

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra Faculty of Letters and Languages Department of Foreign Languages

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Submitted and Defended by: Ferial Gharib Title The Impact of Negative Transfer in an EFL Situation. The Case of Third Year Students of English of Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.

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Abstract

The current dissertation investigates the interference of mother tongue or "negative transfer" on the student's speaking and writing proficiency, at the Department of English, University of Mohamed Kheider, Biskra, Algeria. The purpose of this study is to examine how far the native language influences students production of a foreign language. Indeed, we hypotheses that If English learners of third year LMD at the university of Mohamed khider of Biskra did not misuse the grammatical, phonological and morphological, this probably due to Negative Transfer. We have adopted the descriptive method because it is a suitable for the nature of the research. Accordingly, we have submitted two questionnaires were administered. One for students and the other is for teachers, the sample contains thirty seven third year students group four and four teachers of oral and written expression. After the analysis of the data collected, the preliminary results confirm that the students' awareness of the influence of the first language lead them to misinterpret some English contexts, thus, errors are produced in target language. This students awareness of the problem investigated can be regarded as a partial and prior solution to the FLL's obstacles in the linguistic acquisition of English.

Dedication

To the memory of my beloved sister Aya

I miss you beyond words. May Allah grant you 'Al Jannah'

To my wonderful parents "Mostapha" and "Fouzia", whose love, encouragement, and

prayers make me reach such

success and honor.

To my sweet and loving sisters: Sabrina, Aya, Tasnim, Malak.

To my wonderful brothers: Lakhdar, Fares, Abd Ibari, Loai.

To my best friends: Samira, Halima, Inas, Fatima, Soundes.

To my sons: Yahia and Ayoub.

To my sister in low: Khaoula.

And all those who help me just with smile.

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Finally, I would like to take this chance to thank third year students who helped me in answering the questionnaire. I am so grateful to each one of them.

List of Abbreviations

- EFL: English as a foreign language
- SLA: Second Language Acquisition
- LMD: License Master Doctorate
- L1: First language
- L2: Second language
- L1 learner: First language learner
- NL: Native language
- CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
- CA: Contrastive Analysis
- UG: Universal Grammar
- TL: Target language
- ILP: Individual Learning Plan
- EA: Errors Analysis
- IPA : India Pale Ale
- Adj: Adjective
- N: Noun

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General Introduction

General Introduction

English language learners in Algeria at University level face a serious problem in the language learning process, namely the Negative Transfer of mother tongue.

Transfer, as an important notion in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), states the situation of previously existing knowledge being extended and expanded to the gaining of new knowledge. Language transfer (also known as L1

interference, linguistic interference, and cross linguistic influence) may occur across both languages in the acquisition of a simultaneous bilingual, from a mature speaker's first language (L1) to a second language (L2) they are acquiring. It is also commonly discussed in the context of English language learning and teaching when L1 knowledge influences L2 understanding and results in errors.

Language transfer can be classified into positive and negative transfer . In behavioral psychology, negative transfer is the interference of the previous

knowledge with new learning, where one set of events could hurt performance on related tasks. In other words, language transfer is the application of linguistic features from one language to another by a bilingual or multilingual speaker.

Language transfer can be found at all linguistic levels. Moreover, one of the underlying reasons is also the confusion resulting from the use of grammar rules of both classic and colloquial Arabic. The difficulties which viewed eventually examined are classified into three linguistic categories: grammatical, phonological, and morphological.

1. Statement of the Problem

Learning a language means learning its grammar, vocabulary, phonology and even culture. linguistic interference .In the process of learning a foreign language, the EFL students use their first language as a facilitating tool and medium to learn it. However this state causes mother tongue interference which represent one of the fundamental problems which face learners of foreign languages. Most of the students rely on the use of their native language, while they try to improve their skills in a foreign language including; listening, speaking, reading and writing. In fact, this research will be devoted to the linguistic aspects : phonology, grammar, morphology . Students do not speak English properly though they learn the English pronunciation and they don't use syntax and morphology appropriately. In sum, the present work analysis the principle causes of this kind of problems.

2. Significance of the Study

The present study will help students to be aware of the numerous factors that influence the interference of the mother tongue or native languages. The work will enable students to improve their proficiency in English especially in pronunciation, grammar and morphology. Additionally, teachers will have some insights into the level at which mother tongue can interfere in the learning pross at University level.

3. Aim of the Study

1-The aim of the study is to investigate in the influence of the L1 transfer on the English writing of EFL students.

2- The identification of the semantic ,grammatical , morphological interlingual errors that students make when they use English.

3-The study attempts to examine the frequency errors caused by the negative learners

4. Research Questions and Hypothesis

4.1 Hypotheses

1-If English learners of third year LMD at the university of mohamed khider of biskra did not misuse the grammatical, phonological and morphological, this probably due to Negative Transfer.

4.2 Research questions

1-Why do EFL learners resort to transfer?

2- Does the mother tongue (Standard Arabic) have a negative effect on EFL learners' written and spoken production?

5. Methodology

The research will be conducted through the qualititative method aiming at confirming the above mentioned research hypothesis.

5.1 Tools: questionnaire to students' in order to gather a reliable information about the extent of mother tongue interference and an interview with some teachers .

5.2 Population: Third Year Students of Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.

5.3 Sample: group four it contains (40 students).

6. Structure of The Research work

This research will be basically divided into three main chapters. Chapters one -and two will be devoted to the theoretical parts of this study. The third chapter concerns the practical part, which includes the data analysis of students 'questionnaire.

The first chapter contains an overview of the concepts of mother tongue, second language, foreign language, transfer, behaviorist view of transfer, cognitive view of transfer, transfer, language transfer theories and types of transfer.

The second chapter is devoted to the description of the grammatical transfer. It intends to highlight the grammatical errors made by this students. Indeed, the most confusing area in grammar is the English tenses as compared with Arabic ones. The difference between the two models is considered to be one of the main reasons behind the problem , for instance present and past tenses are not expressed in the same way .

On the phonological level. In spelling, beyond doubt the most sources of error in pronouncing English words in the lack of the phoneme in Arabic such as /p /, /v/, and the speaker will choose a close phoneme sound from Arabic as /b/, /f/; so there is an interference of the Arabic mother tongue on the learner pronouncing English.

On the morphological level, analysis proved that the students are not aware of the different morphological systems of Arabic and English. Morphological errors (derivatives, both inflectional and derivational in the forms of affixes: suffixes and prefixes). Such mechanism of word formation in English known in Arabic, so the students misuse these morphemes which result in erroneous sentences.

Finally the last chapter is devoted to analyzing and interpreting the data gathered from the questionnaire. It is divided into two main parts; the first part is concerned with the description of the research methodology, research instruments, and population. The second part consists of the data the findings and results of an investigation .

Chapter One

General Concepts of Language

Chapter One : General Concepts of Language.

Introduction

Over the past period first language interference has been among the main issues in the field of teaching and acquiring a second language. In this chapter, there are some general concepts related to mother tongue, second language, second language acquisition (SLA) and Foreign Language. within this context, the chapter includes an overview of transfer, language transfer in terms of their history, nature, along with their definitions and theories. Also, the chapter summarizes the types of transfer; Positive transfer and Negative transfer, and discusses causes and consequences of Language Transfer. Lastly, the chapter summarizes some Procedures of EFL learning process and the types of errors produced by the EFL learners.

1.1 Definitions of Mother Tongue (First language)

A mother tongue, according to Cambridge Dictionary, is the first language you learn as an infant, rather than one you learn at school or as an adult.

A person's mother tongue or native language, according to Ashworth (1992), is the language that people learn in their early years and that becomes their natural tool for thought and communication. "Mother-tongue interference" refers to the impact of a learner's native language on their target language learning. As a result, the following definition from Richards, C. John Platt, and H. Platt (1992) :

"native language (usually the language which a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and/or it is the language of the country where he or she is living. The native language is often the first language the child acquires...)".

As Kaplan & Baldauf (1997, p. 19) put it, referring to the example of a child born to a Tamil-speaking mother in Malaysia possibly acquiring Tamil, Straits Malay and/or Straits Chinese, and/or Bahasa Melayu, and/or English, "be a native speaker of a language even though one's mother was not.

The learner's desired target language is referred to as the target language (L2). To summarize, first language educators more often use the term L1 to refer to a person's first or native language, which is a language acquired during childhood and is an integral part of their identity. Skiba (2000) describes mother tongue as one's native language, which is learned by children and passed down over generations; it is acquired by birth or by ancestors.

