers of Spanish have more lexical similarities with English, so they were more successful in understanding the vocabulary questions (e.g. exiled and exildo). Ard and Homburg (1983) do not only observe the benefits of recognizing similar cognates that Spanish speakers have in learning English as a good advantage, but they also present another advantage which is that Spanish speakers will have more time and opportunities to think on the other unfamiliar vocabulary.

Despite the advantages of common lexicon between two languages, there is a problem that faces many language students and teachers which is "false friends". For example, the French word 'prévenir' and English 'prevent' are not like the previous example (justifier

and justify). In French, 'prévenir', means 'to warn', so the words 'prévenir' and 'prevent' are pitfalls for English learners of French and for French learners of English (Holmes, 1977). False friends can be seen as one of the most common problem and difficulty that may face foreign language learners. Another example between English and Spanish, the English word 'succeed' can be 'suceder' in Spanish. For example, Truman sucedeió Roosevelt (i.e.Truman succeeded Roosevelt) is acceptable Spanish, sucedeió en su trabajo (i.e. he succeeded in his work) is not (Anthony, 1952). Consequently, negative lexical transfer may appear when there are no similarities in morphology between the native and the foreign language, and they do not semantically correspondent in some context. As it is shown in this example, the following error is made by Finnish students: he bit himself in the language, in Finnish language; they have only the word, kieli, is referred for both 'tongue' and 'language' (Ringbom, 1986) (as cited in Odlin, 1989).

Research on contrastive lexical semantics demonstrates that recognition of cognates is often problematic. Students cannot always notice the formal similarities that show cognate relation and may not believe that there is a real cognate relationship. Ard and Homburg (1983) claim that much of the advantages in lexical similarities are more obvious in reading comprehension, for example, Spanish speaking students can be exposed to written texts with great lexical varieties earlier and can do better that Arabic speaking learners.

1.4. Views in Support of Mother Tongue Use in English Foreign Language Classes

According to Cook (2010), changes in the concepts of code-switching and the awareness in political and personal importance in the creation and the building of students' identity lead to the group of interest in ELT and in applied linguistic literature in the language classroom. Many researchers consider the mother tongue as an educational tool that has positive and major impact on learning the classical languages and should be called

the mother tongue languages, and any new language can be only based on it. Many recent studies and research support the use of L1; they encourage translation and provide more supportive environment for it. Some researchers support the use of students' mother tongue as has a positive effect on student identity and emotion. So, in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language, Adden Dorff (1996), writing on South African high schools, Camilleri (1996) on Maltese secondary schools, Cromdal (2005) on collaborative word processing in fourth-grade class in Sweden (as cited in Cook, 2010) noticed that using L1 in language classroom provides a sense of class unity and shared identity. First language use may also increase learners' motivation and success (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

Many teachers encourage the use of their students' native language, for example, Arthur (1996) in Botswana primary schools, Rolin-Ianziti and Browlie (2002) in beginner French classes at Australian university, Kim and Elder (2005) in lessons in four different languages in New Zealand secondary schools, Edstrom (2006) and Polio and Duff (1994) in US university level foreign language teaching (as cited in Cook, 2010). According to Mitchell (1988), in US schools, the use of the target language was not helpful for the students who show lower level in acquiring the language. Hobbs's (2010) (as cited in Cook, 2010) study shows significant variation in the attitudes of the use of the first language among teachers from different cultural background and educational norms. For example, teachers of Japanese in British secondary schools have positive attitudes about using their own language.

Cook (2010) argues that lot of authors show the importance of L1 use in classrooms and advocate its use explicitly or implicitly in language classes for different reasons. Nikula (2007) (as cited in cook 2010), in language classes in Finland considers that L1 use can have a positive emotional effect. Ferguson (2003) encourages the extensive use of L1 in English, French, and Portuguese as foreign languages in medium classes. He emphasizes

the necessity of being more exploited by foreign language planners and should be considered as a communicative and pedagogical source. In the study of Lin (1996) (as cited in Cook, 2010), in Cantonese secondary English classes in Hong Kong, he states that teachers and students local pragmatic performance related to the symbolic power of English language in Hong Kong. He also believes that the native language use can provide learners with psychological and social assistance and also it can build a good relationship between the home and the school environment. Fabrício and Santos (2006) show how students in Brazilian high school are supported to mix English as a foreign language with Portuguese as the native language and to see it in a social context. Canagarajah (1999) (as cited in Cook, 2010) with respect to Tamil speakers in Sri Lanka learning English language as a target language observes that teachers and students switch to their own language to talk about issues related to their local events. He asserts that L1 can assist in making students at ease, spreading teacher sympathy, and reduce threats in classroom environment. Also Prodromou (2002) (as cited in Cook, 2010) suggests that the use of L1 of the students can help and presents advantages in learning the target language. He states that the first language can enrich the quality and quantity of the interaction in the foreign language in the classroom.

Levine (2003) has analysed the attitudes and the beliefs about the foreign languages in universities. She primarily hypotheses that lot of code switching would make students feel anxious, but the results come to be the opposite of her assumption. She found that the use of students own language provides less anxiety. In the other hand, Fisk-Ong (2003) (as cited in Cook, 2010) has suggested a survey in which gathering views of teachers on the use of students own language and translation in eighteen countries. His survey indicated that some teachers have an opposite view and others show guilty support on the use of L1

in their classes. Most of the convincing arguments concerning students' use of their first language are not based on experimental studies but on just theoretical approaches.

Cook (2001) claims that: "That is time to open a door that has been firmly shut in language teaching for over 100 years, namely the systematic use of the first language in the classroom" (p. 403). He also notices that teachers use the L1 only when they give advice and instruction to the students. Cook (2001) and other researchers followed some pedagogical arguments in which using L1 as a means of explanation, checking understanding, classroom organization, maintenance of discipline, building relations, and helping in testing the students. Besides, Widdowdon (2003) (as cited in Cook, 2010) suggests that psychological, pedagogical, and political perspectives on the use of learners' own language can be used as a resource in teaching the target language.

ButzKamm (2003) sees that we use L1 in thinking and we use L2 in communication. So, the mother tongue can constitute a basis for the target language learning and provides a supporting system in the foreign language acquisition. In support and encouragement of the mother tongue use, in Times Educational Supplement (1975), a language lecturer at York University, has inspired all the presenters with 50 participants, teaching Italian courses. She breaks every rule, she translates every word and phrase, she mixes lot of grammar rules, and her students repeat after her phrases and answers (ButzKamm, 2003). Also, with the mother tongue use, there are carefully bilingual methods like Curran's Counseling Approach (1952) and Suggestopedia Approach which they work as alternative methods for teaching foreign language for younger learners (as cited in ButzKamm, 2003).

However, the success of achieving the course objectives is not only due to the direct translation or the use of the students' mother tongue but also that it is more related to the energetic and good humoured personality of the lecturer in the York University and to her

careful planning. Moreover, it is the friendly and the comfortable atmosphere that is created by Suggestopedia techniques, which often use music and other aesthetic aspects (ButzKamm, 2003).

ButzKamm (2003) claims that the opposing attitudes and the rejection of the use of L1 have led to the emergence of the publication of Dodson's ground breaking works language teaching and bilingual method in 1967. Dodson suggested a new bilingual method which is based on controlled experiments on teaching foreign languages. His work constituted an obvious attack on the prohibition of the mother tongue use. Therefore, Dodson's work have motivated many researchers from different countries, and bilingual techniques were considered to be more effective and useful compared to monolingual ones.

Most of researchers and especially teachers are confused and hesitant between the use or the avoidance of the students mother tongue in English language classrooms. In fact, ButzKamm (2003) presents a theory which values the role of the mother tongue. He claims that the native language interferes in all the subjects of foreign language learning and it should be used systematically and in an organized way. He also states that every new language is confronted with an already existing one which is the mother tongue. He claims that the belief that we do not learn any language by using another one urges him to build this mother tongue's use theory.

Indeed, Butzkamm's (2003) procedure can be summarized in the following ten maxims:

1. The foreign language learning should be based on existing skills and knowledge acquired through the mother tongue.
2. Relying on techniques in checking understanding and meaning related exclusively to the foreign language without referring to the mother tongue can be very harmful.

3. Mother tongue assistance can help in controlling the whole class, in gaining learners' confidence, and to be less reliant on their mother tongue when they have enough knowledge on FL.

4. Mother tongue aids can help learners to be involved in authentic communication.

5. MT techniques permit and help teachers to use more authentic texts, provide more comprehensible input and faster acquisition that leads to time saving.

6. Bilingual techniques help teachers in dealing with grammatical progression of text books. Mother tongue grammatical system can have benefits on learning grammar of the foreign language.

7. Good association between the new and the native language is needed. The well directed use of the lexical and syntactic equivalents between the mother tongue and the European foreign languages provide good understanding of the similarities and differences between languages and cultures.

8. Avoiding mother tongue use in foreign language classrooms cannot be possible, it is an endless attempt, but it can be reduced.

9. The use of the mother tongue may be undesirable according to the monolingual view. However, learners cannot understand the difficult words or phrases by the native speakers.

10. We should notice that we have the same mind and thinking that manipulate different systems of different languages.

1.4.1. Methods Linking between MT and FL

1.4.1.1. New Concurrent Method

We have observed that many teachers and researchers give a permission license to the use of mother tongue in their classes, and also consider the students' native language as a

pedagogical technique that should be used. Indeed, this method gives L1 a positive and effective role in the acquisition of the foreign language. Jacobson (1990) (as cited in Cook, 2001) suggests that, within this method, teachers can switch to the first language of the students only when they explain or teach specific rules or very important concepts. For example, in teaching English to Spanish speakers, the teacher may use the students' L1only when they explain difficult concepts, they notice difficulties in comprehension, or they praise or punish their students. Teachers, in this approach, may use Spanish when they revise a lesson, then they may switch to English to explain the rest of the lecture.

The concurrent method considers code switching as a normal FL activity or task in the acquisition of English as a foreign language. This approach makes the native and foreign language work in a concurrent way in language classroom, whereas the monolingual approach emphasizes only the target language. Jacobson's study shows that the shifting to the first language is just reflection of real life situation.

At the beginning of the lesson, teacher and students may use their L1 to explain and to interpret vocabulary items that they do not know. Cook (2001) presents this example: "Je am having difficulté with this learning activité" (p. 412). In this example 'Franglais' association, he shows use of the two languages in the same classroom, and after two weeks the teacher's talking time is at least 50% in French. So, code switching occurs with the same sentence rather than between sentences as shown in Jacobson's (1990) proposal (as cited in Cook, 2001). Consequently, the role that L1 plays in concurrent teaching is to encourage the acquisition of the foreign language through reflection of the natural and realistic situation in FL communication.

1.4.1.2. Community Language Learning

Curran (1976) asserts that, at the beginning, students use their own language to refer to things, phrases or words and the teacher translates every word and phrase in the target language that should be repeated by students. So, students can hear the words in the native language and in foreign languages. In processing in a progressive way, students would acquire more items in the foreign language that will lead them to reduce the reliance on L1 translation. CLL techniques make L1 as a tool for interpreting the meaning of the whole sentences in the target language.

1.4.1.3. Dodson's Bilingual Method

Dodson (1967) suggests that this method entails that the teacher reads sentences using the foreign language loudly in several time and gives their meaning in the students' native language. He emphasizes to call this technique interpretation rather than translation, which means to give the intended meaning of the sentences. Then, students imitate their teacher's speech, by repeating the sentences first in a chorus then individually. After that, the teacher tests their comprehension of the meaning by using their own language when pointing to a picture, asking them to answer in the target language. According to Cook (2001) the role of the native language is to help students get the intended meaning of the language being learned. In CLL method, translation is used only to convey meaning and it involves the whole sentences. In this method the learning process begins with students using sentences in their mother tongue which are translated in the foreign language. Whereas, in Dodson (1967) bilingual method, the learning process begins with teacher using the foreign language sentences which are translated into the mother tongue of the students.

1.5. Views against Mother Tongue Use in English Foreign language classes

Butzkamm (2003) asserts that at the end of the nineteenth century the role of the mother tongue was given less importance or was not analyzed significantly. It was not allowed in the foreign language classrooms. Teachers used to refer to students L1 only when the subject is related to grammar as the most discussed methodological problem. Also at recent time, many countries in their official educational policy recommend that the lessons given to the students should be possibly monolingual, and allow the use of students' mother tongue only when difficulties arise.

Some studies have a negative view about the use L1 in foreign language classroom. Edstrom (2006) (as cited in Butzkamm (2003), in the analysis of her own experience of the use of English in teaching Spanish, claims that the use of L1 in language classroom is pedagogically undesirable and does not help foreign language acquisition. She includes that sometimes she feels that she has a moral obligation to talk with the students using their own language only when discussing their personal affairs. Harmer (2001) claims that: "There is a little point in trying to stamp it out completely" (p. 132). The mother tongue is generally seen as being an evasive maneuver that should be used only in emergencies.

Cook (2010) asserts that using the mother tongue is usually accompanied with negative feelings among teachers and students like feeling of guilt, embarrassment, and lack of proficiency. Prodromou (2002) (as cited in Butzkamm, (2003), indicates that the mother tongue is the skeleton in the cupboard, a taboo subject, and a source of embarrassment. McDonough (2002) shows the negative points of the mother tongue use in language classroom by analyzing the attitude of a teacher when she participated in a course on Modern Greek: "I'm not satisfied with getting the gist; I want to understand every word. Translating a text was good, lot of dictionaries work. I'm going to learn the dialogue by

heart, translate it into Greek and then back into English" (p. 405). McDonough (2002) suggests other techniques that can help learning the foreign language as teacher miming, arm waving, and drawing little stick figures on the board or using guessing techniques.

Cook (2001) observes that many teachers and researchers discount the use of L1 in the language classroom and it is introduced only in specific circumstances, when the teacher does not share the same native language with the students or when the students have different native languages. However, other teachers do not completely avoid its use but they try to minimize its role in the classroom. On other hand, there are teachers who focus on maximizing the FL use and emphasize its usefulness to learners rather than relying on their mother tongue. Therefore, the FL use seems to be more fruitful than MT which should not be used in the teaching process.

Since 1880s, most teaching methods have adopted the Direct Method which avoids the use of L1. According to Howatt (1984), the monolingual approach takes the major part in the twentieth century in language teaching classes. Stern (1992) and Brooks (1964) (as cited in Cook, 2001) show that the objectives of FL learning will not be accomplished if it is used and interferes with the native language of learners. In addition, communicative methods and task based learning methods refuse or minimize any relation with L1 and it is only used in giving advice. Most of the methods show that the ideal classroom is based on exclusively teaching and learning the target language and avoiding any external factors that can hurdle the learning process like the learners' mother tongue (Cook, 2001).

Most of techniques in teaching manuals avoid student's mother tongue, in English language classroom there is no place for another language use, and it is referred only if problems appear (Halliwell & Jones, 1991) (as cited in Cook, 2001). Duff and Pollio (1990) suggest forming the variability and different techniques and strategies in using FL

by giving a number of suggestions to increase its use and to help students understand FL components and not use L1 components. English teachers do not actually use L1 most of time, but learners feel the need to use their own language since it is a natural pressure that leads them to shift to their native language (Lucas & Katz, 1994) (as cited in Cook, 2001).

In the English US classrooms, for example, the use of the native language is clearly used among teachers and students even if there are policies and lows that prevent and reduce L1 use. The UK National Curriculum still inform teachers 120 years after the great reform that the target language is only a means and a pedagogical tool of communication that should be used in language classroom. Some teachers who resort to L1 often feel guilty or unable to use target language with their students, as if it is not useful and indicates low levels in FL proficiency (Mitchell, 1988). Atkinson (1993) (as cited in Cook, 2001) shows that the avoidance of L1 may be due to that the fact teachers do not speak the students' mother tongue or may be students have different native languages. Thus, in EFL teaching, the avoidance of L1 is practical necessity and L1 avoidance can go beyond linguistic reasons to more cultural and political dimensions.

Conclusion

This chapter indicates that mother tongue interference exists in foreign language through many aspects which is a subject of great controversy. It also demonstrates that L1 interference can be noticed not only in language vocabulary but in grammar and pronunciation as well. In addition, it analysed the different attitudes and beliefs among teachers and researchers about the use or the avoidance of the mother tongue. Some of them support and advocate its implementation in their classes because of the similarities between the two languages (L1 and L2), whereas others avoid or even prohibit its use in their classes because of the differences between the two languages. Other teachers and

researchers do not focus on its use or not, but they emphasize teaching their students the awareness of the similarities and differences that exist between their mother tongue and the target language. Consequently, learners would be able to decide when, where, and how to use or avoid the native language.

Chapter two: Learning Foreign Language Vocabulary

Introduction

Vocabulary plays a central role in any human language. FL learners give great importance and devote much time to learning vocabulary. Despite the importance and critical position of vocabulary as an aspect of language, it has been undervalued in the field of foreign language acquisition during the past decades up to the present day. Most researchers and language teachers give priority of investigation and teaching to syntax and phonology.

Therefore, this chapter is devoted to the analysis of important elements that are related to learning and teaching vocabulary. Firstly, we present a description of vocabulary and provide definitions, types, word knowledge, and size of vocabulary. Secondly, we discuss the importance of teaching vocabulary and its role in foreign language teaching. Thirdly, we analyse the methods and approaches that give insights into the process of teaching vocabulary. The last part is consists of a contrastive analysis between the English and Arabic vocabulary in which we indicate the similarities and differences that exist in the two languages.

2.1. Description of Vocabulary

2.1.1. Definition of Vocabulary

Many definitions may be given to the term vocabulary in accordance to different views. Indeed, vocabulary can be seen as the knowledge of words and word meanings, or as a list of words arranged in alphabetical order. In linguistic analysis, a word can be described as asset of properties or features, each word is the combination of its meaning, register, association, collocation, grammatical behavior, written form (spelling), spoken form

(pronunciation) and frequency. And to master a word requires not only learning its meaning but also acquiring the other elements that we have previously cited (Schmitt, 2000).