To sum up, above definitions agreed on the view that mother tongue (first language, native language) is the language which is the first acquired during childhood.

1.2 Definitions of Second Language

"Second," is a word that refers to the degree of language command in relation to a main or dominant language. 'Second language' denotes a lower degree of real or perceived proficiency in this second sense. The online dictionary defines second language as "a language other than the mother tongue that a person or community uses for public communication, especially in trade, higher education and administration". In the view of Ashworth (1992) states that the second language is a language acquired by a person in addition to her mother tongue. According to Sinhano et al. (2009), a second language is often an official or socially dominant language that is required for education, work, and other essential functions, and it is frequently learned by members of minority groups or immigrants who do not speak the original language (Abd elmalek, 2017).

1.3 Definition of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Second language acquisition is the process of acquiring a second, third, or fourth language after the first. As a result, any language other than the native tongue is referred to as a second language (SL) or target language (TL).

In acquiring a second language the word L2 is used by linguists to refer to a second language or a foreign language that is being studied.

According to Ellis (1994), SLA refers to the process of learning another language after the native language that has been learnt, also it refers to learning of non-native language after learning the native language (Abd elmalek, 2017).

1.4 Definitions of Foreign Language

A foreign language would be one that is not widely spoken in the speaker's country. However, the difference between a foreign language and a second language must be clearly identified. It is also a language that the person refers to does not speak in his or her native country. This is similar to the following definition of Richards, C. John Platt, and H. Platt (1992):

"Foreign language is a language which is not a native language in a country. A foreign language is usually studied either for communication with foreigners who speak the language, or for reading printed materials in the language".

"It is one not widely used in the learner's immediate social context which may be used for future travel or other, cross cultural communication situation in schools, but with no immediate or necessary practical application" Troike (2006).

1.5 Language Transfer

Transfer is considered to be the same as intervention. Interference is the term for the transition of elements from one language to another (Berthold cited in Ormrod, 1990). Ausubel clarified the transition from a cognitive perspective and suggested the hypothesis of cognitive structure migration, suggesting that new language learning is inextricably linked to the mother tongue (Joanne & Koss, 2012).

In applied linguistics and second language learning, transfer has always been a major problem (SLA). The effect of prior experience on language learning is referred to as transfer. The method of applying experience or skills learned in one situation to a new or different situation (Alexander and Murphy, 1992). On the contrary, Gass (1996, p. 321) who defines transfer as: " the use of the NL (or other language) data on the acquisition of and L2 (or an additional language)." In this definition Gass associates the term transfer to positive transfer only.

Language transfer is a fundamental constituent in Applied Linguistics, it is important in second language. Many researchers have focused on language transfer and the interference of mother tongue which is the way that students speak or write based upon their mother tongue to express their thoughts in other languages. Various scholars, such as Ellis, have given a variety of definitions such as negative transition which is the method of using first-language information in the learning of a second language. Ellis focuses solely on negative transition in this case.

Language transfer is described as "the influence of one language on the learning of another. In the Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1988). Negative and positive transfers are the two forms of transfers.

1.6 Theories of Language Transfer

The evolution of language transfer study in the twentieth century can be divided into three stages and categories: behaviorist, mentalist, and cognitive perspectives (Ellis, 1994, p. 297-300). Language learning was seen by behaviorists as habit forming, with the assumption that the L1's 'habits' would be transferred on to the FL. Interference or negative transition would occur if the target language was not the same as the L1. Language learning is viewed as an innovative creation of linguistic laws, according to them. Language learning factors were the subject of cognitive linguists. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.6.1 Behaviorist View of Transfer

Learning, according to behaviorism, is described as changes in the type or frequency of measurable output. When a correct response is displayed in response to the application of a

particular environmental stimulus, learning has occurred. The behaviorist view of language transmission was reduced to habit forming, which was a stimuli-response mechanism. Language learning and teaching is governed by the theory. In the 1940s and 1950s, behaviorism and structuralism argued that the difficulty of learning a language depended on how similar or different the target language was from the native language. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Positive transfer from the native language would occur if the two languages were similar or identical; if they were not, negative transfer from the native language would be the target language's acquisition. According to this belief, Lado (1957, p. 23) proposed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), in which he believed that language mistakes and learning disabilities were mostly or entirely attributable to native language intervention. By contrasting and comparing the similarities and differences of two groups of people, you will learn a lot about them. Languages, as well as establishing a difficulty hierarchy. The mistakes and learning disabilities of students may be predicted and explained. (Kheddadi, 2017)

The view of transition held by behaviorists was restricted to overt correspondences between L1 and FL syntactic structures. The degree to which the native and target languages were identical or dissimilar determined the degree of transition. While behaviorists agree that native language influences FL, they exaggerate L1 influences and neglect other barriers to FL, such as individual differences among learners. As a result, it was unsurprising that the behaviorist viewpoint was met with significant opposition from the mentalist viewpoint. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.6.2 Mentalists View of Transfer

Chomsky proposed the theory of mentalism, also known as conceptualism or psychologism, in the early 1950s. Since there was Universal Grammar (UG) in language learning, and it was universal grammar rules that defined mastery of any language, the theory confirmed that human language capacity was born by birth and that everyone would eventually master language. Furthermore, according to Dulay and Burt (1974a), children do not rely on language transfer or comparison with their L1 to construct their L2, but instead rely on their ability to construct their L2 as an independent method. Ellis (2000) criticized them for their lack of experimental support for their conclusion. Therefore, in the 1980s, mentalists recognized their limitations and began to investigate the relationship between native language transfer and UG. According to Zobl's (1980) transfer hypothesis, the transferability was defined by formal properties of L2 and universal developmental principles. Despite the fact that the mentalists are no longer completely rejecting native language transfer, they are nevertheless criticized for their theory's lack of empirical evidence. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.6.3 Cognitive view of transfer

The shortcomings of the mentalist viewpoint prompted the emergence of the cognitive viewpoint in the late 1970s, which claimed that language learning required the same cognitive systems as learning other forms of knowledge: perception, memory, problem-solving, and information processing. (Kellerman, 1977, p. 58-145). According to the cognitive perspective (Faerch & Kasper, 1987, p.121)."It is widely accepted that typological similarity or divergence cannot function as an indicator of transition on its own, but interacts with other (linguistic) factors,". (Kheddadi, 2017)

Linguists at the time preferred to focus on how and when language learners would use their native tongue. The factors that triggered language transition were then verified by the study. Six types of causes, according to Ellis (2000), can lead to language transfer:

- Social factors, such as the effect of the learning environment, have an impact on language transition.
- Transfer occurs at a variety of linguistic levels, including phonology, syntax, rhetoric, pragmatics, and so on.
- Markedness of a language (It is one of the most important factors contributing to language transition, and it is closely related to the periphery grammar of a language).
- The core meaning and the periphery meaning of an expression, prototypically.
- Learners' perceptions of language distance between L1 and FL, as well as language distance and psycho typology.
- Interlanguage learning is hampered by a number of developmental factors.

One of the main factors contributing to language transition is the markedness of a language, which has a close connection with the heart and peripheral grammar of that language. Every language, according to UG, has a core grammar and a periphery grammar. Chomsky (1993, p. 23) assumed that the rules discovered by children with the help of UG formed the central grammar, while the elements learned without the help of UG were considered periphery. Chomsky's markedness theory held that the core rules were unmarked, i.e., the general tendency of all languages, while the periphery rules were marked, i.e., they were distinct from the general grammar. The distinction between marked and unmarked was, however, difficult to establish. T he core grammar, according to Ellis (1994), could be marked or unmarked, but the periphery grammar was always marked. Rutherford (1982) argued that the criterion of markedness was largely determined by the grammar constraint: marked rules had

more restriction, whereas unmarked rules had less restriction; unmarked rules were easier to understand than marked rules. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.7 Types of Transfer

According to Skehan (2008), language transmission is defined as "the effect of the mother tongue or other languages learnt." To put it another way, EFL students borrow some characteristics from native speakers. The effects of language transfer might be positive, negative, or cross-linguistic, and a clear differentiation will be made.

1.7.1 Positive transfer

When researchers compared the structures of Arabic and English, they discovered that the two languages use identical prepositions to convey the same meaning in some situations. For example, in "I came from Algeria, " the word "from" is used to denote the starting point. In this case, direct conversion from Arabic results in a positive transfer. Dulay et all (1982, p.

97) "...positive transfer is the automatic use of L1 structure in L2 output when the structure in both languages is the same, resulting in right utterance." Additionally is also familiar with facilitation students manage to use their knowledge about the L1; this situation is called positive transfer. It comes about when two languages are similar, in this case the learning process is facilitated (Ellis, 2008, p. 355).

Native Language helps the FL learner to learn about the Language that students faces. Expressly is spontaneous use of L1 structure in L2 performance when the structure in both languages is the same resulting in correct utterance. Oldin (1989, p. 27) affirms that positive transfer results from similarities and differences between any language that has been previously acquired. Learning simple mathematics rules, for example, should make it easier to balance a checkbook. A teacher's ability to change student actions should increase after learning the basis of reinforcement. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Indeed, all the definitions of positive transfer surround the idea, that this kind of transfer takes place when the mother tongue of a foreign language learner has similar features with the target language. In other words, when the first language shares the same disciplines and patterns with the target language, this will help the learner because it eases the process.

1.7.2 Negative Transfer

It is known as interference or retro-active transfer. According to Whitley (2002), it is natural for students to make such errors based on how the English words are used. But the most essential aspect of transfer is negative transfer, which is mostly used by learners or speakers when performing the target language and is also an important source for recognizing the causes of language output variance. In other words, it is a linguistic strategy or technique in

which learners inappropriately move language features from their native language to the target language they are attempting to execute, obtain, or understand. According to Osgood Negative transfer is described as "the effect of a specific interpolated behavior on the retention of previously learned activity ".(Kheddadi, 2017)

According to Cortes (2006, p. 4) defines negative transfer as " the negative influence that the knowledge of the first language has in the learning of the target languages due to the differences existing between both languages". Unintentionally, students (non-native speakers) may not differentiate between structures and internal rules of languages. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Compared to positive transfer, negative transfer is often easy to recognize, because it includes differences from norms in the target language. This kind is usually compared with production errors; it is based on the transfer of elements and structures from native to the target language. (Kheddadi, 2017)

It means that if the L2 learner reverted to his mother tongue, the result will be a deviation from the target standard, also known as "negative transition" error or "mother tongue interference." Negative transfer involve two types of interferences; these types are called 'proactive inhabitation' and 'retroactive inhabitation'. Selinker and Mass (2001) state that :

Retroactive inhabitation occurs when learning is applied to previously learned knowledge, resulting in forgetting (language loss), and proactive inhabitation occurs when a group of previously learned responses emerges in situations where a new set is required. In this framework, the first language influences/inhabits/modifies the learning of the second language, which is more akin to the phenomenon of second language learning. (Tahir, 2017)

To put it another way, retroactive inhabitation is the impact of new content learning on previous knowledge. It occurs when a person learns a new language, causing the human mind to forget previous experience, despite the fact that it is stored in the mind. The positive inhabitation, on the other hand, is the polar opposite of the retroactive inhabitation. It makes an individual forget the knowledge of the new learning, because of the interference from the old leaning. According to Oldin (1989, p. 30), the effects of negative transition on the learning process can be summarized in two theories: avoidance (underproduction), overuse (overproduction) and Fossilization.

• Avoidance

The following is how Ellis describes avoidance:

When certain target-language elements are under-represented in the learner's output compared to native-speaker output, avoidance is said to occur. Due to disparities

between their native language and the target language, learners are more inclined to avoid structures that they find challenging (1994, p. 693) .When L2 learners are unable to use the correct form of the L2 constructs, they resort to omitting any of the L2 patterns that do not occur in their L1. Schachter (1974) claims that a structural difference between L1 and L2 leads to avoidance. However, the studies after Schachter found that avoidance could be caused not only by L1 – L2 difference, but by L1 – L2 similarity or inherent L2 complexity. (Saadaoui, 2018)

• Overuse

If a learner stops using the TL patterns, he can use other infrequent structures instead (Ellis, 2008, p. 358). A learner who avoids using relative clauses in English, for example, would be forced to use a lot of simple sentences and correct them with conjunctions. (Saadaoui, 2018) to sum up, Overuse of specific grammatical structures, words, etc. can occur as a result of intermediate language processes in L2 learning.

• Fossilization

The term "fossilization" refers to a recurring stumbling block in the acquisition of L2. Despite their greatest efforts to increase their learning, many students are believed to go through this period. According to Selinker (1972, p. 212), "the majority of L2 learners are unable to overcome interlanguage fossilization". i.e., the number of L2 learners who acquire the various linguistic abilities in the same way as natives is quite small. This means that achieving complete native-like competency in a second language is highly unusual. (Hemaidia, 2017)

1.7.3 Cross-linguistic Influence

As reported by Cook (as cited in Skekhan, 2000, p. 208) "Cross linguistic impact is another phrase for language transfer". The various ways in which one language may influence another inside an individual speaker is referred to as cross-linguistic impact. "Cross linguistic impact is another phrase for language transfer," Cross linguistic impact is seen to be a more precise and appropriate phrase for language transmission. Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) state that L1 transfer is ineffective, thus they coined the term "cross linguistic impact" to describe both transfer and interference. EFL students try to make language learning easier for themselves by drawing on prior linguistic expertise. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.8 Levels of Transfer

1.8.1 Syntactical Transfer

Syntax is described as "the way linguistic elements (as words) are placed together to form constituents (as phrases or clauses)" by Meriam Webster Dictionary. Negative transfer, also known as interference, may happen at the syntactic stage. Furthermore, when it comes to word order and forming phrases or sentences in the foreign language, learners are primarily influenced by their first language. As a result of this effect, learners can make grammatical errors when producing the target language. Negative transfer can occur when pronouns, determiners, tenses, and moods are used. Furthermore, the 'VSO', 'SVO', or 'SOV' structures are used in the majority of human languages. (Tahir, 2017)

Negative transfer may occur in this case by forming sentences in the foreign language that have the same structure as the learners' native language. The comprehension and development of grammatical structures in the target language are influenced by the native language's grammatical structures in syntactic transfer. The impact of the native language on syntax has always been more debatable than its impact on the lexicon (Odlin, 1987, p. 85).

1.8.2 Phonological Transfer

Phonology is described as "the study of the science of speech sounds, particularly the history and theory of sound changes in a language or in two or more related languages," according to the Meriam Webster Dictionary.

International language learners' incorrect pronunciation of the target language causes phonological transition. It also appears in the target language's intonation, rhythm, and accent. In reality, when it comes to vowel length, voiced and voiceless, the majority of learners make mistakes in their target language pronunciation. Often, when the L1 consonant differs from the L2 consonant; this result in a negative shift. Furthermore, they make mistakes with word stress, particularly when the first and target languages are different. Because of these variations, learners will omit the stress from many words when their L1 does not place a greater emphasis on stress. (Tahir, 2017).

1.8.3 Lexical Transfer

Since every language is dependent on its vocabulary, therefore; it represents an important aspect of learning a foreign language. Lexis, according to David Crystal (2008), is "a word used in linguistics to refer to a language's vocabulary."

In reality, a lack of vocabulary awareness is widely regarded as the most significant barrier that foreign language learners must overcome. As a result, in order to prevent this dilemma, students return to their mother tongues.

On the one hand, lexical transfer may be detrimental, and the most common example of lexical transfer in languages is the phenomenon of borrowing or loanwords, which arises when a learner's vocabulary in the target language is insufficient. Additionally, lexical conversion can be seen in calque and literal translation, which is the process of transferring L1 terms and expressions to the target language structure.

Lexical conversion, on the other hand, may have a beneficial influence, such as cognates, which occur when words in both languages are identical. Moreover, two forms of lexical transition can be distinguished. This distinction involves type transition, which occurs when L1 words are used in the target language, such as code switching. So it requires meaning conversion, as seen in claque, in which students translate the literal meaning of the first language into the foreign language. (Tahir, 2017).

1.8.4 Pragmatic Transfer

One of the most widely discussed concepts in interlanguage pragmatics is pragmatic transition. Researchers have run into a few roadblocks while trying to come up with a solid concept of pragmatic transition. However according to Kasper (1992), "pragmatic transition in interlanguage pragmatic shall refer to the effect exerted on learners' comprehension, processing, and learning of L2 pragmatic information by learners' pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2." (as cited by Barron, 2001, p. 36). In other words, pragmatic transition is the impact of learners' pragmatic language and cultural awareness on their comprehension and development of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Moreover, Olshashi (1983) describes pragmatic transition as "a learners' technique of integrating native language-based elements in target language development" (as cited in Putz and Aertsealer, 2008, p. 301). That is, pragmatic transition occurs when learners incorporate information from their mother tongues into the development of a target language.