According to Schmitt (2000), the word meaning composes connect between the word and its referent which can be a person, thing, action or a situation. The word in dictionary can hold the basic meaning, but it can hold other meanings in different texts. Furthermore, Atkinson (2003) claims that there are some associations between words. He suggests four categories of associations. The first one is 'coordination' which contains word cluster that share the same level, for example, boxing, skateboarding, football are stored together, belonging to the group of sport, opposites and antonyms belong also to this group such as lazy and smart. The second one is 'super-ordination' which consists of words that cover other words which are subordinate to the upper one, for example, when someone says animal others can give cat, goat, dog and so on. The third one is 'synonym', which can hold words that have the same or similar meanings and linked together, for example, happy and glad, surprise and shock. The last one is 'collocation' which consists of words that are linked together to collocate each other, for example, black and white, saltwater, bright and red are mostly linked to gather.

2.1.2. Types of Vocabulary

2.1.2.1. Receptive Vocabulary

Stuart (2005) defines receptive vocabulary as words that learners can recognize and understand when they are given in a context, but which they cannot produce. They are words that the students recognize when they see or meet but do not use them in speaking or writing.

2.1.2.2. Productive Vocabulary

Productive vocabulary is the word that the learners can understand, pronounce and use in a correct way in speaking or writing. It includes the features of receptive vocabulary in addition to the ability to speak or to write in appropriate situations. Thus, productive vocabulary can be seen as an active process, because the students may produce words to express their ideas to their classmates or friends (Stuart, 2005).

2.1.3. Word Knowledge

According to Richard (1976) in his significant work the 'dimensional approach of lexical knowledge', the lexical knowledge involves more than recognizing the form and the meaning, but it also involves the syntactic and semantic knowledge of a word and its occurrence in the language and its association with other words. Similarly, Nation (1990) in his proposal of word knowledge which was explained by Schmitt (1998) as the complete and balanced description of word knowledge. Nation (1990) differentiates between the receptive and productive nature of a word. So, knowing a word entails form, meaning, and use of that word. For example, in receptive words, knowing a word is being able to recognize the sounds of that word whereas in productive words, knowing the form of the word is to be able to pronounce or to write it.

The idea of viewing word knowledge as an increasing process, not just as matter of known or unknown words, was supported by many Scholars (e.g. Laufer, 1977; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997; Schmitt, 1998; Schmitt & Meara, 1997) (as cited in Schmitt 2000). Furthermore, foreign language learners may possess only part of knowledge concerning certain words. For instance, FL learners may have a receptive vocabulary of specific words but not productive one. Compared to native speakers of a language, FLL might know partial meanings of words.

2.1.4. Vocabulary Size

Laufer (1989) suggests that 95% coverage of vocabulary items in order to understand a spoken or written discourse. Hu and Nation (2001) (as cited in Schmitt 2000) suggest that the figure is closer to 98-99% at least for written discourse. So, 98% coverage in vocabulary knowledge means that one word in 50 is unknown. However, this percentage of vocabulary size does not make the comprehension easy for learners (Carver, 1994). Nation (2006) (as cited in Schmitt 2000) has investigated around 200,000 words of the Wellington Corpus of Spoken English, which included talkback radio, interviews, and friendly conversation. He calculated that 6000-7000 word families are required to reach at least 98% of goals. However, it is not evident that 98% coverage is the most effective in dealing with spoken discourse. Schmitt (2008) claims that knowing more vocabulary is always better in understanding written or spoken discourse.

Bonk (2000) (as cited in Schmitt 2000) in his analysis found that there is no specific percentage to determine learner vocabulary size 'threshold', but he observes that learners who knew less than 80% of lexical words they have poor comprehension and 43% of learners who knew 80-89% and 60% of learners 90% of lexical words have good comprehension. Consequently, Bonk found that the knowledge of words less than 90% in a passage usually lead to insufficient comprehension, whereas the knowledge of 95% or more running words in a passage enable language learners to attain a good comprehension. Thus, Bonk (2000) study concludes that the coverage figure of 95% of words is enough rather than 98%.

Laufer (2000) (as cited in Schmitt 2000) determines the English vocabulary size in the following table:

Country	Vocb Size	Hours of instruction
Japan EFL University	2000	800-1200
China English majors	2300	1800-2400
Indonesia EFL University	1220	900
Oman EFL University	2000	1350+
Israel EFL University	3500	1500
France High school	1000	400
Greece Age 15, high school	1680	660
Germany Age 15, High school	1200	400

Table 2: English vocabulary size

Nation (2001, p 27) provides a good and effective description and explanation of word knowledge aspects that is required in teaching vocabulary in this table

Form	Spoken	R what does the word sound like? P how is the word pronounced?
	Written	R what does the word look like? P how is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R what parts are recognizable in this word? P what word parts are needed express this meaning
Meaning	Form and meaning	R what meaning does this word form signal? P what word form can be used to express this meaning
	Concepts and referents	R what is included in the concept? P what items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R what other words does this make us think of? P what other words could we use instead of this one?

Table 3: What is involved in knowing a word?

2.2. The Importance of Teaching Vocabulary

Vocabulary development of learners is an important aspect that enriches their language development (Harmon, Wood, & Keser, 2009). Despite its importance, vocabulary has been neglected for a long time. Recently, researchers have increasingly turned their focus to vocabulary like: Carter and McCarthy (1988), Nation (1990), Acnaud and Bjoint (1992), Huckin, Haynes and Coady (1995) and Schmitt (1997, 2000) (as cited in Schmitt, 2000).

Vocabulary Knowledge is often seen as a critical tool for foreign language learners because it can lead to successful communication in foreign language. In highlighting the importance of vocabulary acquisition, Schmitt (2000) demonstrates that: "lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language" (p. 55).

Nation (2001) considers the connection between vocabulary knowledge and language use as a complementary relation. He states that vocabulary knowledge leads to language use which enlarges vocabulary knowledge; they complete each other. Many researchers argue that the acquisition of vocabulary is a major part for successful foreign language use and has a significant role in the learners' spoken and written performance. Learning vocabulary items plays a central role in all language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in English as a second language (ESL) or in English as a foreign language (EFL) (Nation, 2011). Furthermore, Rivers and Numan (1991) (as cited in Schmitt, 2000) claim that the acquisition of sufficient vocabulary is essential for making successful foreign language communication because without enough vocabulary we cannot use structures and different functions.

Many researchers demonstrate that language readers find difficulties in reading foreign language texts; and this is due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge which is the main obstacle that faces L2 learners (Huckin, 1995). When we want to express a meaning or an idea we should have a store of vocabulary in which select the appropriate words. "When students travel, they do not carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries" (Krachen, as cited in Lewis, 1993, p. 25). Lot of researchers realized that vocabulary is the most important component among the other language aspects. Wilkins (1972) states that: "There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentence if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say …While without grammar

very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p. 97). Maximo (2000) proposes many causes for turning the attention to vocabulary since large vocabulary is an essential part for mastering a language. In fact, foreign language learners carry with them dictionaries because of the lack of vocabulary and this reflects the major problem that FL learners face.

On other hand, Meara (1980) indicates that vocabulary is single source of problem that L2 learners face. This observation leads to that openendness of a vocabulary system cause difficulties to FL learners. The vocabulary system does not have rules or a specific system that learners can follow to acquire and develop their knowledge and to realize a successful performance, whereas, syntax and phonology have. In Oxford (1990), vocabulary is the most sizeable and unmanageable component in learning any native or foreign language because of the thousand of different meanings that they bear. Besides this difficulty, FL learners also face problems with vocabulary in examination and tests. Schmitt (1999) claims that: "vocabulary has traditionally been one of the language components measured language tests" (p. 189).

In addition, many learners view foreign language learning as a matter of learning vocabulary; therefore, they spend many efforts and time on memorizing lot of FL words using bilingual dictionaries as a communicative source. Recent studies have shown that teaching words is a critical aspect in learning a language because learning is based mainly on words (Thombury, 2002). Learning a language is tightly linked with language, it is impossible to learn a language without learning vocabulary. Therefore, teachers and students realize that the acquisition of vocabulary is a major factor in teaching and learning a language (Walters, 2004).

2.3. Methods of Teaching Vocabulary

2.3.1. Grammar Translated Method

Grammar Translated Method was first presented to teach modern languages in public schools in Prussia at the end of the eighteenth century. Howatt (1984) and Rivers (1981) claim that the essential goals of this method were to prepare learners for reading and writing classical input then they pass to standardized exams. This includes courses like Latin and Greek. In this method, texts involve classical literature due to its intellectual context as a good material. Students were given detailed grammar explanations in their native languages, patterns to memorize and bilingual vocabulary lists to learn. Lessons were mainly composed of reading selection, two or three long lists of new vocabulary items with their correspondence in the native language of the students (Rivers, 1981). In this method, learners were evaluated according to their ability to analyze the syntactic structure and mainly how to conjugate verbs.

Students who were instructed through the Grammar Translated Method studied literary language samples that include archaic structures and obsolete vocabulary. They were exposed to a wide range of literary vocabulary that is only related to grammatical rules (Rivers, 1981 & Kelly, 1969). Teachers explanations depended on the ability to use etymology and learning words in isolation that have related to the meaning of words in dictionary as Kelly (1969) claims: " one way of dictionary truth" (p. 30).

Teaching vocabulary with this method was based on definition and etymology. They employed the connection between etymon words and derivative ones and they should be saved to avoid collapse of the language. Also, bilingual dictionaries were considered as a reference tool and an important resource for teaching vocabulary (Kelly, 1969).

The Grammar Translated Method was clearly employed in the twentieth century for foreign language teaching method in Europe and in the United States, however, it has been criticised during several years. The main criticism was the avoidance of realistic oral language and the implication of vocabulary language instructions. Rivers (1983) states that"... that could be physically performed as they were used ... Within this situation, students would act out every detailed sequences of appropriate actions in relation to objects, stating aloud exactly what they were doing with what" (p. 116). Another criticism on the use and reliance on archaic vocabulary lists in teaching vocabulary to the students. Thus the important criticism or the objection to this method is that words should be connected with reality rather than with its connection with other words in syntactic pattern.

2.3.2. Direct Method

The Direct Method was introduced at the end of the nineteenth century. Its priority goals, as its name suggests, directing and relating meaning to the target language avoiding the translation tool from teaching pedagogy. This method considered interaction as the heart and the core of language acquisition and it reflected the natural situation. Freeman (1986) (as cited in Coady & Huckin, 1997) claims that the target language used as an instruction teaching tool in small intensive classes by using questions; gradually progressed with exchanging answers. Daily vocabulary and sentences were used in language classes. Reading was developed and taught through practice with speaking.

This method was criticized because it minimized and neglected the role of L1 in learning the target language and ignored the similarities between the two languages and the lack of practice in their classrooms (Richards & Rodgers, 1986)

Sauveur (1974) suggested two principles of language teaching vocabulary. In the first principle, teachers were only to ask 'earnest questions' that extract answers in which

teachers had imbedded interest and objectives. In the second one, the questions should be associated with each other to help students to learn and to use the context. Howatt (1984) claims that: "Such a manner that one way may give rise to another" (p. 201). Using objects in classroom can help teaching vocabulary like clothing, and parts of the body with common adjectives (big, small, thing) (Howatt, 1984).

The Situational Teaching movement was influenced by concrete vocabulary in the United States and in Great Britain. Their aim was to develop oral methods to be more scientific and it became more popular by the direst methodologists. This movement believed that language should be taught and presented by performing structures in meaningful situations with practical activities. They emphasized speech which they considered as the basis of possible conversation. Palmer (1968) suggested selection, gradation, and presentation of language structure for ungraded speech that learners might face. In this period, many language programs were published, they urged the need for systematic gradation of language especially in language teaching (Faucett, 1933; Ogden, 1930; Palmer, 1916) (as cited in Coady & Huckin, 1997). Vocabulary was considered for the first time as one of the most important element of foreign language learning and it was given the priority for selecting vocabulary context in language courses.

2.3.3. Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-Lingual method or the structural approach was founded by the American structural linguists during the second world war, in which the educational institution and the government encouraged teaching foreign languages. The founder of this method Fries (1945) considered it as a new approach to the pedagogical grammar. He regarded it as practical interpretation of the 'principles of modern linguistic science'. This method showed that the different structural systems of languages are the most difficult problem

that the foreign language learners experienced. Based on the belief that language is a process of habit formation, the Audio-Lingual method has given more importance to pronunciation and intensive oral drilling of samples. Learners practised grammatical elements within examples, rather than analyzing or rules memorization.

During the teaching of structural patterns, vocabulary items were chosen according to their familiarity and simplicity. Therefore, drilling new vocabulary was presented to students, but only sufficient and limited words were needed to perform the drill. So, the structural patterns may be: "fleshed out with words at a later stage when students were more certain of their lexical needs in particular situations" (Rivers, 1981, p. 118).

Fries (1945) claims that language learners oversimplify the word in isolation. He argued that this oversimplification of vocabulary is due to the following false beliefs about language nature:

1. It is false to assume that words have exact correspondence in different languages and the word that convey exact meaning from language to another are classified to highly technical words.
2. It is not correct that a word is a single meaning unit. He claims that English language vocabulary has from fifteen to twenty meanings.
3. It is wrong belief that each vocabulary has a 'basic' or 'real' meaning and the other meanings are either figurative or illegitimate.

Fries (1945) spent much time on making analysis as reaction to these false beliefs and explaining that words are linguistic focus. He states that: "symbols that derive their whole context and their limitation of meaning from the situation in which they are used" (p. 43).

According to Rivers (1981), presentation of too much vocabulary at early beginning stages in language course may not help students in acquiring new vocabulary and lead students to feel unsecure in dealing with vocabulary items. She stated that:

> Excessive vocabulary learning early in the course gives students the impression that the most important thing about learning a language is a accumulating new words as equivalents for concepts which they can already express in their native languages. They often fail to realize that meaning is expressed in groups of words and in combinations of language segments, and that the meaning of an individual word usually difficult to determine when it is separated from context of other words and phrases. Traditional vocabulary lists rarely provide context this type. Students are thus unprepared to use the words they have learned as isolated units in any approximation to authentic communication (p. 254).

She suggested the use of practical morphological variations and systematic structures with familiar vocabularies to the student, in order to attract the concentration of learners on the structures of the target language. She also recommended to present new vocabulary in well prepared oral tasks and these words should be widely reused during the courses to reinforce long lasting preservation.

In encouraging the use of context to understand the difficult or unknown words, many researchers have developed and suggested lists of clues. These are included in the context to help students guess the intended meaning of those unknown words and also help teachers develop their learners guessing skill. For example, the list of clues sources which are suggested by Ames (1966) consists of fourteen elements:

1. The vocabulary knowledge clues can be derived from learners' language experience or from familiar expression that they already know; it does not need to true guessing from the context.

2. Modifying phrases or clauses.

3. Words connected or in series.

4. Preposition clues.

5. Non-phrases or clauses, words connected or appositive phrases (those last four elements considered as guessing strategies).

6. Definition and description.

7. Comparison and contrast.

8. Synonym.

9. Tone.

10. Setting and mode.

11. Referial.

12. Main idea detail.

13. Question answer.

14. Cause and effect (those last nine elements are concerning using wider context).

According to Ames (1966), the aims of those strategies is to help the learners to get the intended meaning by the writer or speaker, and to make the students conscious about the different strategies of guessing from the context.

Many researchers supports the view of Fries (1945) that foreign language learners give much importance, effort and time to vocabulary and consider it as a major part in learning a foreign language, whereas teachers and theoreticians of the foreign language have an a opposite view concerning vocabulary by giving less attention and emphasis on the role of vocabulary but overvalued the role of grammar. This view has been clearly demonstrated in curriculum and teaching materials that deal with vocabulary only as a tool to teach grammatical topics, but not as lexical items for teaching communicative purpose. Twaddell (1980) observes that children using L1 to express more words and expression, but the adult learners have "an infantile vocabulary and adult mentality" (p.442). His view is not based

on giving less importance to the role of grammar but on achieving sufficient, appropriate and correct communicative language teaching.

2.3.4. Communicative Language teaching

As a reaction to Chomsky's (1957) notion of autonomous 'linguistic competence', Hymes (1972) presented the concept of 'communicative competence'. However, he did not neglect Chomsky's model but he gave greater importance to the sociolinguistic and pedagogic aspects that determine effective language use. So, communicative competence according to Hymes (1972) is the internalized knowledge of the situational appropriateness of language.

New views have emerged like cooperating communicative competence with linguistic competence and language. This view has resulted by change and transition to the focus on communicative proficiency of learners rather than on the structure rules in language teaching. In a support of this point, Richards and Rodgers (1981) indicate that the aim of a foreign language teaching is the communicative competence which develops the language four skills and links language with communication. Stern (1981) (as cited in Coady & Huckin, 1997) also claims that the aim of communicative methods to expose language learners to the target language and encourage fluency over accuracy. Richards (1983) (as cited in Coady & Huckin, 1997) claims that it is insufficient to practise audio-lingual methods without practising of real communication. In fluency and accuracy, Rivers (1981) urged education teachers to give more importance to the words because vocabulary can help learners in communicating meaning, she states: "even before they can express discriminatingly fifteen ways to ask that the door be opened" (p. 120).

2.3.5. Natural Approach

Krashen and Terrell (1983) stated that the natural approach is like the other communicative approaches, but it is based on enabling the students to have a good level in oral communication abilities in language classrooms. This approach depends on a theoretical model which includes five hypotheses:

1. The Acquisition-Leaning Hypothesis, the difference between natural acquisition like L1 and the formal learning that involves learning rules and error correction consciously.

2. The Natural Order Hypothesis, the acquisition of grammatical structure is natural in predictable order without any artificial of input order.

3. The Monitor Hypothesis, which conscious acquisition has specific function of 'monitor' language production.

4. The Input Hypothesis, the language would be acquired when the input with the interest of the learners and its context is appropriate to the level of the students competence.