In reality, pragmatics covers a wide range of topics, including conversational implicature, the cooperative theory, and deixis. Indeed, (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993, p. 3) define pragmatics as "the study of people's comprehension and development of linguistic behavior in context" in the domain of interlanguage pragmatics.

Expressly, these linguists restrict pragmatics' perspective in ILP to understanding and producing learners' speech actions in context. Pragmatic transfer can also be both positive and negative. Kasper (1992) claims that:

When a language learner succeeds in conveying his or her intended message as a result of transferring a language-specific convention, this is known as optimistic pragmatic transfer. On the other hand, negative pragmatic transfer refers to the inadvertent transfer of native

sociolinguistic norms and speech conventions into the target language. (Putz and Aertselear, 2008, p. 303). (Tahir, 2017)

In other words, when a learner's native language enables the transmission of the learner's message in the target language, positive pragmatic transition occurs. Negative pragmatic transition, on the other hand, occurs when a foreign language learner transfers his or her sociolinguistic standards of speech to a target language where they are only used in his or her native tongue.

1.9 Causes of Language Transfer

Language transfer can occur for a variety of reasons. Linguists have identified a number of factors that can contribute to learners transferring their language skills.

Interference is caused by a variety of factors so Weinereich (1979) suggests five variables:

- The first explanation is because of the prestige and fashion. This aspect pertains to the foreign language user's use of unknown phrases, which will become the user's style in order to gain pride. However, this use causes interference since there are certain terms about which the recipient is unlikely to understand the true meaning.
- The second explanation is a lack of commitment to the target language. The target language structure would be disobeyed as a result of this. To put it another way, this element causes learners to be unfaithful to the target language structure by adapting the structure of the L1 to the foreign language.
- The learner's restricted vocabularies in the target language are the third factor. In reality, when learners are unable to find the right words in the target language due to a lack of vocabularies, they will purposefully use their native words in foreign language sentences.
- The fourth reason is that synonyms are needed. Synonyms are often used by students to avoid repeating the same words. However, this necessitates learners interfering, which they do by borrowing words from the first language and using them in the target language.
- The fifth element is the bilingualism history of the speaker. Bilingualism, in reality, is the most common cause of conversion because the speaker is influenced by both languages. Students who are bilingual also use words from one language in the other.

In addition to, (Nunan, 2001, p. 89)) also notes that "where the first and second language laws differ, errors are expected to occur as a result of interference between the two languages."

Generally, the variations between the rules of the native language and the target language cause learners to make more mistakes in the target language development. Furthermore, these viewpoints support the idea that the more two languages vary, the more errors occur in learners' target language output. Besides , L1 transfer may be expressed in the overuse of some forms," asserts the author. (Ellis, 1997, p. 52). That is, if a learner uses too many specific forms in his or her mother tongue, he or she may do the same in the foreign language. (Tahir, 2017)

1.10 The Consequences of Language Transfer

The importance of mother tongue in learning a foreign language cannot be overstated, as it can either help or hinder the learning process. In particular, most academics believe that foreign language learners would find it easier to learn if their mother tongue has some similarities to the target language. Odlin(1993) identifies four separate effects of intervention, the first result of intervention is 'underproduction.' When foreign language learners note that certain structures in the target language vary from those in their mother tongues; they will avoid using those structures in their target language output.

The 'overproduction' is the second effect of intervention. In reality, learners' refusal to use such structures in a target language as a result of underproduction leads them to use other structures in the target language. In addition, they prefer using certain constructs that are less common in the target language more frequently. As a result, there will be an increase in the use of the target language. Interference may also result in the creation of errors. Odlin actually differentiates between two forms of errors that can cause interference. Substitutions and calque are two of these styles. when learners use their native language forms in the target language the former occurs. The above occurs when the two languages' structures are closely related to one another. (Tahir, 2017).

To summarize, language transfer is a critical aspect of learning a foreign language. In reality, the mother tongue's effect on learning a target language cannot be overstated. Foreign language learners can experience it consciously or unconsciously. It can be both positive and negative at the same time, facilitating learning or acting as a barrier to learning a target language. Furthermore, the concept of conversion is present in both comprehension and development of a target language. Consequently, foreign language learners should be mindful of the impact of their mother tongue on their foreign language learning in order to prevent mistakes and master the target language.

1.11 Some Procedures of EFL learning process

In both applied linguistics and FL learning, the study of students' errors is critical. When learning a foreign language, EFL learners make a variety of mistakes. These mistakes act as stumbling blocks in the learning process. It is important to define the types of errors and their locations in a FL.

1.11.1 Contrastive Analysis procedure

Charles Fries (1945) was the first to improve Contrastive Analysis as a component of modern foreign language teaching methodology. It is the study of language with the aim of recognizing differences and similarities; it was common in the 1960s and 1970s as a way of explaining why people struggle to learn new languages. According to constrictive research, the similarities and differences between different languages were sufficient to solve the problem of language teaching. It places a strong emphasis on investigating learners' mistakes, which includes a systematic comparison of the first and foreign languages. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Learning a language was a matter of habit forming, according to behaviorist theory. They assert that learning a language was about breaking old habits and forming new ones. Errors arise in this case when learners are unable to respond correctly in a foreign language to a specific situation. Therefore, students should put a greater focus on mechanical patterns and attempt to correct any errors that arise. As a result of the variations between the learner's native language and the target language, mastering certain types and structures in the target language is difficult. As previously mentioned, the similarities and differences between languages are at the heart of CA. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Contrastive research, according to others, entails predicting and explaining EFL learners' problems by contrasting the similarities and disparities between the mother tongue and the target language (Troike, 2006, p. 34). According to constractive analysis studies, errors occur when learners move their first language habits to a foreign language, and intervention occurs if there is a discrepancy between the native and target languages. According to researchers, learning similarities features will be simpler, but learning variations between native and target language elements will be more difficult. To grasp the transition and change from one language to another, and to compare the international and native languages, EFL teachers use contrastive analysis. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Constricting both languages is important in teaching the target language because it aids teachers in comprehending the differences in basic structure between the two languages. EFL teachers would be able to anticipate mistakes or difficulties based on this research and

address them accordingly. This method aims to improve foreign language teaching by identifying gaps between the first and target languages, based on the premise that:

- The mother tongue is used to facilitate the process of teaching foreign languages. (Kheddadi, 2017)
- Errors can be forecast and taken into account in the EFL curriculum by constructive review. However, not all of the problems expected by constructive research tend to be challenging for EFL students. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Supporters of Error Analysis criticized Contrastive Analysis, claiming that it focuses too much on the differences between L1 and FL, ignoring factors that could influence second language learners' efficiency, such as their learning and communication strategies. As a result, CA could not be supported by empirical evidence since many of the errors predicted by CA were not found in the language of learners. Furthermore, certain mistakes made by students, regardless of their NL, could not foresee learning difficulties. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.11.2 Errors Analysis procedure

Error Analysis (EA) is a branch of applied linguistics and one of the most important subjects in the field of foreign language science. EA is a task that involves identifying, classifying, and interpreting or describing the mistakes that students make while speaking or writing, as well as gathering information on the most common difficulties that EFL speakers and writers face. Since writing is considered one of the most challenging skills for EFL students to master, several studies have attempted to recognize the common errors EFL students make in their writing. Of course, a clearer understanding of the errors, as well as the causes of such errors in the EFL writing process, would aid teachers in recognizing their students' difficulties in learning that language. (Kheddadi, 2017)

The aim of this study is to recognize the common challenges that a learner faces while learning a language, as well as the techniques he employs and the causes of errors. EFL teachers and syllabus designers have always been interested in and concerned about their students' mistakes; this may lead educators to develop appropriate materials and teaching methods, as well as create assessments that are appropriate for various levels and needs of learners. Consequently, language teachers and syllabus designers should consider the implications of error analysis for language teaching. The analysis of errors identifies areas where teachers can focus their efforts. When the causes of errors are correctly established, errors often indicate how to handle them. (Kheddadi, 2017)

Students should be mindful of the importance of errors in their writing in order to fully appreciate and comprehend the essence of the errors made, as well as to be actively aware of their problems in order to solve them. This necessitates English language teachers becoming more prepared, attentive, and mindful of the challenges students face while writing. (Kheddadi, 2017)

1.12 Errors Taxonomies

Errors taxonomies are collections of errors that are categorizes outside of error dictionaries. Taxonomy is described as "the field of science concerned with categorization" in the New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (1993).

1.11.1 Intralingual Errors

Brown (1980) defined intralingual errors as those that arise as a result of negative item transfer inside the TL, which he dubbed "Intralingual transfer". There are two or three types of intralingual errors. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.12.2 Overgeneralization Errors

It occurs when a student constructs an incorrect structure based on the TL structure. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.11.1 Incomplete Application of Rules

It occurs when a student fails to employ the fully formed and right framework. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.12.4 False Hypothesis

It occurs when a student does not fully comprehend a TL distinction. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.13 Developmental Errors

According to Dulay and Burt (1974), mistakes are analogous to L1 acquisition. Intralingual and developmental mistakes are hence mental mistakes since TL information is not adequately learned. They happen when students try to construct predictions about the TL based on their limited experience. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.11.1 Interference Errors

According to Brown (1980), are errors that results of the mother tongue's deleterious impact on TL learning. They occur when a speaker or writer uses elements from another language when speaking or writing the target language, and are caused by mother tongue interference, which obstructs TL acquisition. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.11.1 Misinterpretation

Odlin (1993) claims that transfer may occur in all language systems, including morphological and syntactic systems.

1.13.3 Substratum Transfer

It is the impact of a source language on the learning of TL, and it is most noticeable in pronunciation. It is also more prevalent in syntax than lexicon, making it the most difficult component of an L2 to learn. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

1.13.4 Borrowing Transfer

It's when a second language has an impact on a previously learned language, and it's more likely to show up at the lexical level. (Abd elmalek, 2017)

In summation, one can view that all these definitions prove that EFL learners face the same obstacles in all fields.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have focused on the basic elements of L1,its meanings and types. In addition, we have defined the main terms that are related to both L1 and L2, Also we tackled the causes and consequences of language transfer. Finally, the chapter is concluded by the analysis of the different types of errors made my EFL learners.

Chapter Two

An Overview of the Linguistic Issues in EFL

Chapter Two: An Overview of the Linguistic Issues in EFL.

Introduction

This study looked at a problem that most Arabic learners have when it comes to using English and Arabic tenses. Despite the fact that all languages have a common grammar structure, each language has its own system for verb tense. As a result, learners of a second or foreign language have difficulty distinguishing between different types of tenses. Furthermore, they are confused about when an action occurred, which action occurred first, which action is still going on, and which action has been concluded. Different language systems may be one of the factors that contribute to committing tenses errors.

2.1 Grammatical Issues

2.1.1 Tense and Aspect

2.1.1.1 Definitions of Tense

According to Jespersen who defines tense as "the linguistic expression of time-relations, so far as these are indicated in verb forms" (1962, p. 1). Also, Lyons have defined tense, stating that:

The most important feature of the tense category is that it connects the time of the action, case, or state of affairs mentioned in the sentence to the time of utterance (which is often 'now'). Tense is thus a deictic type, like all syntactic features that partially or entirely depend on deixis, is a property of both the sentence and the utterance (1968,p. 305). On other view, Hockett (1958) confirm that tenses usually show different positions of an object. Also, Lyons (1977) corroborate that "The key thing about tense is that it is a deictic category".

To sum up, the above definitions agreed on the view that tense provide the time of an action which takes place in past, present or future.

2.1.1.2 Definition of Aspect

Aspect tells us how the situation occurs. According to (Comrie, 1976) "aspect is nondeictic and encompasses a wide variety of occurrences pertaining to the internal temporal structure of a situation indicated by a verb".

2.1.1.3 The difference between Aspect and Tense

Aspect differs from tense in that it is generally generated with the assistance of an auxiliary. Comrie adds that the relationship between time, tense and aspect stating that:

"Tense is a deictic category, which means that it locates a situation in time, normally with reference to the current instant, but also with reference to other situations. Aspect is not concerned with relating time of the situation to any other time-point, but rather with the

internal temporal constituency of one situation; one could state the difference between situation-internal time (aspect) and situation-external time (tense)".

There are significant variations between Arabic and English, resulting in a number of errors made by Arab English learners. Just two tenses exist in Arabic: perfect (just the past) and imperfect (non-past, simple present, and simple future), while English has many tenses by combining these two tenses with aspects (perfective and progressive).

2.1.1.4 The Perfect and Progressive Tenses in English

• The Perfect Tenses

The perfect means the continuation of a preceding circumstance.

• The present perfect tense(has or have + past participle)

Is Used to describe an action that started in the past but is still going on in the present. (polk, n.d., p. 31)

Examples:

-Aya has lived in London for three years.

-Ahmed has worked in the grand hotel since he was 24 years old.

• Past Perfect (had + past participle)

Used to represent an activity that was accomplished in the past BEFORE another action.

(polk, n.d., p. 31)

Examples:

-Before she left the hospital, Aya had to spoken to her doctor.

-Mr.Smith had taken several German classes before he went to Germany.

• Future Perfect Tense(will or shall + have + past participle)

Used to represent a future activity that will be executed at a specific time. The action must be accomplished by a certain time (deadline) specified in the text. (polk, n.d., p. 31) Example:

-By this time tomorrow Joe will have painted the house.

- Rami will have completed his degree by June 2018.

2.1.1.5 The Progressive Tenses

• Present Progressive(am/is/are + V-ing)

Is used to describe a present-tense activity. (polk, n.d., p. 31) Example:

-I am drinking an apple juice.

- Sana is writing a short story.

• Past Progressive(was/were + V-ing)

Is used to describe a prior event that occurred over a period of time. (polk, n.d., p. 31) Example:

-Last year I was living in Egypt.

When another action occurs, it expresses a past activity that was taking place at the time. Example:

-I was talking when Sami interrupted me?

• Future progressive(will/shall+ be + V-ing)

Used to represent a future activity that will take place over a period of time. (polk, n.d., p. 31)

Example:

-Next year I will be living in Algeria.

-He eats an apple every day.

2.1.1.6 The Perfect and Imperfect Tenses in Arabic

عراضملا 2.1.1.6.1 The Imperfect Tense

The time of the verb in Arabic is indicated by prefixes and suffixes that vary from present (imperfect) and past (perfect). Acts that are already in development or that are repetitive, such as tasks you do every day or usually, are defined in the present or incomplete. ("The Present (Imperfect) Tense in Arabic," 2009)

Imperfect tense examples include:

-I study English. تي زي لج نلاا ةغذلا سردأ

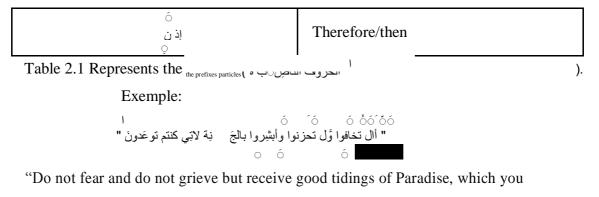
Moods of the Imperfect Tense: there are two types

لْ َالُلْ عُراضِم َبِوُصُ مُنْم The subjunctive mood •

When a particle like نا comes before the imperfect tense لعفيّ, the case ending of the imperfect verb is changed to fatha or nasab. ("Moods of the imperfect tense غيّص غيّص 2021)

Q

ن نَ نَ ةبصاِنلا فۇرُخلا	Meaning
ن ن	Will never
ا ن لا =نا +ل	That that not
يكَ َل =لَ +يكَ يكَ	So that so that not
ا	Until
Ş	So that /in order to



المضارغ المُجُزوم_

were promised.(41:30)

΄ ó Ò The prefixed particles, known as, the mood of the imperfect tense to the jussive in which the last radical takes the form بكون or, جزم case, ("Moods of the imperfect of a ," 2021) مِن َيغ ال مضّار ع

Here is a list of them:

்

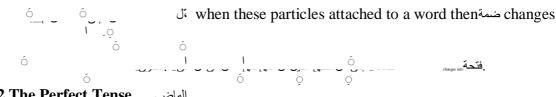
்

ث ث ُ الْحُروفُ الجازمة ِ َ	Meaning	
َ ل م	Was not/did not	
َ لما ا	Not yet	
!ن ب	If	
Û ç	Should	
٥٥	Do not/should not	

_ .) الحروف الجازم ة)the prefixed particles (ث Table 2.2 Represents

Exemple:

[He was told], "O Zechariah, indeed We give you good tidings of a boy whose name will be John. We have not assigned to any before [this] name." (19:7)



2.1.1.6.2 The Perfect Tense الماضد

The past time frame is used in Arabic to indicate acts that have been completed at the time of speaking or writing. Suffixes at the end of verbs that dependents on the person or pronoun used are the most common markers. ("The Present (Imperfect) Tense in Arabic," 2009)

Examples of the perfect tense:

-He studied Arabic. مربية

درس اللغة العربية

3.1.1.1. 2 The progressive feature of Arabic

The progressive feature of Arabic does not seem to be grammaticalized as i be+v+ing. ("The Present (Imperfect) Tense in Arabic," 2009)

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Both habitual and radical meanings can be denoted by the imperfect aspect:

-ya-kolo toufaha ala'an. ن لاا قحافت ل كأي (progressive)

• He is eating an apple now.