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis, the attitudinal aspects are associated with the acquisition of language. Learners with 'low affected filter' will be showing more interest and more interaction.

The Natural Approach focuses on meaningful comprehensible input not on correcting production grammatically. According to this approach, vocabulary is involving meanings and should be given more importance. They emphasize the provision of interesting and relevant input (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Krashen (1989) also suggests that reading can be a helper factor and a more effective way that can aid learners in acquiring new vocabulary.

2.4. Contrastive Analysis of the English and Arabic Languages

The Arabic language is a widely spoken language that can differ from one Arab country to another. Current Arabic professors on Georgia southern University Campus for example, or Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt or Algeria, all of these professionals speak different dialects but they share one language which is the Standard Arabic. One of the most controversial topics to discus recently, especially among the linguists of the Middle East, which is the differences and the similarities between the English and Arabic languages.

However, like this issue had not attracted much attention in the past, but now it receives more light in language study. For instance, the existence and spreading of many Arabic auto-antonyms the way the consonants in the language are acquired by Arabic speakers. The Arabic language was criticized on its phonological idiosyncrasy of elision, its difficult grammar and most importantly the width of its vocabulary. The Arabic language like other languages has not one system for organization and placement of subject and verb. It has two basic sentence types that determine syntax, nominal and verbal. The nominal type, when sentences do not include a verb, in which a verb is understood from the context, or the verb is found after the subject. Verbal type, when verbs come before the subject in a sentence and affects in a way or another the whole meaning and the message of the sentence (Elshishiny, 1990).

To have a good view about the Arabic structure, we suggest the following two graphs known as phrase structure type which can show how the language is organized and how the Arabic speakers and writers express their ideas. The two graphs show the syntactic categories of each word or morpheme which are grouped into modes. So, the modes can be shaped only within phrase structure rules of Arabic language. The Arabic sentences in the two graphs translate into English 'The puppy played in the garden' (Fronkin, Hyams &

Rodman, 2011). In addition, unlike English, Arabic language is written and read from the write to the left. Graph one shows a sentence in the nominal type and it is similar to syntax and meaning of English, and the phrase structure tends to be similar to those in English.

Figure 1: Phrase structure tree
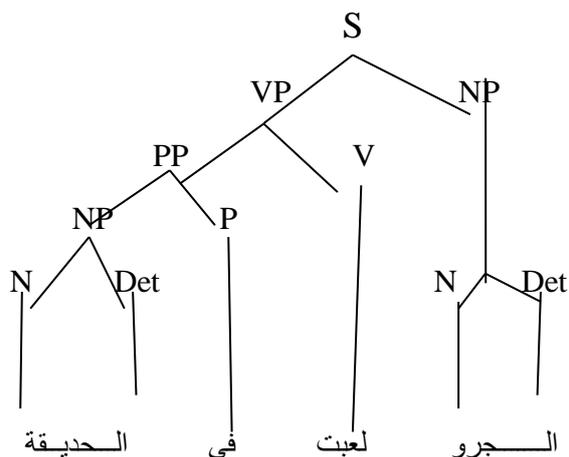
In graph two, a sentence is shown as verbal sentence type and determines the features phrase structure rules that it is typically different from English rules. In both graphs 'S' means subject, 'V' means verb, 'NP' means noun phrase, PP means prepositional phrase and Det means determiner.

Figure 2: Phrase structure tree (2)
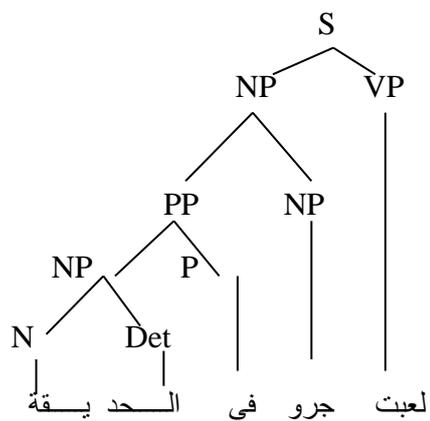
Among the recent topics that have been discussed in the Arabic language analysis is the auto-antonyms. The auto-antonyms are words which are themselves their own opposites. For example the, word 'cleave' may mean 'to split apart' or 'cling together' and

they are clearly relational antonyms (Fronkin et al., 2011). With the idea on controversy of elision, there is a debate on the agreement or the disagreement that the Arabic language has auto-antonomys among Arabic linguists. The doctor Alomoush (2010) at Tafila Technical University in Jordan claims that there are hundreds of auto-antonyms in Arabic language. For example [haʒada], which means to sleep or to stay up late. Therefore Alomoush (2010) claims that the Arabic word has plenty of synonyms for example [an noum] which means also to sleep and [asahar] means also to stay up late.

Words' meanings are often referred to by linguists as semantics in both languages. Speakers or even writers' intentions are closely related to the context and to the social, psychological and cultural conventions in a language. For instance, it is usually common to use the word 'bad' to mean 'good' (Alomoush, 2010). The Arabic language seems to be a unique language with specific characteristics that cannot be found in other languages. However, English and Arabic summarize words for the economy of speech or piece of writing. The Arabic language has also auto-antonyms like English language, in which words have two opposing meaning that are based on optimism, sarcasm, mockery, ridicule, context, intent and tone.

2.4.1. Difficulties of Arabic speakers in learning English Vocabulary

The influence of L1 on word recognition and spelling in learning English as a foreign language is evident in the studies of many researchers. Randal and Meara (1988) carried out three studies, in which they realised that Arabic speakers react to Roman letters in the same way they react to the letters of Arabic as their mother tongue, and this way is completely different from the way the native speakers react to Roman letters.

Both English and Arabic belong to a sound-based type writing system and the phonemes are introduced by graphemes. Therefore, the major difference between the two

languages is in their writing system as the English language is alphabetical whereas standard Arabic is consonantal (Bassetti & Cook, 2005). In addition, the two languages also differ in the receipting writing systems in term of transparency. The Standard Arabic language is a very consistent language with almost phoneme- grapheme representation in which the sounds-symbol correspondences are relatively transparent whereas English language has some consistent phoneme-grapheme representation, and also has inconsistent and more complex representations. So, the sound-symbol correspondences in English language are more ambiguous compared to the standard Arabic language.

Wells (2008) claims that English has a total of 26 letters,24 consonants in English are written by 21 of those letters and 11 vowels are written by 05 of those letters whereas standard Arabic language has 28 letters with 28 consonants written by 28 letters. However, the two languages only share 06 vowels in their writing system. Standard Arabic has 03 long vowels written by 03 of 28 letters. Abu Rabia (2002) proposes that in reading Arabic texts or even words without diacritics (i.e without representation of vowels or sounds), readers have to rely not only on using the consonant spelling and phonological information but also they have to rely on their lexical information like morphological knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and on sentence and discourse context. However, English mostly represent its vowels and sounds in its writing system. English readers also can use such contextual knowledge to fill the missing letters relying on their vocabulary knowledge.

Ryan and Meara (1991) conducted a study about the writing system of words of the two languages among Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language. The study involves long words of 10 letters (e.g. department, experiment, revolution, photograph...). The presentation of words was either with correct spelling or incorrect one with a vowel missing in one of four positions. Then the learner would decide which one is correct. In

this study, Ryan and Meara (1991) realised that Arabic EFL made more errors compared to the non Arabic EFL group. So, they found that L1 Arabic literacy has effects on the use of EFL vocabulary. The Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language were slower than the group of Japanese in lexical tasks.

Fender (2003) in his studies suggests that the Arabic speakers learning of English as a foreign language were slower than the Japanese group, but he noticed that the Arab group was more successful in incorporating words into larger sentences and phrases and understanding them correctly. He also observed that the Arabic speakers learning English were less fluent in English word recognition skills due to over reliance on their Arabic system.

A team of researchers in the University of Michigan in the United States in 1974 has conducted a study about Contrastive Analyses Project on English and Standard Arabic. They have investigated the differences between the two languages in all the linguistic aspect, in which Palmer (1974) was the supervisor of this work including Arabic professors. Furthermore, word usage problems are mostly related to the differences between the two language systems.

According to Palmer (1974) the problems, difficulties, or errors that the Arabic speakers learning English may perform in their writing are due to:

1. English words and phrases which have no equivalents in Arabic language because of the cultural differences. For example, an English person may say 'part time workers' while Arabic speaker may say 'people who work few hours', and also there are hundreds of idiomatic phrases that can rise problems for Arabic speakers learning English.

2. Grammatical words in English which have no equivalent in Arabic like 'a' and 'whether', or Arabic usage does not correspond 100% to English words' meaning. For example Arabic speakers learning English often miss use the use of the verb 'to have' they may say 'your book is with me', which is direct translation from the Arabic language, instead of saying 'I have your book'.

3. Words in English which have no equivalent in Arabic language like: 'it' and 'is'.

4. Two or more words in English which correspond to only one word in Arabic language: house- home, wish-hope, weather-climate, watch- clock-hour, upstairs-upon-up-above.

5. Words in English which correspond to two or more words in Arabic like: please= /minfadlik/tafadal...

6. All proposition rise problems and difficulties for Arabic speakers learning English because the standard Arabic language has equivalents that do not correspond exactly to the meaning and usage for all the English prepositions. Prepositions are one of the major problems for students who learn English as a foreign language.

7. Words which have completely different meaning in English due to the nature of differences in word order between the two languages .e.g. 'just' in:

> He is a just man (fair, impartial).

> He just got here (only now).

> He is just wonderful (absolutely, positively).

2.4.2. Examples of False Friends between Arabic and English

Palmer (1974) in his study analyses many examples of false friends between Arabic and English languages like:

Affect/effect: Arabic learners may confuse these two words because of the similarities of pronunciation and spelling and also because they are translated by a single word in the Arabic language. **Afraid of:** Arabic students substitute 'from' for 'of', he is afraid from the dog. **Almost:** this word is difficult for the Arabic speakers learning English to grasp in all its appropriate English usage. **Am, is, are:** do not exist in the Arabic language. **Angry:** most of Arabic speakers learning English confuse angry, sorry and sad. **Arm:** Arabic speakers do not distinguish between arm and hand. They may say 'I broke my arm' which may mean 'I broke my hand', hand and arm mean both 'yad' in the Standard Arabic. **Well:** Arabic learners have problem in the placement of this word in a sentence. **Weather:** Arabic speakers confuse between the words weather and climate. The weather of a place is the state of the air (hot, dry...) whereas the climate of a place is the average conditions of the weather over a period of time.

Wait for: most Arabic learners tend to omit the preposition 'for' due to the interference of their Arabic language 'I waited him a long time'. **Very**: Arabic learners confuse between 'very' and 'too' which are both expressed in Arabic by /kaƟIr/. It is very difficult for them to grasp the difference between them. E.g. this coffee is too delicious (i.e. exceedingly delicious). **Turn off-turn on:** Arabic speakers may substitute the verb 'open' I opened the light. **Travel:** this word is normally used for long distances, but Arabic learners may use it for short distances. **Throw at**: Arabic speakers may substitute 'on' he threw a stone on the bird. **The news:** Arabic may view news as a plural noun and may say 'the news are good today'. **Stranger:** Arabic speakers confuse between stranger and foreigner. **Stay:** Arabic often substitute sit for stay; where are you sitting in the city? This is due to the direct translation from their language. **Noise:** Arabic speakers confuse between noise and sound as they are the same in Arabic. **Like, love:** they have the same meaning in Arabic. Arabic

learners confuse like, want, and would like. **Get permission:** 'I got permission from my teacher' Arabic learners may say 'I took permission from my teacher'

2.4.3. Borrowing Words from the Standard Arabic Language to the English Language

In borrowing words from Arabic to English Jesperson (1922) claims that loaning words is a very common phenomenon and no language is free of borrowed words. Kachri (1989) indicates that there is the linguistic transfer from one language to another due to the borrowing of words when languages are in contact with each other. Crystal (2010) describes the English language as 'instable borrower' (p. 267). Klein (1966) asserts that only 30% of English language words are native. Many of Arabic words are borrowed from English (Bale, 2006). Taylor (1933) states that the English language borrowed thousand of words from Arabic and there are thousands of derivatives from those words. AbdelRahman (1989) states that the word 'cable' was taken from Arabic word 'hable' 'rope' which was introduced into English.

Langacher (1967) claims that borrowing words from another language is easier than creating ones. The cultural impact plays a major role in borrowing words and it is clear in many English words in Arabic like 'kilowatt'and 'telephone'. The majority of borrowed words from Arabic to English are connected to science like 'zero, algebra, alcohol, medicine, cipher'. Sapir (1921) states that only few languages have had a very important influenced on other languages because of their culture. They are classical Chinese, Sanskrit, Standard Arabic, Greek and Latin.

The researcher Eldjanabi (2006) has presented a television program on Yemen TV which he entitled The Arabic Roots of English Language. In his program, he mentioned

and analysed many examples of vocabulary that are borrowed from the Standard Arabic to the English language. He treats many vocabularies like:

Islamic words: Allah= الله, Quran=قرآن , Hakim= طبيب,Sura=سورة, Nabil=نبيل, Emir= أمير

Clothes words: Jubbah/Jibba=جبة, Damask=دمسق/حرير, Shawl=شال, Sandal=صندوق, Fur=فرو, Kotton=قطن, Tail=ذيل

Body parts words: Caph=كف, Neck=عنق, Saphene= صافن = وريد في الساق, Poof=حافر

Animals: Gazelle:غزال, Ariel=أيل, Fennec=فنك, Sheep/shah=شاة, Giraffe=الزرافة, Elephant=فيل, Saluki=السلوقي, tool of hunting, Lion=أسد/ليث, Camel=جمل

Conclusion

We have discussed in this chapter some important points about the vocabulary of English as a foreign language. First of all, we presented a brief description of vocabulary, definition, types, word knowledge, and word size. Then, we highlighted the importance of teaching and learning vocabulary and showed the extent of vocabulary in English language classes. Also, we observed and viewed the different methods and approaches in teaching vocabulary foreign language students. Finally, we proposed contrastive analysis of the standard Arabic (as the mother tongue of the students) and the English language (as foreign language) in terms of the similarities differences that exist between the two languages.

Chapter Three: Data analyses, Interpretation, and Findings

Introduction

This chapter serves as a second part of our research, which is the practical part. We try to investigate the role of the mother tongue in learning a foreign language vocabulary. We have tried to search how EFL third year students at the University of Biskra perceive learning vocabulary items and how their mother tongue interferes in learning this important aspect of the foreign language. Also, we have tried to investigate the methods and the strategies that the teachers use in their courses when teaching and presenting new vocabularies to their students.

In order to conduct our investigation, aiming the problem, and confirming our hypothesis, we have dealt with three different data gathering tools. The major tool was the questionnaire which was addressed to the third year students of English at Biskra University. In order to have a reliable research, we have done interviews with Biskra University teachers of English who teach different modules and vocabulary items inevitably included in their courses. To reinforce our research, we have used classroom observation in order to gather more accurate and authentic information and also to have more insights and to confirm the questionnaire's and interview's results. We have attended four sessions two in written expression module and two in theme and version module with different teachers and different groups.

3.1. Research Method

According to the nature of our research, we have chosen the descriptive method which is suitable to determine the facts and the actual situation of our research which is the mother interference in learning foreign language vocabulary. Also, this method is

appropriate to describe the difficulties that the students may face in learning English foreign language vocabulary in their written performance.

3.2. Population and Sample of the Study

In our research work, we have dealt with 80 students from third year students at the English Division of Biskra University as a representative sample which was selected randomly from a population of about 400 students. Therefore, third year level was chosen because of several reasons:

1. They have already built sufficient background in English vocabulary.
2. They have experienced many methods, strategies, different tasks and activities in learning vocabulary.
3. They have acquired a kind of mastery a foreign language and cultural maturity that can allow them to compare between their mother tongue (Arabic Language) and the foreign language (English language).

Concerning teachers, we have dealt with four teachers with different experiences and teaching different modules who are certainly dealing with different vocabulary methods and different strategies.

3.3. Data Gathering Tools

The objective of data gathering tools depends on the overall objective of our research. It aims at seeking, discovering and understanding how students' mother tongue interferes in learning foreign language vocabulary in their written production. Therefore, we have selected three data gathering tools: a questionnaire for students to obtain different students' opinions, a teachers' interview to highlight their views about the influence of the mother

tongue when they teach vocabulary, and a classroom observation for more accurate and concrete findings.

3.3.1. Students' Questionnaire

3.3.1.1 Aim of the Students' Questionnaire

We have designed a questionnaire for third year students to give them the chance to express their attitudes and opinions toward the influence of the mother tongue on learning English vocabulary as a foreign language and to highlight the difficulties that they may face in learning vocabulary items.

3.3.1.2. Administration of Students' Questionnaire

Students' questionnaire has been administered during the second semester of the academic year 2016/2017 to the students of the third year level at English Division of Biskra University. It was handed to 80 students of the third year students. All the 80 papers that have been distributed were returned since they have been administered in our presence to make sure that all the students have understood the questions.

3.3.1.3. Description of the Students' Questionnaire.

Students' questionnaire involved both open and close-ended questions. Furthermore, it provided a free space for the students' personal suggestions. It is composed of three sections; each one of them investigates points which are all relevant to our study issue.

Section One: consists of three questions that aimed at gathering information about the students' choice to study English whether it is personal or imposed, their level in English and if they succeeded in communicating in English.

Section Two: consists of nine questions. The whole section was devoted to answering questions about Mother Tongue Interference. It analysed how mother tongue interferes in learning the target language and sought to know if this interference can be positive or negative.

Section Three: consists of seven questions which are mainly served as gathering information about learning foreign language vocabulary. It sought for the importance of learning vocabulary, the different tasks students deal with in leaning vocabulary and their attitudes and difficulties about learning English language vocabulary in language classrooms.