-yakolo toufaha kol yuam. موي لك قحافت لكأي (habitual)

In Arabic, unlike English, there are no unique forms for distinguishing the present simple, present continuous, or present perfect. The present has only one form, which is distinguished by prefixes and suffixes that differ from one pronoun to the next. The suffixes used to signify the present or imperfect in Arabic are listed in the table below:

Example	Present	Pronouns	
	prefixes &	ارد ما م ضل	
	suffixes		
	عرا ضملال ء فلا		
سردأ	Ĺ	اذ أ	1 st person sing.
سردت	ت	تنأ	2 nd person sing. Masc.
د يسردت	ذي ت	تتأ	1 0
سردي	-ي	وه	3 rd person sing. Masc.
سردت	ت	ي ۵	3 rd person sing. Fem.
د ۱ سردت	ذ ۱ـ ـت	تـ نأام	2 nd person dual.
ذا سردي	ذا۔ ـي	ەم ^ا (m)	3 rd person dual. Masc.
د ۱ سردت	ذ ۱ـ ـت	مم ^ا (f)	3 rd person dual. Fem.
سردن	ىن		1 st person pl.
ذ و سردت	ذ و۔ ت	م ڌنأ	2 nd person pl. Masc.
ن سردت	د ـ ت	د ڌنأ	r · · · ·
ذو سردي	يند و	مه	1 1
د سردي	ذ ـ ـ ـي	ذه	3 rd person pl. Fem.

Table 2.3 The suffixes used to signify the perfect in Arabic

"The distinction between the Arabic perfective and imperfective cannot be simply one of aspect," writes Comrie (1976, p.78). He thinks that the perfective/imperfective opposition in Arabic is a case of tense/aspect opposition. Perfective tense is distinguished by suffixation, while imperfective is distinguished by prefixation or a combination of prefix and suffix. Person (first, second, third), number (singular, dual, plural), and gender are the three variants (masculine, feminine).

2.1.1.7 Causes of Grammatical Errors

- Lower-level Arabic speakers would have trouble learning progressive forms in English, either by employing the auxiliary verb 'be' with the base form without inflection or by appending the '-ing' ending to the base form without the auxiliary verb 'be,' resulting in transfer. (Alsalmi, 2013)
- The difference between the grammatical system of English and Arabic leads to difficulties in acquiring different tenses example: the perfect tenses consequently negative transfer exists. (Alsalmi, 2013)
- Arabic speakers of second language overgeneralize the use of progressive tenses due to it's existence in Arabic language. (Alsalmi, 2013)

2.1.2 Morphological Issues

This part of this study compares and contrasts affixation (Al ilSaq) in English and Arabic by describing it, demonstrating the different ways of classifying affixes (Al lawaSiq), and determining how different the two languages are in terms of affixation. While both English and Arabic are inflected languages, Arabic employs inflection more often than English. In both languages, the order of the derivational and inflectional affixes in the word is different. Both English and Arabic have words that are constructed by combining multiple affixes.

3.1.3.1 Affixation in English

2.1.2.1.1 Definitions of Affixation

Prefixation and suffixation are two forms of affixation in linguistics that vary most noticeably in positioning. Prefixes are affixes that are usually applied to the beginning of other morphemes to form words. A suffix is a word-forming affix that is applied to the end of other morphemes. "Affixes are classified as a closed class of grammatical elements within the phrase," according to Rene Van Den Berg (1989, p. 42). They are connected morphemes, which means they can't exist on their own. Affixes modify the word class of the root to which they are attached in a variety of ways.

3.1.3.1.3 Definition of Prefixes(Bauer, Quirk)

A prefix is a special form of affix that is applied to the beginning of a name. For example, the prefix "un-" is a prefix that may shift the meaning of a word to the opposite: greedy unselfish. The initial word's class is rarely changed by prefixes. Two prefixes are allowed in a single word: re-in-force. (Al-Jarf, R., 2015)

2.1.2.1.3 Types of Prefixes

The vast majority of English prefixes are class- maintaining. Prefixes will be evaluated in terms of the base's form class to which they are appended. The bulk of prefixes can be applied to several form classes' bases. The first syllable of productive prefixes is usually lightly stressed, with the word's major stress falling on the base.

• Class Changing Prefixes

Are those that yield a subclass of the same class. The prefixes a-asleep, blazing, ashore; be-bedazzled, becalm, befriend, bewitch; en-enslave, enlarge, enchant modify the word class. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

• Class Maintaining Prefixes

Those that generate a derived form of the same class. The following is a list of The word class is really not changed by prefixes: un-unjust, uncover; non- non -stop; inincomplete; dis-discomfort, dislocate; a-anemia, amoral; de-decompose, degenerate; mis-misjudge, misunderstand, mal-malnutrition; pseudo-pseudo-cleft; arch-bishop; super-supernatural. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

2.1.2.1.4 Aspects of Prefixes there are two aspects of prefixes:

• Phonological Aspect of Prefixes

On specific prefixes, the phonological properties of words play a significant role. Certain prefixes have certain general properties in terms of phonetic form or pronunciation. Katamba & Stonham (2006, p. 28), for example, show how to pronounce the negative prefix "in". The nasal consonant of the prefix "in-" can be pronounced in a variety of ways, depending on the sound that follows it. The phonetic representations of "in-" are as follows: /im/ before the labial consonants /p, b, m/: /im/possible; /k/ and /g/ before the velar sounds /k/ and /g/: incompliance; and /in/ before an alveolar consonant /t, d, s, z, n/: intangible, or before a vowel as inelegance; and /in/.(Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

• Semantic Aspect of Prefixes

The majority of prefixes have the ability to alter the context of the word to which they are applied. As a result, they should be divided into categories based on how their meanings change. The following types of prefixes and their meanings are described by Stockwell & Minkova (2001, p. 89-90): Prefixes for numbering, such as "di-" in ditrasitive; presence, such as "vice-" in vice-president; locative, such as "inter-" in interchange; calculation, such as: Inter- in interchange; measuring prefixes like "micro-" in microscope; derogatory prefixes

like "non-" in nonsense; temporal prefixes like "post-" in postpone; and judgment prefixes like "mal-" in malpractice. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

2.1.2.1.5 Definition of suffixes

According to Al-Khuli (2006, p. 57), English allows four suffixes to be combined in a single word: globalizations. Most suffixes alter the word's class. Most suffixes alter the classification of the word to which they are affixed. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

3.1.3.1.1.1 Derivational Suffixes

• Class maintaining Suffixes

It results in a derived version of the same class (Greenbaum & Quirk) The suffixes listed below have no effect on the word class: hood, childhood; ship, friendship; ics, linguistics; man (N) \rightarrow manhood (N) or wise (Adj.) \rightarrow unwise (Adj.). (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

• **Class changing Suffixes** that result in a derived version of another class, for example: •**Verb---forming derivational Suffixes:** ize, industrialize ; fy, beautify; ate, fabricate; en, harden. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

-Noun---forming derivational suffixes: -ion, impression; -ance, entrance; -ure, pressure; -ness, dizziness; -ity, humanity; -ocracy, democracy; -th, width; -an, politician. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

-Adjective forming derivational suffixes: -ible, edible; -ed, curved; -ive, possessive; -ative, comparative; -itive, additive. (Al-Jarf, 2015)

To conclude, When vowels or last consonants in English words shift are preceded by derivational suffixes, such as determine, decision accept capitulation; flaming flame.

2.1.2.1.5.2 Aspect of Suffixes

• Phonological Aspect of Suffixes

Booij (2007, p. 154) shows that the phonological properties of words can influence the affixes (particularly suffixes) in which they can merge, based on the relationship between morphology and phonology. For eg, the suffix "-al" is only applied to verbs in which the first syllable is stressed: arr'ive entry, while "-al" cannot be added to ch'atter. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

• Semantic Aspect of Suffixes

According to Rochelle Lieber (2004, p. 14), the semantic effects of word formation should be kept separate from its formal effects, since the form-meaning correspondence in morphology is rarely one to one. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

To conclude, if students understand the content of the text, it would be easier for them to learn English. Students can easily achieve this by mastering morphology-related vocabulary, particularly in the early stages of their education.