3.3.1.4. Analysis of Results

Section One: General Information

Question 01: Your choice to study English was

Response	N	%
Your own choice	67	83,75
Imposed	13	16,25
Total	80	100

Table 4: Students' choice to study English
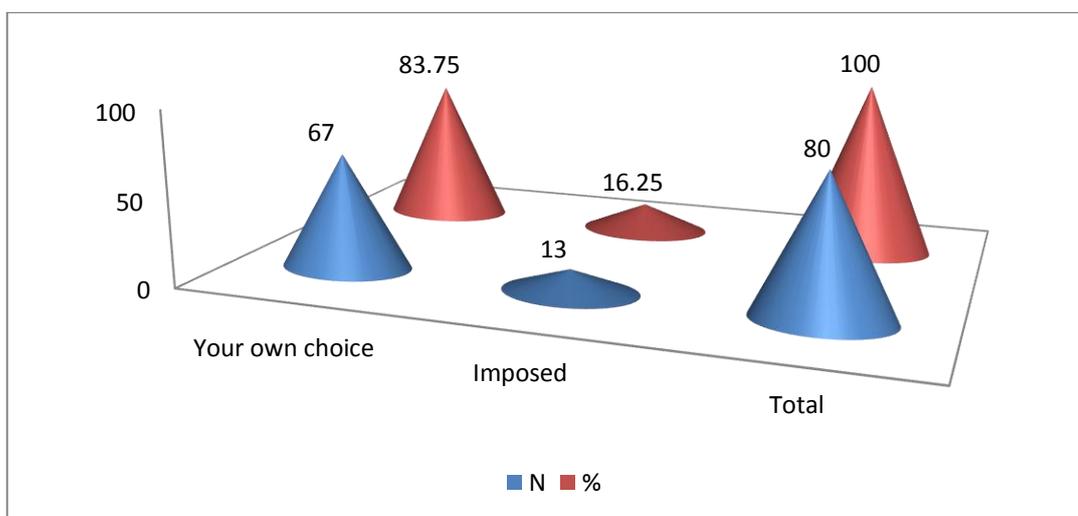
Figure 3: Students' choice to study English

From the results shown in the table 4, the majority of participant (83,75%) chose freely to study the English language. However 16,25% of the participants declared that their decision to study English language was imposed. Thus, the great rate of the students whose decision to study English was personal indicated that they have the will and opportunities to react and to interact with the materials that are given by their teachers and to acquire capacities in learning more vocabularies.

Question 02: How do you evaluate your level in English?

Response	N	%
Good	18	22,5
Average	60	75
Low	02	2,5
Total	80	100

Table 5: Students' evaluation of their level in English
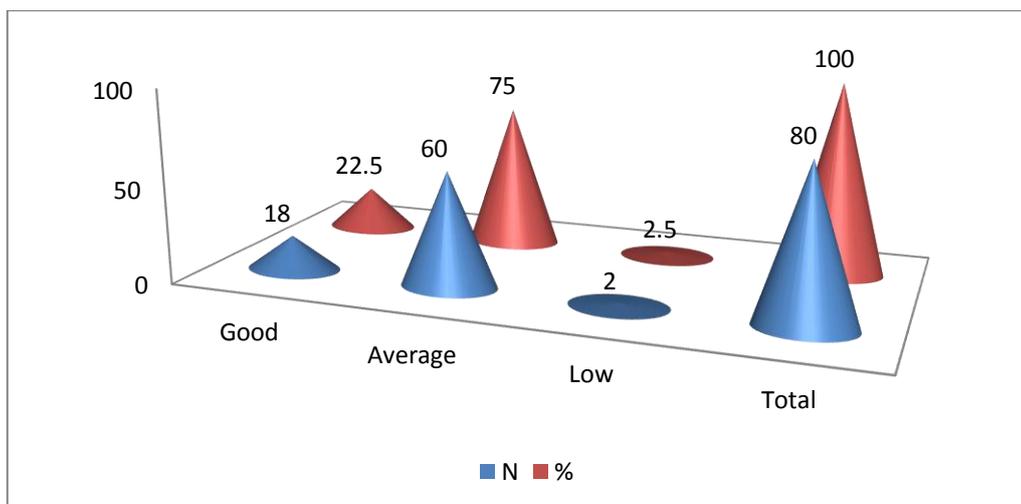
Figure 4: Students' evaluation of their level in English

The results shown in table 5 indicate that only 18 students (22,5%) consider themselves having a good level in English, but most of the participants 60 (75%) have an average level in English. However, 2 participants (2,5%) claimed that they have a low level in English language. So, the majority of the students can perform well in their written production and can have a kind of mastering English language.

Question 03: Do you succeed in communicate in English?

Response	N	%
Yes	60	75
No	20	25
Total	80	100

Table 6: Students' ability in communicating in English
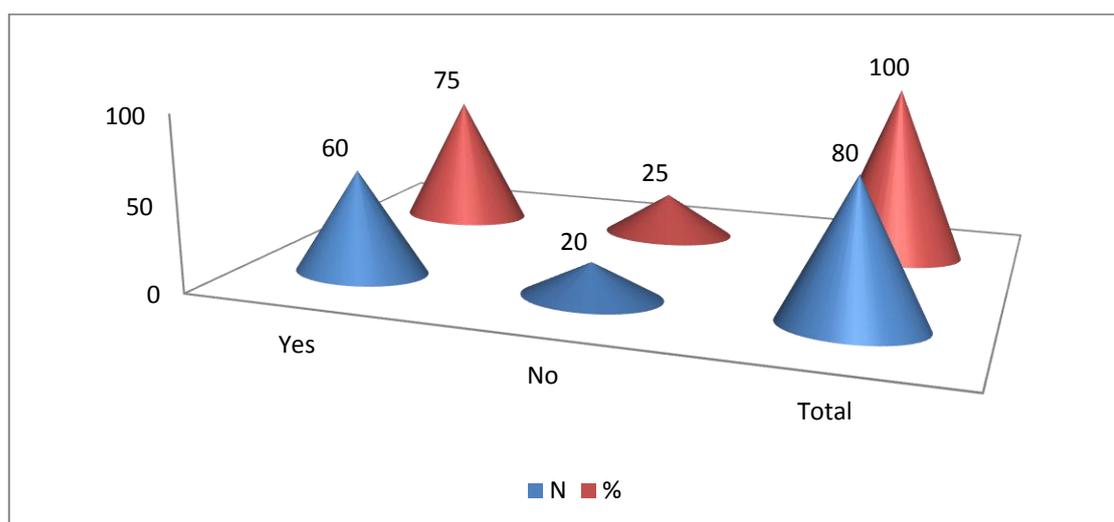
Figure 5: Students' ability in communicating in English

As it clearly observed from this table above that 60 the participants (75%) succeed in communicating in English while only 20 (25%) claimed that they fail in communicating in English language. Consequently, we can notice that the majority of students can have more opportunities to use a wide range of vocabulary, succeed in sending messages to the others, and perform different functions by using different words, expressions and phrases.

Section Two: Mother Tongue Interference

Question 04: In your opinion does the first language influence the target language?

Response	N	%
Yes	70	87,5
No	10	12,5
Total	80	100

Table 7: Students' opinions about the influence of the mother tongue on the target
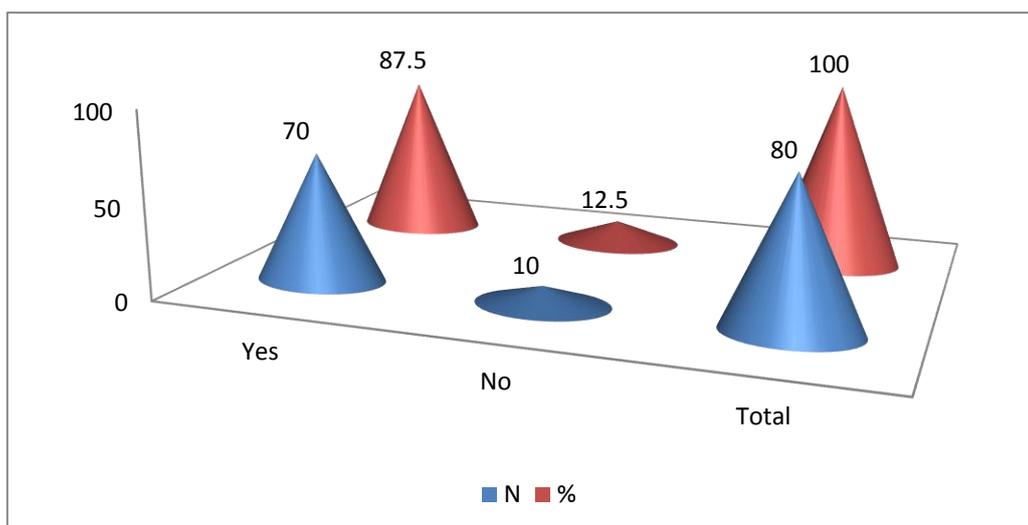
language learning

Figure 6: Students' opinions about the influence of the mother tongue on the target language learning

Depending on the results shown in table 7, the majority of the participants 70 (87,5%) agreed that the first language may interfere in learning the foreign language whereas 10 the participants(12,5%) disagreed with the idea that the mother tongue has an impact on foreign language learning. Therefore, most of the students have experienced the impact of their mother tongue on learning English as a foreign language especially learning vocabulary.

Question 05: Do you speak to your teacher using your mother tongue?

Response	N	%
Always	03	3,75
sometimes	63	78,75
Never	14	17,5
Total	80	100

Table 8: Students' use of the mother tongue with their teacher
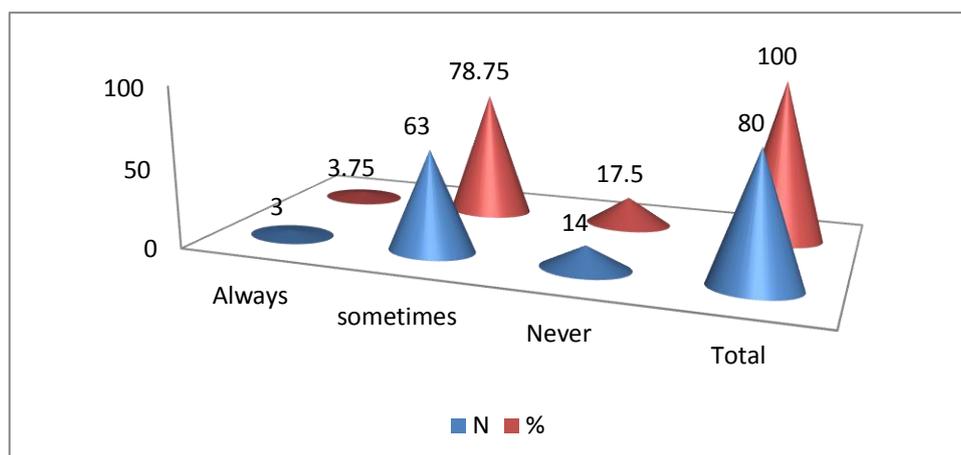
Figure 7: Students' use of the mother tongue with their teacher

It is clear in the above table that (3,75%) of the participants asserted to use their mother tongue all the time when speaking with their teacher. The majority of them 63 (78,75%) claimed that they sometimes use their mother tongue with their teacher, whereas only 14 (17,5%) prefer to use only English language to discuss with their teacher. We can realise from this table that the mother tongue is used by the most of the students with their teacher in English language classrooms and it is favourable in learning foreign language.

Question 06: When you discuss classroom topics with your classmate(s) which language do you use?

Response	N	%
English	33	41,25
Arabic	47	58,75
Total	80	100

Table 9: Students' language use in classroom discussion
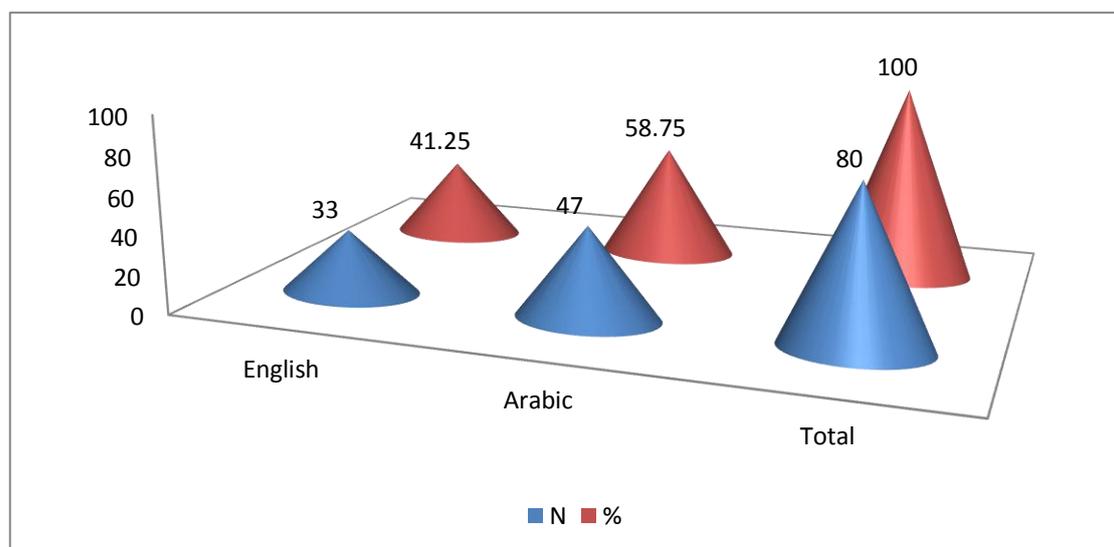
Figure 8: Students' language use in classroom discussion

According to this table, 33 participants (41, 25%) confessed to use English when discussing classroom topics with their classmates. The majority of participants 47 (58,75%), however, use Arabic when discussing classroom topics with their classmates. So, we can deduce that most students use their mother tongue (Arabic) when taking part in discussions and debates in class. This is because their mother tongue may facilitate expressing easily their thoughts and ideas or any difficult points in English language.

Question 07: When you speak to your teacher or to your classmates about external affairs which language do you often use?

Response	N	%
English	26	32,5
Arabic	54	67,5
Total	80	100

Table 10: Students' language in discussing external affairs
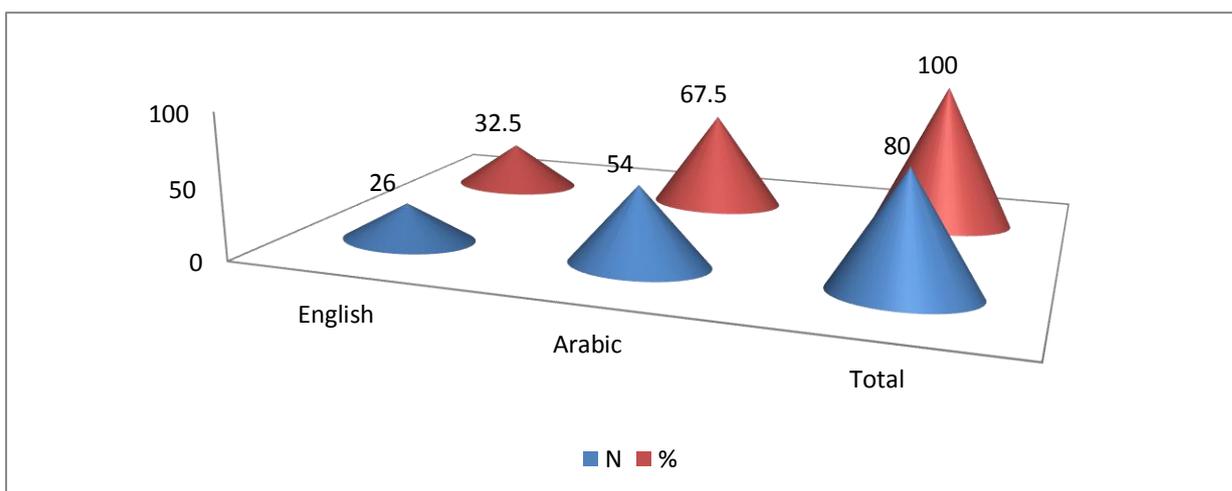
Figure 9: Students' language in discussing external affairs

As it clearly shown in the table above that 26 participants (32,5%) prefer to use English to speak about external affairs with their teacher; however, 54 participants (67,5%) prefer to use their mother tongue to speak with their teacher about outside classroom topics. Consequently, most of the students prefer to use their mother tongue in expressing themselves in topics unrelated to classrooms courses so that they can express themselves easily and freely.

Question 08: When you want to express your ideas, do the linguistic rules of your mother tongue influence the linguistic the linguistic rules of English?

Response	N	%
All the time	03	3,75
Sometimes	69	68,25
Never	08	10
Total	80	100

Table 11: Students' Attitudes about the influence of the mother tongue linguistic rules on expressing ideas in English
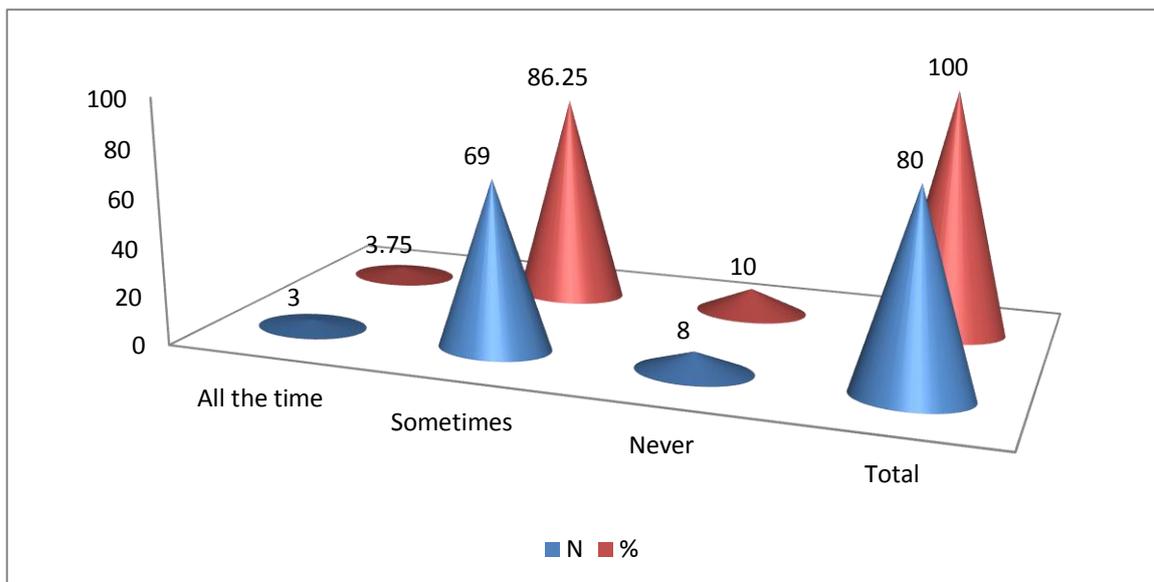
Figure 10: Students' attitudes about the influence of the mother tongue linguistic rules on expressing ideas in English

The results above indicate that 3 students (3,75%) claimed that their mother tongue always interferes in their ideas and thinking when they use the English language. However, the majority of the participants 69 (86,25%) asserted that sometimes they use their mother tongue Arabic in their thinking and in expressing ideas in English. Only 8 students (10%) claimed that they do not use their mother tongue in their writing or thinking in English. Thus, we can notice that students' mother tongue may often interfere in their thinking in English and may have positive or negative effects on their written performance. In fact, only 41students (51,25%) out of 80 explained the process of their mother tongue interference. Their answers go around these points:

1. The mother tongue always interferes in students' way of thinking.
2. It is hard for them to stick only on the linguistic rules of English without referring to their mother tongue.
3. Sometimes borrowing words from Arabic to English may help them to facilitate communication.

4. They claimed that they think in Arabic and write in English.

5. They asserted that they refer to their mother tongue when they face difficult words.

6. Others claimed that they try to use only English because they are good at English that allow them avoiding the use of their mother tongue.

7. They claimed that have not rich vocabulary so they try to find the meaning in the Arabic language.

8. They indicated that their mother tongue interferes in their writing unconsciously.

Question 09: When you face a difficult word, what do you use?

Response	N	%
English dictionary	22	27,5
Arabic-English dictionary	49	61,25
Other	09	11,25
Total	80	100

Table 12: Students' strategy with a difficult word
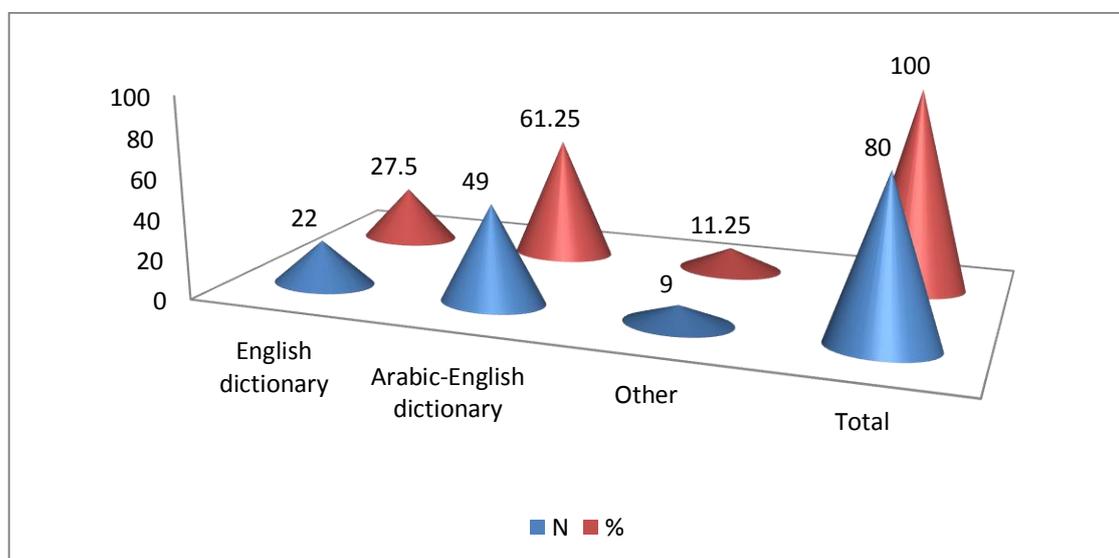
Figure 11: Students' strategy with a difficult word

Depending on the results that are clear in the above table, 22 of the participants (27,5%) use an English dictionary when they face a difficult word whereas the majority of them 49 (61,25%) use an Arabic dictionary in order to understand the meaning of the

difficult words. Only 9 (11,25%) of the students claimed that they often use a bilingual dictionary the one that includes both languages Arabic and English and use also French-English dictionary. So, the majority of students prefer using Arabic language as their mother tongue to understand difficult words; they resort to the mother tongue as a strategy in understanding English vocabulary because the lack of English vocabulary mastery. The other students (27,5%) use English vocabulary because they have a rich background of English vocabulary; thus, they do not need to rely on their mother tongue vocabulary.

Question10: Do you know about the similarities and differences between English and Arabic?

Response	N	%
Yes	51	63,75
No	29	36,25
Total	80	100

Table 13: Students' knowledge about the similarities and differences between English and Arabic
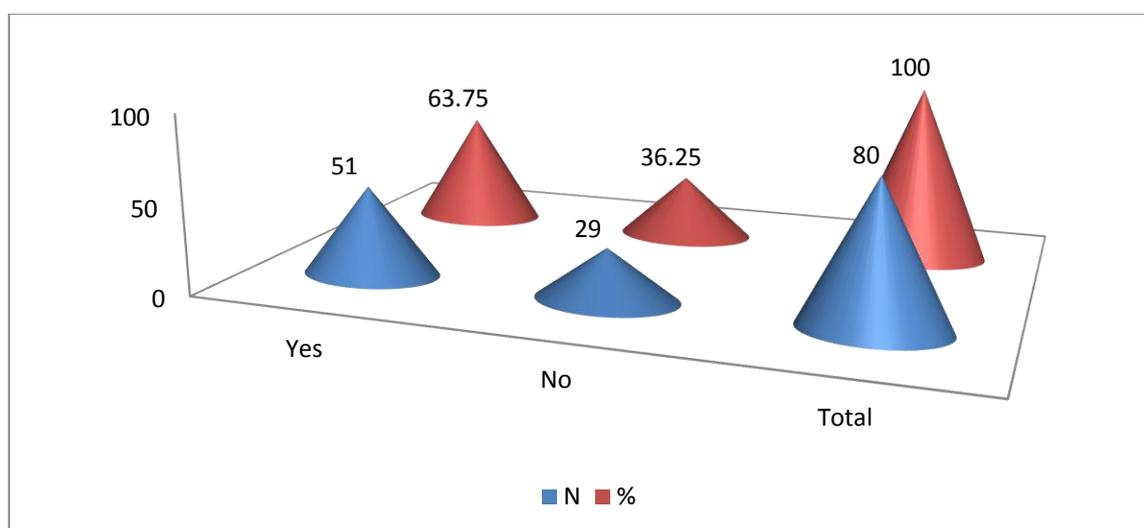
Figure 12: Students' knowledge about the similarities and differences between English and Arabic

As it clear in this table that the majority of the participants 51 (63,75%) claimed that they know the similarities and the differences between Arabic and English languages whereas

29 participants (36,25%) reported that they are not aware of the similarities and the differences between both languages. So, we can realise that the majority of them can control the impact of mother tongue in learning vocabulary, especially in their writing.

Item 11: Can you give the equivalent of those idioms in English to the following Arabic idioms?

ـ إن هذا الشبل من ذلك الأسد

ـ *طلب* العلم من المهد إلى اللحد

Response	N	%
Correct	12	15
Wrong	30	37,5
No Answer	38	47,5
Total	80	100

Table 14: Students' English equivalents of Arabic idioms
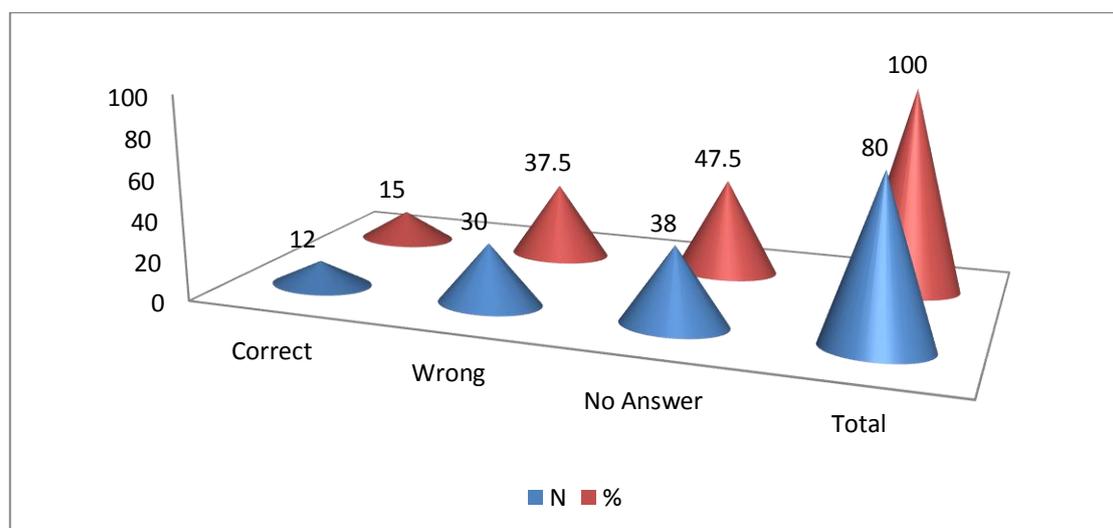
Figure 13: Students' English equivalents of Arabic idioms

According to the results of this table, only 12 students (15%) succeeded in interpreting correctly the Arabic idioms into English while 30 students (37,5 %) have failed and 38 (47,5%) did not give any answer. Thus, we can deduce from these results that the majority of students have difficulties with vocabulary mastery. Indeed, the majority of

them translate word by word and do not focus on the whole meaning of the idioms. This also reflects the lack of awareness of English language culture.

Question 12: Can you give the equivalent of those idioms in Arabic to the following English idioms?

- Charity begins at home
- Four eyes see better than two

Response	N	%
Correct	09	11,25
Wrong	46	57,5
No Answer	25	31,25
Total	80	100

Table 15: Students' Arabic equivalents of English idioms
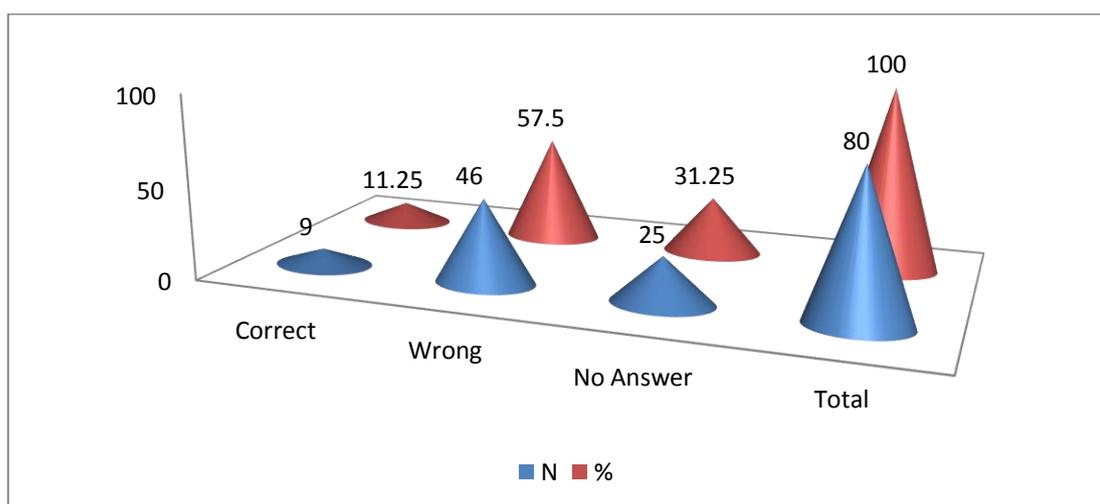
Figure 14: Students' Arabic equivalents of English idioms

The results obtained from this question show that only 9 participants (11,25%) have succeeded in giving the correct equivalent of the English idioms into Arabic because of their knowledge of English culture and nature. Nevertheless, 46 participants (57,5%) have failed in giving the correct equivalents, and 25 participants(31,25%) have not given the equivalents of English idioms because of their low level of English vocabulary. Therefore, most of students failed to give correct equivalents of English idioms in Arabic because most of them use direct translation (word by word) and neglect the meaning of words when

they are together; also, they are not aware enough of the differences and the similarities of both languages as well as both cultures.

Section Three: Learning Foreign Language Vocabulary

Question 13: In your point of view how important is learning vocabulary to foreign language teaching?

Response	N	%
Very important	58	72,5
Important	22	27,5
Less important	00	0
Total	80	100

Table 16: Students' opinions about the importance of vocabulary learning
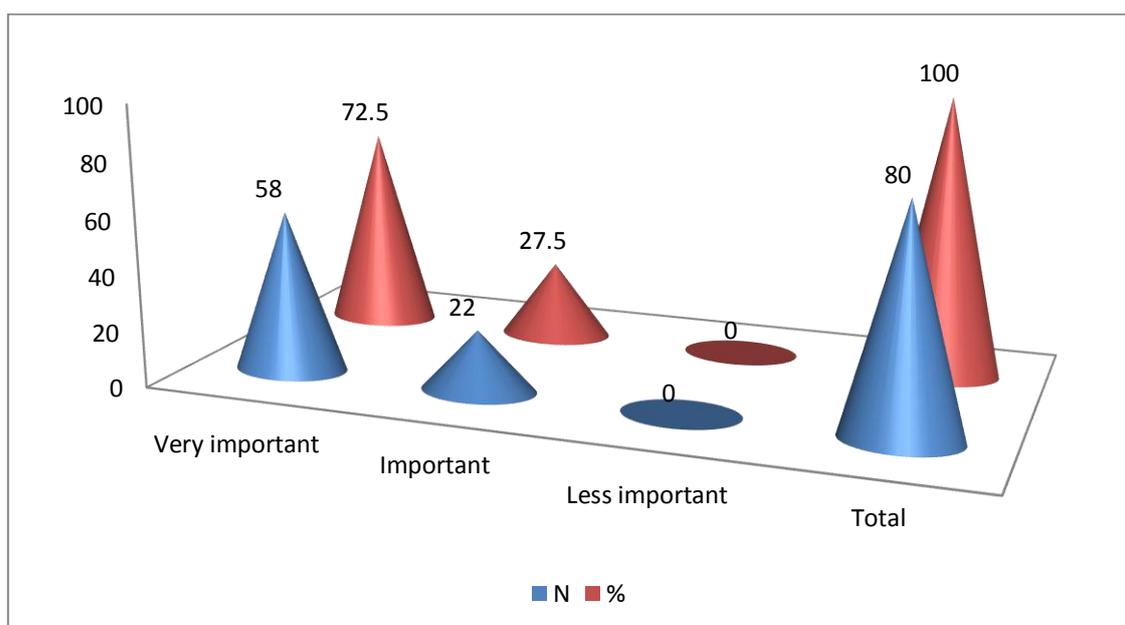
Figure 15: Students' opinions about the importance of vocabulary learning

It clear is in the above table that 58 of the participants (72,5%) agreed that vocabulary learning is very important whereas other participants 22 (27,5%) claimed that vocabulary learning is only important. So, most of the students agreed that learning vocabulary is important in learning foreign languages and no one among them denied its significance.

Question 14: What does your teacher use to present a new vocabulary to you?

Response	N	%
Give examples	48	60
Give definition	16	20
Give explanation	16	20
Total	80	100

Table 17: Teacher's way of presenting a new vocabulary to students
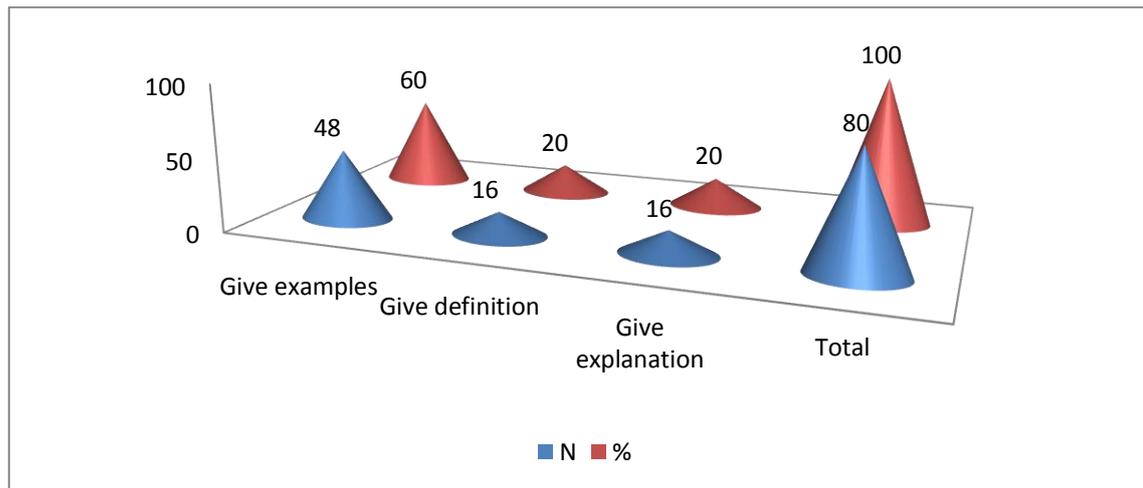
Figure 16: Teacher's way of presenting a new vocabulary to students

The answers collected in the table above reveal that the majority of participants 48 (60%) claimed that their teachers prefer giving examples when presenting new vocabulary whereas 16 participants (20%) reported that their teachers give definitions, and the other 16 (20%) students claimed that their teachers prefer giving explanations when presenting new vocabulary. Thus, most teachers use examples in introducing new vocabulary as they may find it a useful and effective way to teach and explain new vocabulary items to their learners.