2.1.3 Affixation in Arabic

2.1.3.1 Definition of affixes

In Arabic the word affix is the most important part of the affixation process. Affixes are usually bound morphemes that can be attached to a root to generate new words in a specific order based on morphological rules (Gerlach, 2002, p. 62; Al-Khuli, 2006, p. 57; kukaa, 2011, p. 62). Affixation is a method of generating new words with or without grammatical categories changes. For example, the prefix (m) in "al-mafkal" with al-fatHa (an Arabic diacritic) is used to denote the noun of position (ism al- makaan), such as maktab (office), which is derived from the verb kataba (he wrote) (Katamba,1994, p. 42; Crystal, 2003, p. 15; Al-samarrai, 2011, p. 375).

• Definition of Prefixes

Prefixes (al-sawaabiq) is a affixes that come before a root, such as (al-hamza): Arab (I drink) (Tulaymat, 2000, p. 164; Erwin, 2004, p. 60). The class of the word to which a prefix is added may be changed. For example, the prefix'ma' is used with al-fatHa to form a place noun from a verb on al-wazn "mafkal": lakiba - malkab (he played - playground). (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

• Definition of suffixes

Suffixes (al-lawaaHiq) are words or phrases that can be added to the end of a root to modify its context or grammatical role. For eg, the suffix that denotes duality and the suffix that denotes masculine plural sound are both suffixes (al-nadaar, 2006, p. 67-68). (Al-Jarf, 2015)

To sum up, Prefixes and suffixes are not stated explicitly and separately in Arabic, despite their phonological and semantic importance.

3.1.2.3 The Positional Classification of affixes

Infixes, circumfixes, and superfixes are the different types of affixes based on their place.

• Infixes

The elements that appear in the center of the root are known as infixes (al-dawaaxil) (alnadaar, 2006, pp. 67-68). For example, when al-alif (one of the Arabic letters) is attached to the verb, the noun of active participle (ism al-faakil) is formed, as in: karuma - kaarim (generous). They're widely used in the language.

• Circumfixes

A circumfix is an affix that consists of two components. The first element of a word is inserted before the root, while the second is added after the root. It's known as a discontinuous morpheme (Adeniyi, 2010, p. 115). Enlighten or embolden, for example. In the title, the circumfixes "en-" and "-en" are circumfixes, not es or suffixes (Denham & Lobeck, 2013, p. 151). (Ibn dainny, 2003, p. 490).

• Superfixes

In languages, a superfix is an affix that goes over syllables. A superfix is a term that has been labelled with stress or tone. A superfix, for example, distinguishes the sense of two segmentally similar terms. (Ibn dainny, 2003, p. 490).

2.1.3.3 Definitions of Derivation

Derivation (al i∫tiqaq) is the method of creating words from other words that are similar in meaning and structure but vary in shape (Al-Galajiiny, 1993, p. 208; Al Daardaany, 2003, p. 22).

The deviant use of affixes triggered by native language influence is referred to as morphological transition. Meriläinen (2010) discovered one type of morphological transfer in her data: the unidiomatic use of an English plural form (rather than singular) because the Finnish equivalent is plural. (Ibn dainny, 2003, p. 490).

3.1.2.2 The Arabic Derivational Methods can

be divided into the following four forms in :

- Minor Derivation :the process of forming words from others is called minor derivation. The radicals (the original letters) and their order must all be suitable for this form (Al-daardaany, 2003, p. 22). For example, jusalm, saalim, salmaan, salmaa, salaamah, saliim, and so on can be formed from (salama), (safety). The original sense of both of these derivatives is the same (Ibn dainny, 2003, p. 490).
- Middle Derivation: in this form (al-kabiir) or (metathesis), the meaning and radicals are the same, but the order of the radicals differs between the original word and the derived ones. Daabr stands for "strength" or "power," indicating a link to badar, rdaab,

burda (tower) rabida, and badar. As a consequence, regardless of whether one of them comes first, second, or third, the meaning is the same. (Daabal, 2006, p. 40; Ibrahiim, 1945, p. 10; Chejne, 1969, p. 49; Ibrahiim, 1945, p. 10).

- Acronymy: this form refers to the process of creating a word from a collection of words or, more commonly, sentences. Some grammarians refer to this form of derivation as al-itiqaaq al-kubbaar. According to old reports, it is also known as al-naHt. For eg, basmla is derived from the phrase bism ilah, and Hajkala is derived from the phrase Hajkalaa (Daabal, 2006, p. 41).
- **Major Derivation:** this form (akbar or substitution) requires that the terms have the same meaning and that the radicals be in the same order. Some radicals are acceptable, but not all, and they are typically the last ones. The final letters between the sentences, as in na9aq from al-nahaq, should be sufficient (Al-nadaar, 1993, p. 211; Al-daardaany, 2003, p. 22).

3.1.2.1 The Differences between Affixation in English and Arabic

-In English, affixation is accomplished solely by adding affixes to the root of the word, while in Arabic, it is accomplished not only by adding affixes but also by elimination, replacement, and internal word shift. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

-In English, affixes are known as bound morphemes, but in Arabic, they may be both bound and free morphemes, such as al-hamza. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

-In English, there are two forms of affix positional classification: circumfixes and superfixes; however, these are not present in Arabic. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)
-Prefixes and suffixes are discussed phonologically, syntactically, and semantically

in English, but not explicitly in Arabic.

-In addition to derivatives, the derivation process in Arabic is classified into four categories: minor, middle, main, and acronymy. There are two kinds of derivational affixes in English: class-maintaining and class-changing. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

-In English, the present tense (imperfective verb) has only one inflection: the third person singular form, which is formed by applying the suffix "-s" to the end of the verb. Some people (first and second) and pronouns have no inflection. In Arabic, the imperfective verb is conjugated by adding one of four prefixes: al-hamza, al-taa, al-nun, and al-jaa. As a result, each form of person in Arabic has a prefix. English uses a suffix in this affixation process, while Arabic uses prefixes. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

-In English, the perfective verb's form is inflected either by adding the usual suffix "-ed" to the end of the verb or by irregular inflection. However, there are no suffixes for the perfective verb in Arabic. It is found without any affixation in its infinitive form. (Igoob & Kareem, 2018)

To summarize, derivational affixes are stem-forming in English. The process of derivation is going on, with certain affixes still creating new words. There are also derivational prefixes and suffixes in English. There are no derivational affixes shared by Arabic and English (equivalent forms). They don't have any suffixes or prefixes in common that indicate a common origin or meaning.

3.3 Phonological Issues

Introduction

The aim of this study is to compare the sound system of Arabic and English in the use of the sounds /p/, /v/ and /b/, /f/. Arabic has 28 consonants (compared to 24 in English) and eight vowels/diphthongs in its alphabet (English 22).

There is no distinction between upper and lower case, and punctuation rules are much less strict than in English. Since Arabic is a Semitic language, its syntax is very different from English. When Arab students generate written or spoken English, there is a high risk of interference errors. "The Arabic and English phonological system are very different, not only in the range of sounds used, but in the emphasis placed on vowels and consonant in expressing meaning" (Smith, 2001, p. 195-196).

The field of phonetics is focused with explaining the spoken sounds that occur in everyday the world's lingua franca It is a science that includes a great deal of information .situations ideas, phrases, and definitions that need to be effectively integrated for every encounter that is significant. According to Ekundare (1993) Phonetics is sometimes defined as an auditory phenomena that is the foundation of human speech.

Scription (1972) defines phonology as "the assertion or explanation of lingual stoically significant suprasegmental features, the phonetic system, their distribution, and phonological structure." Phonology ('Ilm al-'Aswat al-Kalamiyyah) is a branch of linguistics that deals with the study of sounds. Determining which units of sound a language uses, as well as how it uses them, and examining the relationship between sounds in a given language, as well as taking action on sound system theory in general.

Based on the definitions above, one can conclude that phonology deals with how sounds fall into patterns and how they change in a speech performance while phonetics deals with sounds and how they are made, their classification and transcription.

2.2.1 English Consonants

Todd state that When the air stream is constricted or stopped at the same place between the voice chords and the lips, a consonant is formed (1987, p. 14). In the generation of English consonant sounds, the organs of speech block the outward passage of air in various ways. The flow of air might be entirely blocked at times. Sometimes the blockage is just partial, resulting in friction. Air is sometimes blown over the edges of the tongue or driven via the nostrils. The best approach to describe a consonant sound is in terms of its location and articulation style.