Question 15: Which method does your teacher use in teaching vocabulary items?

Response	N	%
Give the word with its meaning in L1	13	16,25
Give the word with its meaning in the target language	40	50
Let the students guess the meaning by their own	11	13,75
Give synonyms in both languages	26	32,5
Total	80	100

Table 18: Teacher's method in teaching vocabulary
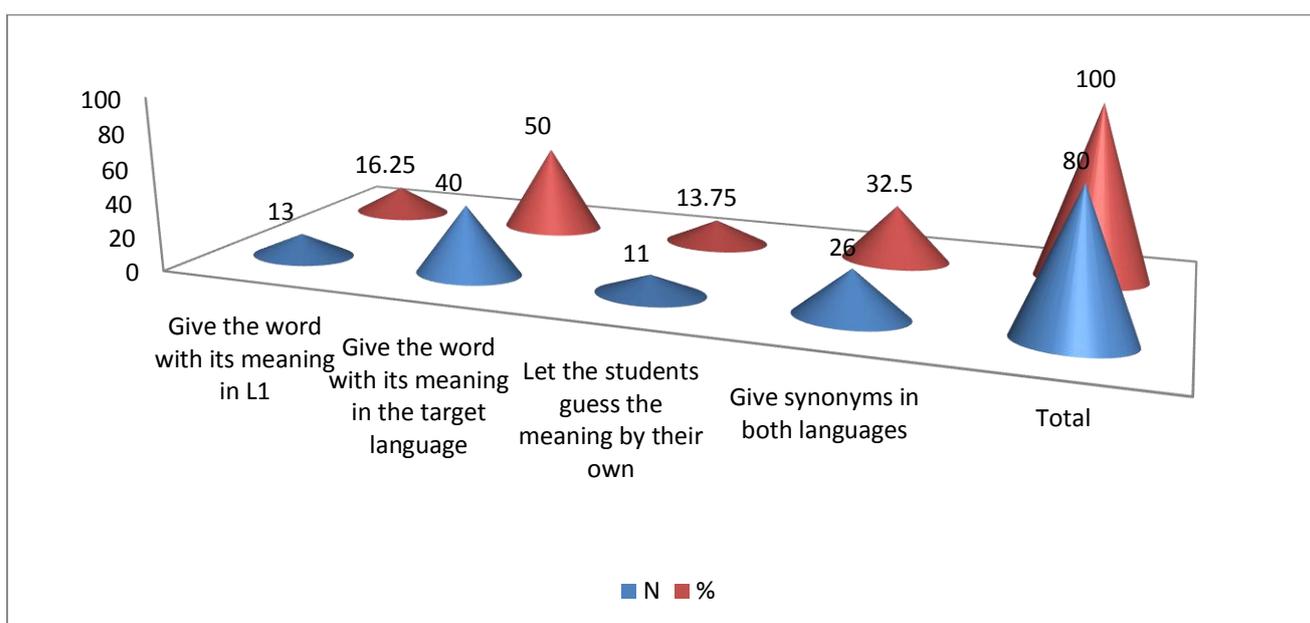
Figure 17: Teacher's method in teaching vocabulary

As it clear in this table above, 13 participants (16,25%) revealed that their teachers give the word in its meaning in L1 as a method in teaching vocabulary items. Other participants 40 (50%) claimed that their teacher explain the words in the target language as a method of teaching vocabulary items. Few students 11 (13,75%) asserted that their teacher let them guess the meaning by their own whereas 26 students (32,5%) confessed that their teachers give synonyms in both languages in teaching vocabulary items. Therefore, most teachers explain vocabulary items in the target language and rarely use the mother tongue but only in emergencies or with low level students.

Question 16: Does your teacher provide you with more other activities and different materials to enrich your knowledge?

Response	N	%
Yes	62	77,5
No	18	22,5
Total	80	100

Table 19: Teacher's providing activities that enrich students' knowledge
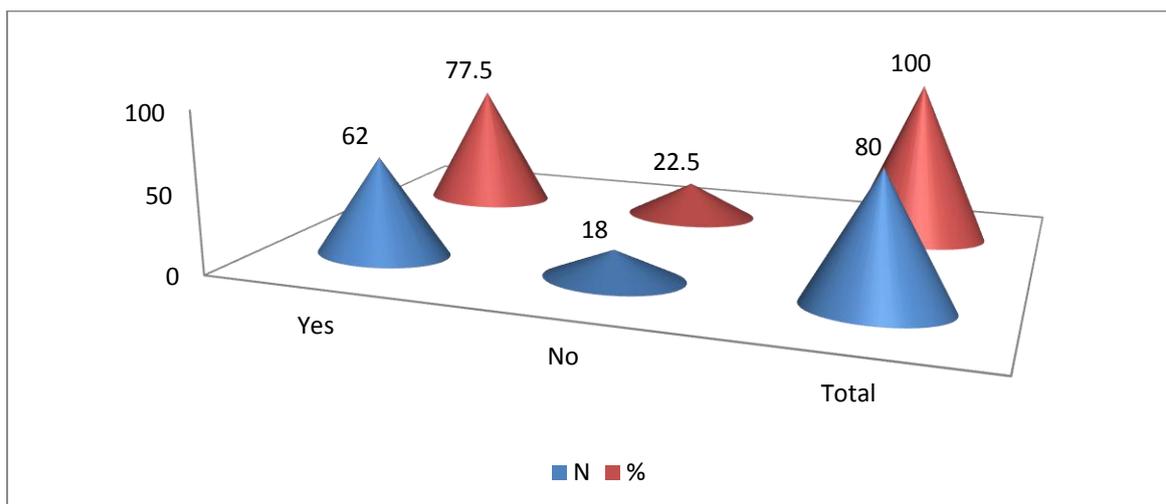
Figure 18: Teacher's providing activities that enrich students' knowledge

According to the answers collected, the majority of the participants 62 (77,5%) agreed that their teachers provide them with many activities that enrich their knowledge whereas only 18 participants (22,5%) claimed that their teachers do not provide them with activities that develop their knowledge. Therefore, most of the students asserted that their teachers afford activities and varied tasks that help, develop, and increase their vocabulary knowledge in English as a foreign language.

Question 17: When you do not understand a word in a sentence or in a paragraph what do you do?

Response	N	%
Guess the meaning from the context	40	50
Translate to your mother tongue	32	40
Ask your classmates	7	8,75
Avoid it	0	0
Total	80	100

Table 20: Students' strategy comprehension of a word in a sentence or in a paragraph
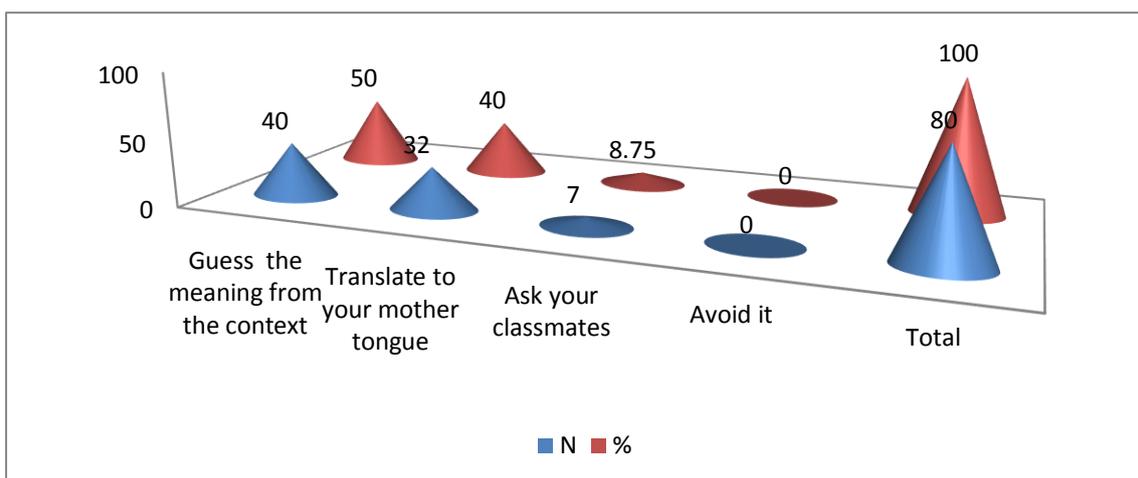
Figure 19: Students' strategy comprehension of a word in a sentence or in paragraph

Basing on these results above, 40 of the participants (50%) use guessing the meaning from the context as a strategy in comprehending a word whereas 32 of the participants (40%) translate the words into their mother tongue to understand the meaning, and 7 students (8,75%) try to ask their classmates to get the meaning of the words. However, we observed that no one of the participants (0%) use the avoidance strategy in attempt to understand a word. So, most of the students rely on guessing from the context as well as on the translation into their mother tongue as a strategy in trying to comprehend the meaning of the words in a sentence or in a paragraph because they find that these two strategies help them in learning English vocabulary.

Question 18: What ways that can help you in learning vocabulary?

Response	N	%
In group work	43	53,75
In pair work	22	27,5
Individually	15	18,75
Total	80	100

Table 21: Student's organizations that help in learning vocabulary
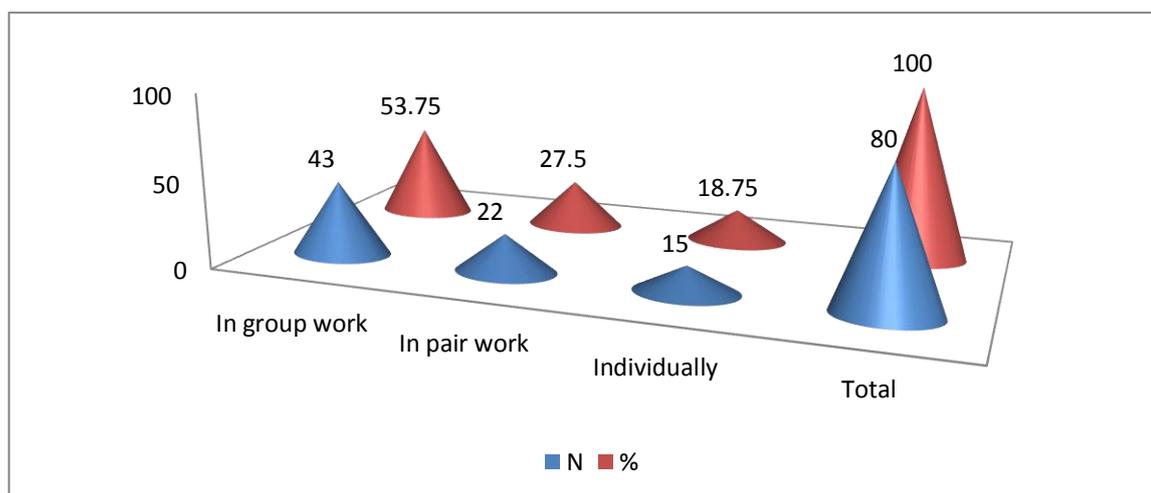
Figure 20: Student's organizations that help in learning vocabulary

As it shown in the table, 43 (53,75%) of the participants prefer working using group work method whereas 22 (27,5%) of them like better pair work. However, only 15 (18,75) have a preference working alone. Thus, we notice that most of the students prefer working and doing their tasks in a group work because this way help them in exchanging ideas and providing more information and knowledge to the given topics especially when they need vocabularies to express their thoughts.

Question 19: In your point of view what is the effective classroom activity or task in learning vocabulary?

At the end of the questionnaire, we left some lines for students to express their suggestions and propositions about the effective and favourable task or an activity that helps them in understanding and acquiring more English vocabulary. Unfortunately, only 61 (76,25%) of the participants answered this questions. They suggested the following:

1. Teachers' classrooms activities should be rich and have more varied vocabularies.

2.   More plays and performing actions help in learning English vocabulary.

3. Using the words in meaningful sentences help the students in learning vocabularies and giving examples lead the students to memorise those words.

4. Providing more reading opportunities in English classrooms.

5. Using translation into their mother tongue in some tasks.

6. Using group work in learning vocabularies and correcting our spelling mistakes.

7. Providing more discussion and communication.

8. Theme and version is the effective classroom activity to learn new vocabulary.

9. Watching real English videos can help using the appropriate words.

10. Giving more chances to write and correct their written work in each secession.

11. In each session teacher should measure how much vocabulary learnt by their students and make them experience those words in given tasks.

12. Teaching culture of both languages through vocabularies lead the students to be aware of the appropriate use of different vocabularies.

3.3.2 Teachers' Interview

Teachers' interview is another data gathering tool. It has done to strengthen our data and to collect additional information that serves our study for testing our hypothesis. It is done with different teachers with different experiences and teaching different modules.

3.3.2.1 Description of Teacher' Interview.

Teachers' interview contains open-ended questions, which designed to get more insights and information from four (4) teachers' experiences in teaching vocabulary to their students. It includes ten (10) questions to the teachers in attempting to know their ideas, methods, and suggestions about the interference of mother tongue in learning vocabulary, how they see mother tongue use as helper factor or as hurdling and embarrassing one, and how they teach and present vocabulary items to their students in their courses.

3.3.2.3 Interview's Analysis.

Question one: How long have you been teaching English at the university?

Teacher 1: "14 years"

Teacher 2: "12 years"

Teacher 3: "7 years"

Teacher 4: "3 years."

From the teachers' replies, we can deduce that the scope of our respondents experience in teaching vocabulary at the university ranges from fourteen years to three years. This means that our respondents have different backgrounds about foreign language learning and learners and have spent enough time in dealing with teaching vocabulary. Consequently, it is positive in the sense that they have different views that can help our subject of investigation.

Question two: Do you think that mother tongue influence the foreign language learning?

Teacher 1: "Yes, simply because the students still think in Arabic and transmit their message using English terms"

Teacher 2: "Yes, I do. The influence can be positive and it can be negative as well"

Teacher 3: "yes. Students have tendency to refer to their mother tongue and try to find similarities to help them learn easier the target language. However, this method is generally ineffective and hinders their process of learning. Indeed, the two languages have more differences than similarities such in the syntax, grammar (sentence word order, parts of speech and their use….) , sound system, vocabulary (spelling, pronunciation, use and

meaning), etc…Therefore, students will make mistakes when speaking and writing and this will hinder/prevent them to learn the T.L successfully. Moreover, students generally ignore the cultural side of both languages. Therefore, students would fall in grammar as well as in semantic/meaning errors when they try to apply their L1 cultural insights into their foreign language use"

Teacher four: "yes, in many cases."

   In answering this question, all of teachers agree that the mother tongue of the students influence the foreign language learning and they assert that the students still think in Arabic but they use English terms in expressing their ideas. So, all of the teachers agree that the mother tongue may influence a foreign language learning.

Question three: Do you use students' mother tongue in explaining difficult words?

Teacher 1: "Rarely"

Teacher 2: "I rarely use it. In fact, I explain using L1 only when the other strategies did not work"

Teacher 3: "Sometimes, yes in order to gain time, but this done after many trials to explain in the foreign language by giving synonyms or using those words in definite examples/ contexts"

Teacher 4: "Never"

   According to the answers of our respondents, most of teachers claim that they sometimes use the mother tongue of students mainly when the other ways do not work or as a final strategy and only after many strategies in foreign language, whereas some teachers refuse the use of students'L1. Thus, we can realized that the mother tongue of the students can be a tool in explaining difficult words in some cases and it is not completely neglected by the majority of the teachers.

Question four: Do you allow your students to use their mother tongue in your classes?

Teacher 1: "No. I always ask them to use the target language so that they will improve their knowledge"

Teacher 2: "Yes, I do. However, the use is limited and in certain cases.

Teacher 3: "Very rarely. I allow that when they cannot find a specific word/expression which they need to complete their thought/sentence. However, I help them to use different strategies (gestures, think of synonyms …) and advise them to avoid thinking in L1 and using it in class"

Teacher 4: "Never"

Depending on our respondents' replies, the majority of teachers claim that they refuse the over use of L1 in their classes and its use should be limited and only in rare cases L1 is used. However, other teachers completely refuse L1use in their classes. So, we can notice that the majority of teachers encourage and support the target language and totally against the overuse of L1.

Question five: When and how do you refer to L1?

Teacher 1: "Only if the students fail to grasp the meaning of one concept or one idea. So I may provide it in their L1 whether orally or written on the board"

Teacher 2: "I refer to L1 to confirm the comprehension/reception of instructions or to clarify difficult unfamiliar words"

Teacher 3: "I refer to L1 especially to explain the differences in culture in order to show that they are not compatible in many aspects. This is shown mainly through activities like role plays in which students have to act real-life situations. Making errors and not

considering L2 native speakers will lead to misunderstanding and faulty communication. In fact, understanding and considering a target language culture helps greatly learning it. I also use L1 in exceptional cases when students have difficulties to understand a word or a rule even if many techniques have been used. It is a good way to save teacher's time and energy."

Teacher 4: "Enormously, rarely."

As it is clear in the answers of our respondents, the first teacher claims that she refers to L1 when the students fail to understand the meaning of a concept and may use L1 in explaining it orally or written on the board, the second teacher asserts that he refers to L1 to confirm the comprehension of the given instruction and in difficult and unfamiliar words, the third teacher claims that she refers to L1 when showing the differences in culture and in facing difficult words , however the fourth teacher claims that he rarely refers to L1. Consequently, we can come to the point that most of teachers may refer to L1 of the students when their students face problems in comprehension of the target language words or concepts.

Question six: In what extent learning vocabulary is important in your courses?

Teacher 1: "It is very important because most of the students face difficulties in expressing themselves due to their shortage of vocabulary"

Teacher 2: "It is important to very far extent. Without vocabulary, learning a language becomes meaningless"

Teacher 3: "very important. Learning vocabulary helps students understand the teacher's explanations and instructions, do activities and tasks, interact with the teacher and their classmates, understand reading texts, answer questions, write paragraphs and essays,

present projects. It also serves to understand media and develops their speaking and writings skills as students would have a wider range of words and expression to use when they come to communicate, interact, and be evaluated."

Teacher 4: "It is pivotal"

In answering this question, all the teachers agree that learning vocabulary is very important since the students find difficulties in expressing their ideas because of the lack of vocabulary knowledge; it is also linked to learning a language and helps the students to learn the language. Therefore, we can understand that learning vocabulary is very important and essential in learning a foreign language.

Question seven: How do you introduce the vocabulary items to your students?

Teacher 1: "Generally, I introduce the topic by asking some general questions and then we focus on the vocabulary linked to the discussed topic"

Teacher 2: "I sometimes introduce it through a context or through an illustrative explanation i.e. give examples"

Teacher 3: "Sometimes, vocabulary is discussed in texts that students have to read first then try to discover their meaning according to their context or relation to the other words in the sentence or paragraph. Sometimes, they are given in examples (sentences) on the board. Students have to guess their meaning. In the same time they see how they are spelled and pronounced. They are then asked to use these vocabularies in examples of their own to learn them. The most important thing is to teach vocabulary in contexts and never in isolation. At last, I sometimes ask students about the translation of the new vocabulary (into their mother tongue) to make sure they grasped well the meaning and use.

Teacher 4: "mainly through texts."

Relying on the answers of our respondents and in answering this question, the first teacher asserts that she first asks questions to her students then focus on the vocabulary items that are linked to her lesson, the second teacher claims that he introduces vocabulary items through context or illustrative explanations, the third teacher indicates that she introduces vocabulary items through guessing from the context, giving examples and using the students' mother tongue, and the fourth teacher claims that he mainly introduces them through texts. So, it is clear that the teachers use varied strategies in presenting vocabulary items including guessing, providing examples, asking questions and they may use L1 of their students.

Question eight: Which method do you follow in teaching vocabulary items to your students?

Teacher 1: "No answer"

Teacher 2: "Teaching through context encourages learner to use their prediction and guessing skills especially in reading difficult words"

Teacher 3: "As explained previously, vocabulary is taught in context (written text, sentences, or in speech). Sometimes, I use audio visual aids (in oral expression sessions) to show to students how native speakers of L2 pronounce (use of stress, intonation, rhythm) and use (in context) some specific vocabulary in addition to how gestures and facial expression are associated with these words. It is important to make students practise the new learnt words through using them in written compositions or orally in a speech performance (dialogue, role play, oral presentation of a topic …)"

Teacher 4: "did not provide any answer"

According to the respondents' replies, most of teachers uses context method, visual aids and gestures. Thus, we can realize the most used method in teaching vocabulary mainly through context.

Question nine: How do you organize your students in your courses?

Teacher 1: "Either in pairs or in small groups of 3-4 students per group depending on the topic to be talked"

Teacher 2: "Generally, they arrange themselves the way they prefer. But sometimes I group them in pairs or small groups of my own preference."

Teacher 3: "I use different techniques according to the course objectives. They mostly work individually, sometimes in pairs and other times in groups"

Teacher 4: "Sometimes in groups, sometimes individual work."

Depending on the respondents' answers, some of teachers prefer to organize their students either into pairs or small groups, others use individual work or give the freedom to their students to arrange themselves as they prefer and the majority of the teachers arrange their students according to the objectives of their courses, while the fourth teacher arrange his students whether in groups or pairs. Therefore, we can recognize that the teachers prefer arranging their students in small groups or in pairs because this way of organization may help students and teachers in improving learners' performance and obtaining teachers' objectives.

Question ten: In your point of view what is the effective method in teaching vocabulary?

Teacher 1: "Providing a variety of activities tackling different subjects, therefore, the students will acquire a variety of vocabulary items. Besides, I always advise my students to read a lot to develop their vocabulary in different fields of study."

Teacher 2: "Teaching through context is useful for advanced learner. Beginner many prefer other ways as using pictures, miming, and examples and in some cases using L1for particular cases would be useful as well."

Teacher 3: "Teaching vocabulary in context because the meanings of many words change according to their use in particular sentences and contexts. Moreover, vocabulary has to be taught their form then their meaning. That is to say, learners have first to visualize the word (its shape, i.e. spelling by making them write the word as well as its articulation by making them say it). Second, students have to understand the meaning through gestures, actions, showing the object/picture corresponding to the word, or by giving synonyms and opposites, and sometimes even by translating it in the mother tongue. Additionally, students have to practice the new word both orally and in writing in order to memorize its form, meaning and use"

Teacher 4: "It depends on the type of the students. I am flexible. I may use more than one method in one session."

According to the answers of our respondents, most of teachers provide variety of activities including different subjects, reading, using, context, giving examples and using L1 in some cases can be effective methods in teaching vocabulary. As a result, we can deduce that most of the teachers use varied methods and strategies in teaching vocabulary and the most effective ones as they suggest are reading, providing more activities, context,

giving examples and using L1 of the students in teaching vocabulary items to their learners.

3.3.3. Classroom Observation

3.3.3.1. Description of Classroom Observation

Our classroom observation has taken place in the second semester 2016/2017 with different classes of third year students at English division of Biskra University. It has taken two weeks in which we have attended four (4) sessions, two sessions in written expression module and other two sessions in theme and version module. In classroom observation, we aimed at interpreting the attitudes of the students on how they learn vocabulary and how they use their mother tongue in learning vocabulary. Besides, we tried to investigate their mother tongue interference can help them in learning vocabulary items or may mislead them.

In addition, we have tried to investigate teachers' attitudes toward the use of the mother tongue in their classrooms and how they presenting vocabulary items to their students.

Also, in classroom observation, we have focused on all the points that help and have relation with the topic of our research. We relied and followed our own personal classroom observation sheet through analysing students' interaction, their attitudes on searching and looking for vocabulary, analysing how their mother tongue can interfere in their written production and analysing their errors that they have made when writing paragraphs or short essays. Moreover, we have relied on their answers on how they express their ideas and investigate if their mother tongue interferes in their written performance. Our classroom observation treats tree sections:

Section one: Classroom Atmosphere. It consists of three elements that are linked to the atmosphere of the language classroom which have an important impact on the teacher and the learner performance.

Section two: Teacher's attitudes. This section consists of seven elements that aim at investigating the teacher's attitudes and behaviours that are related with our subject of investigation.

Section three: Students' attitudes. It consists of ten elements about students' behaviour that are linked to our field of the study and help our research to confirm our hypothesis.

3.3.3.2. Classroom Observation Results.

Section one: Classroom Atmosphere

Item one: The classroom exhibits a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for the learners to participate naturally within tasks

Item 01	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	1	1	0	0
Total	4			

Table 22: The effect of classroom atmosphere on learners' performance

According to our observation, in all the three sessions, the classroom shows friendly and comfortable atmosphere. However in the fourth session, which was in the afternoon, the weather was very hot and leads the students do not react well with their teacher. Consequently, we can realize that the classroom atmosphere may play an impact on both the teacher and the learner performance as well.

Item two: The Learners show a high level of comfort and ease

Item 02	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	1	1	0	0
Total	4			

Table 23: Learners' manifestation of comfort and ease

We have observed that in the three sessions, the learners often show a high level of comfort and ease and this was very clear and often reflected in their performance and reaction with their classmates and their teacher. However, in the fourth session, the weather and the afternoon time cause a problem in having a good interaction especially at the beginning of the lesson but with the personality of the teacher and his strategies help, attract the learners and encourage them to work.

Item three: The sitting arrangements of the class encourage effective written production

Item 03	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 24: The effect of the sitting arrangements on learners' written production

We have noticed that in all the four sessions that we have attended that the teacher often arrange their students in groups mainly three to four students. This sitting arrangement of groups may help the teacher to have good written performance and also it may help the learners to get more knowledge especially in vocabulary and may improve their written production.

Section two: Teacher's attitudes

Item four: The teacher explains the links between new concepts to the students' background experience and prior learning

Item 04	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 25: The teacher explanation of the links between the new concepts and prior learning

We can notice that most of the teachers make links between the previous learning points with new given concepts taking into account the background knowledge of their learners, in which is done at the beginning of the session.

Item five: The teacher uses different techniques in explaining vocabularies and difficult concepts

Item 05	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	0	2	0	0
Total	4			

Table 26: Teacher's techniques towards vocabularies and difficult concepts

In the first session, we have observed that the teacher often uses different techniques in explain vocabularies and difficult concepts about 'blood types and its relation with human personalities' as the topic of his lesson. He uses explanation, examples, definition and asking questions to his students. In the second session, the teacher sometimes uses different techniques about translating an Arabic text about 'the issue of Namibia'. He uses explanation, examples, definition, and the mother tongue of the students. In the third session, we have noticed that the teacher often uses different techniques in presenting vocabulary to his students. He uses explanation, definition, examples and sometimes few words in Arabic concerning writing an essay about 'education and knowledge skill'.

However, in the fourth session, we have observed that the teacher sometimes uses different techniques and he mainly uses mother tongue of the students, explanation, and definition in interpreting English text into Arabic language which is about 'discussed problems between Sudanese president and Algerian president' as a topic of his lesson. Thus, most of the teachers use different techniques in explaining vocabularies and difficult concepts including mother tongue of the students in some cases, because they show awareness of the similarities and the differences between Arabic and English and the mother tongue may be useful and helpful in particular cases.

Item six: The teacher uses only the target language in explaining the tasks

Item 06	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 27: The teacher use of the target language

While attending the fourth sessions, we have noticed that the four teachers often use the target language in explaining the tasks of their courses. Thus we can realize that the most teachers prefer using the target language in explain and presenting the tasks of their courses.

Item seven: The teacher uses a variety of strategies to make the target language comprehensible

Item 07	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
percentage	100	0	0	0

Table 28: The teacher use of variety of strategies in target language comprehension

In the first session, we have observed that the teacher often uses a variety of strategies to make the target language comprehensible; he uses asking questions, writing the word in

the board, using gestures, asking the students opinions, giving instructions and advising and using the mother tongue in specific cases. In the second session, the teacher often tries to make the target language comprehensible by using different strategies like translation, giving instructions, asking questions, and turning around the groups. In the third session, we have noticed that the teacher often uses different strategies to facilitate the target language to his students like explaining, giving synonyms, asking questions, using gestures, and refers somehow to the mother tongue of the students, whereas in the fourth session, the teacher often uses different ways in making the target language understandable, he uses translation, synonyms, and asking questions. Therefore, we can notice that teachers in order to make the target language comprehensible and clear to their students, they use a variety of strategies that depend on the different levels and styles of their students and among those strategies they use the mother tongue of their students.

Item eight: The teacher refers to the native language of the students in clarifying difficult words

Item 08	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	0	2	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 29: The teacher use of L1 in clarifying difficult words

In the first session we have observed that the teacher sometimes refers to the native language of the students to clarify difficult words. In the second session, the teacher often refers to the students' mother tongue to explain difficult words. In the third session, the teacher sometimes uses the mother tongue in attempting to clarify difficult terms, while the fourth teacher in the most cases often uses students' mother tongue. Thus we can recognize that the use of students' mother tongue can be helpful in clarifying difficult words or concepts.

Item nine: The teacher allows students to use their mother tongue in the classroom

Item 09	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	0	2	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 30: The teacher permission of the students L1 use

In the four sessions that we have attended, we have observed that the four teachers do not give any reaction on the use of L1 by their students but we have noticed that they mostly they answer their students using the target language. Consequently, we can notice that the use of L1 in language classroom is not forbidden.

Item ten: The teacher shifts to the students' mother tongue when speaking about external affairs or giving advice

Item 10	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 31: Cases of teacher use of L1

We have observed that during the four sessions, the four teachers, in speaking about external topics or in giving advice they first uses the target language then they shift to the students' mother tongue as if those points are not included to the English course. So, we can understand that teachers prefer using L1 of the students to deal with external subjects or especially in giving advice or instructions because may be they think that their objectives or message will be achieved more in L1 rather than in the target language in giving advice.

Section three: Students' attitudes

Item eleven: Students use the target language when they speak to their teacher

Item 11	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 32: Students use of the target language with their teacher

In the four sessions, we have observed that most of the students often use the target language when speaking with their teacher. Thus, we can notice that most of the students understand that they should use the target language with their teachers as it is more appropriate and more academic pedagogical.

Item twelve: Students discuss and learn through communicative tasks

Item 12	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 33: Students' discussion through communicative tasks

We have noticed in the four sessions and with the four teachers that the students discuss, work and learn through communicative tasks. So, we understand that the objectives of the four teachers are based on the idea that language should be leant naturally through communicative performance.

Item thirteen: Students use English dictionaries to find the meanings of the words

Item 13	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	0	2	0	0
Theme and Version	0	0	2	0
Total	4			

Table 34: Students' use of English dictionaries

In the first session, we have observed that students sometimes use English dictionaries. In the second session students rarely use English dictionaries. In the third session, it has remarked that learners sometimes use English or monolingual dictionary. In the fourth session, it was noticed that students rarely use monolingual dictionaries and only a few students do. From those observations we can realized that students do not rely completely on English dictionaries and some of them claim that they will face other difficult words and it takes more time not like the bilingual one.

Item fourteen: Students use bilingual dictionaries to find the meanings of the words

Item 14	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 35: Students' use of bilingual dictionaries

We have remarked in all the fourth sessions that most of the students often use bilingual dictionary (English Arabic / Arabic English dictionary) and the most used dictionary by them is called Q dictionary which is installed in their mobiles looking for words or interpreting their meaning. Thus, we can notice that most of the students agree that bilingual dictionary (English Arabic/Arabic English) is useful and helpful in searching and understanding the meaning of the words, also we can realized that the majority of them agree that 'the Q dictionary' is a practical tool for them.

Item fifteen: Students show different strategies in learning new vocabulary items

Item 15	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 36: Students' strategies in learning new vocabulary item

While attending the first session, we have remarked that the students often show different strategies in learning new vocabulary like asking their teacher, asking their classmates, guessing from the context and using their L1. In the second session, we have observed that learners also often use varied ways in learning new vocabulary like using bilingual dictionaries, asking their teacher and asking their classmates. In the third session, we have noticed that students often show different methods in learning vocabulary items as using monolingual and bilingual dictionary, asking their teacher or their classmates. While in the fourth session, we have noticed that most of the students often exhibit various strategies in trying to acquire or understand new or unknown vocabularies like using bilingual dictionaries and asking members of the group. So, we can notice that in learning and in attempting to comprehend vocabulary items, students may use and show varied strategies that may help them learning vocabularies and finding the intended meaning, the message, or the objective of a sentence or the whole paragraph.

Item sixteen: Students use their native language with their teacher in explaining the given tasks

Item 16	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	0	2	0	0
Theme and Version	0	2	0	0
Total	4			

Table 37: Students' use of L1 with their teacher in course tasks

In the all sessions, we have noticed that students sometimes use their mother tongue in explaining the given tasks. Therefore, we can realize that students often use the target language in speaking with their teacher in dealing with course tasks and L1 is used in some cases.

Item seventeen: Students use their native language with their teacher in speaking about external topics

Item 17	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 38: Students' use of L1 with their teacher about external affairs

While attending the four sessions, we have observed that in all the four sessions most of the students whether they often use first the target language then shift to their mother tongue or they use from the beginning their mother tongue and only a few of them who often use only English language in speaking about external affairs with their teacher. Thus, we can understand that most of the students prefer using their L1 when they dealt with external topics with their teacher.

Item eighteen: Students use the target language (English) when they interact with each other

Item 18	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	0	2	0	0
Theme and Version	0	2	0	0
Total	4			

Table 39: Students' use of target language with their classmates

In observing the four sessions, we have observed that most of the students sometimes use the target language when they interact with each other and some of the students rarely use it. So, most of the students sometimes use English language in discussing with each other and this may be due to the shortage of English vocabulary knowledge and also may be because the overuse and over reliance on their mother tongue.

Item nineteen: Students shift to their mother tongue when they speak to each other

Item 19	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 40: Students' use of L1 with their classmates

According to our observation in the all four sessions that we have attended, we have viewed that the learners often shift to their mother tongue when they speak to each other. In all the sessions, we have observed that the students often keep the essential terms of their lesson in English language but their discussion are mostly in the Arabic language as their mother tongue. So, we can realize that the majority of the students often prefer using their mother tongue when discussing with each other.

Item twenty: Students may write using the target language but their reference is their mother tongue

Item 20	often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Written Expression	2	0	0	0
Theme and Version	2	0	0	0
Total	4			

Table 41: The interference of Students' mother tongue on their written production

In the first session, we have observed that most of the students often use bilingual dictionaries more widely than monolingual dictionaries, this can allow their mother tongue interferes and have an impact on their writing as in this example: 'Blood type A is social people', 'They like to interact with others'. In addition, some English items has no equivalents in Arabic language like the auxiliary 'do', so they can cause problems and mistakes by the students because of their reliance on L1 like: 'They feel not comfortable to do things alone', 'They don't feel uncomfortable' as in Arabic direct translation: ' هم لا يحسون بالراحة للقيام بأشياء لوحدهم'. Most of the students often forget using indefinite articles which has

no equivalent in their Arabic mother tongue like: 'Type A has_ negative side which is doesn't receive from any other types <u>unless the same</u>' also this example show Arabic language influence. Beside mother tongue reliance, we have also observed that most of students put the major attention on searching for vocabulary while ignoring other aspects of language like grammar or put it as a secondary attention, so those attitudes may lead them to make grammatical mistakes that really affect the meaning of the sentence or paragraph like: 'people who have A type are very social, <u>he</u> <u>interact</u>…', 'A type <u>hase</u> his beliefs which <u>makes</u> him…' 'Type AB <u>are</u> considered to be <u>natural entertainers</u>, with <u>their</u> <u>calm and charm</u>'

In the second session, we have observed that the teacher gives to his students a text in Arabic language about 'The issue of Namibia' and asked them to interpret it into English. We have also noticed that the students face difficulties in understanding some Arabic words or phrases like: تعويقها , تجميد قضية استقلال ناميبيا, and ترتيب الخطوط السياسية. Most of the students have not understood those words although they are from their mother tongue. They also face problem in bilingual dictionary because it provides them with many and different synonyms that have different meanings, so they feel confused which meaning or word is appropriate to use. Some of Arabic words or expressions cause problem to the students because they do not have completely equivalents in English language like, بل لقد, وقد تم بالفعل, and أماما , because of the most students often rely on translation word by word rather than on interpreting the whole meaning of the sentence.

We have noticed also that students show a negative feeling towards political topics and words because of the shortage in vocabulary knowledge concerning the political side. In addition, we have observed that unawareness of the differences between the two languages system and different cultures leads them to make mistakes in their writing as it shown in those examples:

Text:

'أما القضية الثانية فهي قضية استقلال ناميبيا التي كانت تعرف سابقا باسم جنوب غرب إفريقيا . وتتلخص هذه القضية في استعمار حكومة جنوب إفريقيا لناميبيا وتعويقها استقلالها الذي هدفت إليه قرارات الأمم المتحدة منذ أكثر من عشرون عاما'

Students' interpretations:

- 'And the second case which <u>used to be known</u>…This case is summarized in the <u>colonism</u> of <u>african</u> government in <u>Nemebia</u> and hinder <u>it's independence</u> which was aimed by The United Nation' decisions <u>since more than twenty year</u>'

- <u>Mistaken the second issue</u> it' the <u>Numbia</u> indepepdence issue which was <u>defiened by name</u> of south western Africa<u>. this</u> issue called <u>to colonized</u> the government of south Africa of <u>Numbia</u>, and <u>bedeviling here independence</u> which was the decision <u>on Unated</u> state <u>since more then 20 years age.</u>

- <u>The second matter affair</u> is affair of independence nambia That <u>it know in</u> The past by southwest Africa. This <u>matter</u> in <u>colonialistion Governed</u> of south Africa to <u>numbia</u> and <u>crippling</u> <u>it's</u> independence <u>That</u> the south Africa Government <u>clonise</u> <u>nambia</u>

Text:

بل لقد وصل الأمر إلى أن صدرت قرارات حاسمة من مجلس الأمن الدولي لهذا الاستقلال وترتيب إجراءات منها القرار رقم : 435

Students' interpretations:

- <u>but the arrengement</u> is <u>reached</u> till <u>bosom</u> a <u>crucial decisions</u> from <u>enternatioanl</u> security <u>devin</u> about this independence <u>.</u> and from it's decision <u>the :</u>435

- The security council declared <u>definite decision</u> about this independence and <u>ordering its procedures</u> that include the decision N° 435

Text:

ولكن تغير السياسة الأمريكية تجاه حكومة جنوب إفريقيا أدى إلى تعويق هذه الحكومة تلك الإجراءات ، بل ورفضتها في النهاية وتجميد قضية استقلال ناميبيا

Students' interpretations:

- the changement of the American policy towards the south African government that lead to these decisions, but also deny them at the end to **freeze** the issue of Namians independence

- but the American politics is changed against south Africa that leading this government to breaking these procedures and preventing and sotopping and it the end case of Nambia independence done

- but, the change of the American policy towards south African government led to handicap those procedures , even refusing them at the end , and stopping , Nambia's independence issue

In the third session, the teacher presents to his students an outline of an essay on the board about 'education and knowledge skills', then he asks them to develop and follow the ideas of the given outline and working in groups. Most of the students often use bilingual dictionary and mainly focus on Arabic-English dictionary in searching for appropriate words to express their ideas, as a result this way may lead to the influence of their mother tongue system and structure in the way of their writing and in expressing their thoughts. We have also noticed that the students often devote much attention to vocabulary and offering less concentration on grammar and this is very clear in their writing and errors in spelling, punctuation and capitalisation and the use of articles as they are shown in those examples:

- 'Educational is one of the most sensitive branch it should be organized' as in Arabic 'التربية هي فرع حساس ويجب أن يكون منظم'

  - 'learners are <u>require</u> <u>remember</u> (instead of memorise) information in order to pass tests and get higher scores (better results) <u>then</u> others' as in Arabic: المتعلمون يحتاجون إلى تذكر معلومات من اجل اجتياز الامتحانات واخذ أعلى العلامات أفضل من ' الآخرين'

- '<u>.the</u> modern world of education calls for new kind of learning in which the focus is <u>deep understanding</u>...'

- 'They will be tested officially to measure their competence level in <u>recalling factual memorized concepts</u> unlike the <u>old fashioned style</u> of education were (where) learners are acquired (required) to remember (memorize) information to pass tests and <u>got higher scoors</u> than others

In the fourth session, we have observed that the teacher provides his learners with English text about 'discussed problems between Sudanese president and Algerian president' and then he asks them to interpret it into their mother tongue and working in groups as usual. Most of the students use bilingual dictionaries which are installed in their mobiles. They mainly use English-Arabic dictionary, so their mother tongue word system and structure may interfere in their writing. The majority of the students face problem in understanding some of English words and phrase in English text and they find difficulties in interpreting them into their mother tongue words like: The multi-sided problems, imminent, incumbent, unshakeable, and liquidation because they found many different equivalents words in meaning in their mother tongue. Also we have observed that the majority of the learners show negative feeling towards political topics, using word by word translation, following Arabic structure, disrespecting of structure of both languages, spelling mistakes and the misuse of prepositions as it is shown in those examples:

The text:

The multi-sided problems faced by our unstable universe and posing an imminent threat for peace make it incumbent upon world leaders to meet to gather for exchanging experiences and finding solutions to the common problems, said the president of Sudan in the dinner banquet which Algerian president held in his honor yesterday evening.

Student's interpretations

- إن المشاكل المتعددة التي يواجهها كوننا الغير مستقر أوشكت على خلق تهديد على السلام.

حفز على رؤساء العالم للالتقاء لتبادل التجارب والبحث حلول للمشاكل المشتركة. قال الرئيس السودان في العشاء

التي أقامها رئيس الجزائر بشرفه ليلة أمس.

- إن المشاكل المتعددة الأوجه التي يواجهها كوننا الغير مستقر و التي تمثل تهديدا قويا للسلام، حتم على زعماء
العالم إن يلتقوا لتبادل التجارب وإيجاد حل لمشاكلهم المشتركة هذا الرأي أورده الرئيس السودان في مأدبة عشاء
التي احتضنها الرئيس الجزائري أمسية البارحة

The text:

There is no doubt that was said by the Sudanese president is considered the best expression of what should be done by the sons of the African continent towards the difficult challenges facing them and calling for solidarity and unity.

Students' interpretations:

- لا يوجد شك أن ما قاله رئيس السودان تعبير المصطلح الأصح لما يجب إن يفعله أولاد القارة الإفريقية نحو
التحديات الصعبة التي تواجههم والمنادي إلى التضامن والوحدة
- لا يوجد شك في ما قاله الرئيس السوداني أن لا يوجد على انه أفضل تعبير يجب أن يصرح من طرف أبناء
إفريقيا نحو التحديات الصعبة التي تواجههم والنداء للتضامن والوحدة

According to these results that are observed in the four sessions that we have attended, we can realise that the errors of the students may mislead their intended message and their ideas will be ambiguous. They show the use of direct translation (word by word) of Arabic passage, spelling mistakes, the misuse of capital letters and punctuation which are completely different from their mother tongue especially in long sentences. Most of those errors are caused by the over reliance on their mother tongue, translation word buy word rather than interpreting the ideas not words, the shortage of vocabulary knowledge, and the unawareness of the differences between the structure and the system of the two languages and the different cultures of both languages.

Conclusion

The analysis of the students' questionnaire, teachers' interview, and the classroom observation allowed us to make a summary about the students and teachers attitudes, opinions and suggestions at Biskra University towards the interference of the mother tongue in learning English vocabulary as a foreign language. Through this analysis we have realised that the mother tongue Arabic language can interfere in the written production of the most third year students of the University of Biskra. Also, they show unawareness of the differences and similarities between the English as a foreign language and Standard Arabic as their mother tongue. In addition, they demonstrate a lack or shortage in English vocabulary and insufficient awareness of English culture that mainly linked to the appropriate use of English words or expressions. However, English teachers show many ways and strategies in encouraging the use of the target language among them the use of L1 and have not show any negative reaction towards the use of the mother tongue by their students. In addition, most of English teachers demonstrate awareness of the similarities and the differences that exist between both languages which can contribute in the positive control the role of the students' mother tongue.

General Conclusion

The teaching EFL mission is to develop learners' abilities and awareness of different elements that help this pedagogical mission or hurdle its way. For that, the investigation which carried out throughout this study has attempted to confirm our hypothesis which is stated in the general introduction which claimed that, if English foreign language learners are aware of the similarities and the differences between their mother tongue and the target language, they will not find difficulties in learning vocabulary in their written production. So, our research work has mainly examined the Algerian teachers' and students' attitudes towards the interference of the mother tongue in learning vocabulary of English language as a foreign language.

In the theoretical part of our research, we have tackled two different variables, mother tongue interference which has been discussed and analysed in chapter one and learning foreign language vocabulary which has been undertaken in chapter two. Therefore, to examine those theoretical beliefs, different research procedures has been administered to test our hypothesis; students' questionnaire, teachers' interview and classroom observation. Based on the data that we have obtained from the previous research tools, we resulted that the majority of the students are unaware enough of the similarities and the differences between their mother tongue standard Arabic and English foreign language which it is obvious in their writing and their errors in language structure and in word system. Also, we have noticed that the most of the third year students face difficulties in learning foreign language vocabulary and this leads them to refer to their mother tongue due to the lack and the shortage in English vocabulary. Besides this, we have observed that most of the students also are not aware enough of English culture and mode because they are closely related to the choice and the appropriate use of words and expressions.

Another important fact revealed throughout our investigation is that most of English teachers are aware of the similarities and differences between both languages, but most of them have not show a clear idea about the use of L1 in their classes and to give a clear perspective of the use of L1 to their students as a pedagogical tool in learning vocabulary or unpleased one because students still feel that it is an embarrassing behaviour.

Finally, we hope that this research have tackled the most significant points about our subject. We look forward that the coming researches will provide us with definite and clear judgments and practical experiences about the use of mother tongue in foreign language classroom and effective strategies on controlling students' mother tongue and on learning foreign language vocabulary.

General Recommendations

Students' mother tongue exists in foreign language classes, so it is an endless attempt to avoid it completely because it is a part of students' identity and it is mainly used and when they learn vocabulary. Thus, as a research requirement, we suggest some recommendations aiming at providing some effective methods in teaching and learning vocabulary and highlighting the awareness of mother tongue role in English classes. However, these effects on the students' written production may be positive or negative.

1. The similarities and the differences between students' mother tongue and the target language should be taught to the students and should be included in the pedagogical syllabuses.

2. Foreign language departments should provide a course devoted only to learn appropriate and adequate vocabulary, measure students' vocabulary size and development, and progress.

3. Teachers should implement the English culture in their courses focusing on the choice of words and expressions that are really used by English people.

4. Teachers, through their courses, should make comparison and contrast between both languages. This help would students in acquiring this skill of comparing and contrasting learning elements because it may assist in acquiring foreign language vocabulary and avoiding the over use of their L1.

5. Students should read more about the similarities and the differences that exist between the mother and the target cultures.

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Appendices

Appendix A:

Students' Questionnaire

Dear student;

This questionnaire serves as a part of a research whose mainly aim is to investigate the **Interference of the Mother Tongue in Learning Foreign Language Vocabulary**. It also studies the role of the mother tongue in foreign language learning as a helping factor or hurdling one.

I would highly appreciate your time and your energy to share your opinions by answering the questions below. Your answers are very important and provide more help for the completion of this work. Please tick (√) the option that represents the answer which you see the best and give full answers if necessary.

Dridi Hanane

Section one: General Information

1. You choice to study English

   - Your own choice ☐
   - Imposed ☐

2. How would you evaluate your level in English?

   - Good ☐
   - Average ☐
   - Low ☐

3. Do you succeed in communicate in English?

   - Yes ☐
   - No ☐

Section Two: Mother Tongue Interference

1. In your opinion does the first language influence the target language?

   - yes

   - No

2. Do you speak to your teacher using your mother tongue?

   - Always

   - Some times

   - Never

3. When you discuss classroom topics with your classmate(s) which language do you often use?

   - English

   - Arabic

4. When you speak to your teacher or to your classmates about external affairs which language do you often use?

   - English
   - Arabic

5. When you want to express your ideas, do the linguistic rules of your mother tongue influence the linguistic rules of English as a foreign language when you speak or write?

   - All the time

   - Sometimes

   - Never

Explain how……………………………………………………………………...........................

……………………………………………………………………………………………..

6. When you face a difficult word what do you use?

  - English dictionary   ☐

  - Arabic-English dictionary   ☐

  - Other …………………………………………………………………..
  …………………………………………………………………………

7. Do you know about the similarities and differences between English and Arabic languages?

  - Yes   ☐

  - No   ☐

8. Can you give the equivalent of those idioms in English to the following Arabic idioms?

  - إن هذا الشبل من ذلك الأسد…………………………………………………
  …………………………………………………………………..

  - طلب العلم من المهد إلى اللحد…………………………………………….....
  …………………………………………………………………..

9. Can you give the equivalent of those idioms in Arabic to the following English idioms?

  - Charity begins at home ………………………………………………
  …………………………………………………………………..

  - Four eyes see better than two……………………………………………..
  …………………………………………………………………..

Section Three: Learning a foreign language vocabulary

1. In your point of view how important is learning vocabulary to foreign language teaching?

  - Very important   ☐

  - Important   ☐

  - Less important   ☐

2. What does your teacher use to present new vocabulary to you?

  - Give examples   ☐

  - Give definitions   ☐

- Give explanations ☐

- Others……………………………………………………………………..
  …………………………………………………………………………

3. Which method does your teacher use in teaching vocabulary items?

   - Give the word with its meaning ☐
     in L1

   - Give the word with its meaning ☐
     in the target language

   - Let the students guess their ☐
     meaning by their own

   - Give synonyms in both ☐
     Languages

4. Does your teacher provide you with other activities and different materials to enrich your knowledge?

   - Yes ☐

   - No ☐

5. When you do not understand a word in a sentence or in a paragraph what do you do?

   - Guess the meaning from the ☐
     context

   - Translate to your mother tongue ☐

   - Ask your classmates ☐

   - Avoid it ☐

6. What ways that can help you in learning more vocabulary?

   - In group work ☐

   - In pair work ☐

   - Individually ☐

7. In your point of view what is the effective method in learning vocabulary?
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………
   …………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix 2:

<center>**Teachers' interview**</center>

Dear teacher;

I would be very grateful if you could help me to answer these questions which mainly aim to gather information about **Mother Tongue Interference on Learning Foreign language Vocabulary**. Your precious collaboration would be mostly appreciated. Thank you.

Q1/ How long have you been teaching English at the university?

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Q2/ Do you think that mother tongue influence the foreign language learning?

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Q3/ Do you use students' mother tongue in explaining difficult words?

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Q4/ Do you allow your students to use their mother tongue in your classes?

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Q5/ When and how do you refer to L1?

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Q6/ In what extent learning vocabulary is important in your courses?

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Q7/ How do you introduce the vocabulary items to your students?

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Q8/ Which method do you follow in teaching vocabulary items to your students?

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Q9/ How do you organize your students in your courses?

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Q10/ In your point of view what is the effective method in teaching vocabulary?

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Appendix 3:

Classroom Observation Check list

Course:…………………………………………………………………………

Date:……………………………………………………………………………

Time:…………………………………………………………………………..

1. **Classroom Atmosphere**	often	sometimes	Rarely	Never
The classroom exhibits a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for the learners to participate naturally within tasks				
The Learners show a high level of comfort and ease				
The sitting arrangements of the class encourage effective written production				
2. **Teacher's attitudes**				
The teacher explain the links between new concepts to the students' background experience and prior learning				
The teacher uses different techniques in explaining vocabularies and difficult concepts				
The teacher uses only the target language in explaining the tasks				
The teacher uses a variety of strategies to make the target language comprehensible				
The teacher refers to the native language of the students in clarifying difficult words				
The teacher allows students to use their mother tongue in the classroom				
The teacher shifts to the students' mother tongue when speaking about external affairs or in giving advice.				
3. **Students' attitudes**				
Students use the target language when they speak to their teacher				
Students discuss and learn through communicative tasks				

Students use English dictionaries to find the meanings of the words				
Students use bilingual dictionaries to find the meanings of the words				
Students show different strategies in learning new vocabulary items				
Students use their native language with their teacher in explaining the given tasks				
Students use their native language with their teacher in speaking about external topics				
Students use in the target language (English) when they interact with each other				
Students shift to their mother tongue when they speak to each other				
Students may write using the target language but their reference is their mother tongue				

Comments:

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الملخص

لقد تأثرت عملية تعليم وتدريس اللغة الأجنبية بعنصر هام جدا في أداء المتعلمين ألا وهو تدخل اللغة الأم. ولذلك، فإن هذا البحث يهدف إلى دراسة تأثير اللغة الأم في تعليم مفردات اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، فإنه يهدف إلى إثبات فائدة اللغة الأم كعامل تربوي أو كعائق في تعليم وتدريس مفردات اللغة أجنبية. وقد استخدمت طريقة وصفية لإجراء هذا البحث واستخدمت أدوات مختلفة لجمع البيانات. في الواقع، قدمنا استبيانا للطلاب، ومقابلة لأساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية وقمنا بإجراء ملاحظة للأقسام طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية في السنة الثالثة التي اخترنا منهم ثمانين طالبا عشوائيا. ولقد أشارت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها إلى أن معظم المتعلمين ليسوا على بينة من أوجه التشابه والاختلاف بين لغتهم الأم والإنجليزية؛ وبالتالي، فإنهم يواجهون صعوبات في تعلم المفردات الإنجليزية والقيام بالأخطاء في كتاباتهم. وأخيرا، اقترحنا بعض التوصيات الفعالة التي من شأنها أن تحل المشكلة ولو بصفة جزئية.