Articulators are speech organs that assist in the creation of spoken sounds. Active articulators (mobile articulators) such as the tongue and lower lip, and passive articulators (immobile articulators) such as the upper lip, teeth, hard palate, soft palate, uvula, throat, and alveolar ridge. as shown in the figure:

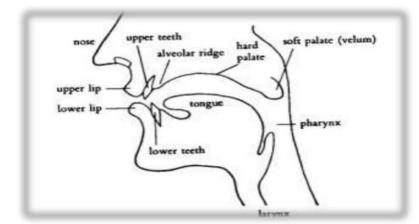


Figure 1.1 Articulators or organs of speech(Peter Roach, 2009)

Arabic and English Organs of Speech (Articulators)

English	Arabic
Pharynx	ق لحلا
Uvular	ت اهذلا
Soft Palate / Velum	ة بطلا
Alveolar	راغلا
Hard Palate	סֹנ נוֹ
Upper Teeth	ايد لعلانات سدلاًا
Upper Lip	ايد علا ة شدلا
Tongue	ذا سدللا
Lower Tongue	د ا فسد الد الد سد لأا
Lower Teeth	د ا فسلا ة ف شد لا

Lungs	ذ اعر لا
Wind Pipe	ةي ئاو هلا ةب صدقلا
Vocal Cords	ذاي تو صدلا ذارت و لا

Table 2.4 Represents Arabic and English Speech Organs.

3.3.1.1 Place of Articulation

The tongue and other components of the mouth, which control the form of the oral cavity through which the air passes, are used to make the majority of consonant sounds. Many of the terminology used to describe sounds refer to the point at which the sound is articulated, or the position inside the mouth where the constriction occurs.

• Bilabial

When the top and lower lips come together, they produce these noises. The characters /p/ and /b/ represent the first sounds in the phrase "pie, buy." The /w/ sound at the start of the word "way" is similarly bilabial. (Amer, 2001)

• Labiodental

The lower lip and upper teeth make these noises, which may be heard in words like "friend, vie" when the lower lip rises to almost contact the upper teeth. The symbols /f/ and /v/ are used to represent these sounds. (Amer, 2001)

3.3.1.3 Manner of Articulation

The way the airstream is constructed during the production of consonant sounds is referred to as the method of articulation. The location of articulation distinguishes English sounds.

• Stop/plosive

Streaming the air in the vocal tract is entirely halted at some point, the consonants generated this way are called that. The two lips can close together, producing the bilabial plosives /p/ and /b/.(Amer, 2001)

• Fricative

The noises are made as a result of an incomplete mouth closure at some time. The labiodental fricatives /f/ and /v/ are among the sounds produced with this method of articulation. (Amer, 2001)

3.3.3 Arabic Consonants

The location and style of articulation of consonants are observed to differ. The articulation system of Arabic consonants in terms of the point of articulation and the condition of the air stream, i.e. location and manner of articulation, will be covered in the following points.

Point	Bilabial	Labiodentals	Dental	Alveolar
Manner				
Plosive	b ب		ت t /د d ض /t ط ^s b ط	
			ض / [¢] t ط ^c	
Nasal	m م			ن n
Affricate				
Fricative		ف f	ٽ⊖⁄ذۆ	س s/ز z
			ظ 6،	ص s [°]
Tap/ flap				ر ۲

Table 2.5 Arabic IPA Chart It represents a voiceless consonant and a voiced consonant.

2.2.2.1 Place of Articulation

Articulators are the locations on the body that produce sounds, and sounds are associated to them. As a result, the movement of an active organ toward a constant organ forms points of articulation (Masloh, 1980).

• Bilabial

Bilabials are produced when the lips come together as in the initials of "bab" ./ \downarrow /b/ lobmys eht yb detneserper si ti \downarrow .

• Labiodental

In Arabic there is only one labiodental sound .which is made by the upper teeth and this sound is " ف راش , "fracha" ف ي ل "the lower lip. The sound is available in the initial of "fil represented by /f/ . (Amer, 2001)

3.3.3 Manner of Articulation

The organs of speech, which we refer to as place of articulation, produce sounds in Arabic, just as they do in other natural languages, and each sound has its own characteristics (Omar, 1981).

• Stop

Stop consonants in Arabic are the consequence of a full mouth closure at some point. The air is abruptly released once the pressure behind the closure builds up. A bilabial stop is $\frac{b}{...}{1002 \text{ (remA)}}$.

• Affricate

These noises are made by restricting the air flow and forcing the air through the small aperture. The labiodental fricative /f/ is found in Arabic. (Amer, 2001)

3.3.2 The Differences between Arabic and English Consonants:

2.2.3.1 Pronouncing /p/ Vs /b/

One of the most common problems for Arab speakers is differentiating between the sound /p/ and /b/, which are voiced and voiceless sounds. Indeed, they can pronounce /b/ successfully since it exists in Arabic, but the aspirated /p/ does not exist in Arabic. In English, pronouncing the sound /b/ instead of /p/ changes the meaning such as the difference between /bæt/ and /pæt/ (Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2010, p. 51). (Alfehaid, 2015).

To sum up, tap into the subtle variations, practice voicing the consonant sounds separately and side by side. the /p/ sound is pronounced like you keep a piece of paper in front of your lips and blow a puff of air out with some energy. When you pronounce the letter correctly, it will pass. The /b/ sound does not necessitate the same amount of air explosion.

2.2.3.2 Pronouncing /v/ Vs /f/

When you put your hand on your throat, you can feel the difference in pronunciation mechanics between the /f/ and /v/ sounds. Exaggerate the consonant sounds in the words "fan" and "van". The letter /v/ in the word "van" vibrates your throat, but the letter /f/ in the word "fan" does not. Another difficulty Arab speakers face when learning English is distinguishing between the /v/ and /f/ sounds. "There is no contrastive /v/ sound in Arabic, but it does appear as a positional version of /f/ before voiced stops and affricatives" (Avery & Ebrlich, 1992, p. 111).

Even though /v/ sound has a labiodental, Arab learners have difficulties pronouncing /v/ correctly because they are not aware of the way how to produce it. In Arabic, the letter /f/ appears in all three places of the words: /fri:q/ 'team' in the beginning, /safr/ 'travel' in the middle, and /kaof/ 'fear' at the end. In English, the consonant /v/ may be found in all three positions: extremely /veri:/ at the beginning, ever /v/in the middle, and thrive /ra:v/ at the end. (Alfehaid, 2015)

One can conclude that Arab speakers can pronounce /f/ easily because it is part of Arabic language. Even though they know that the two sounds are different, they still find difficulties pronouncing the /v/ sound. Concerning the pronunciation of /p/ and /b/. /p/ is a phoneme in English but not in Arabic; and /v/ is a phoneme in English but does not exist in Arabic.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have tackled the most frequent errors made by students in the field of grammar, morphology and phonetics. As a result, foreign language students should be aware of the impact of their mother tongue on their foreign language acquisition in order to prevent errors and grasp the target language.

Chapter Three

Research Design and Methodology

Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology Introduction

The present study deals with the phenomenon of native language interference, as a cause of common errors made by third year students of English at Biskra University. The following step of any research design is to move to something more practical in order to give the research more credibility. Indeed, it discusses the results acquired in the previous chapters.

This chapter is divided into two main parts; the first part is concerned with a detailed description of the research methodology, research instruments, population, and sampling. The second part analyses the data gathered through two questionnaires addressed to both teachers and students. Therefore, the current study aims to identify, and explain the interference of the mother tongue in the use of FL grammar, phonology and morphology based on a number of errors which appeared in the students' productions. Lastly, this chapter presents evidence that prove that the problem exists, and confirms the hypothesis that these difficulties are due to the interference of mother tongue.

3.1 Methodology

The current research work is a case study involving third year students, and teachers of written and oral expression courses at the English Department of University Mohamed Kheider of Biskra. The aim behind this choice is to provide an in-depth understanding of the impact of L1 on EFL students' grammar, phonology and morphology. In order to fulfill the objectives of the research, and answer the research questions, the qualitative method was adopted. This choice of the methodology is justified by the nature of the topic which implies a need for a description, and analysis of the interference of mother tongue in students' productions.

3.1.1 Population and Sampling

In order to obtain the necessary information regarding the problem of third year students in the writing skill at the English Department, University Mohamed Kheider of Biskra, a group of 37 students were chosen during the academic year 2020/2021. The sample including 7 male and 30 female, aged between 20 to 22 years, all of them are native Arabic speakers. The sample was based on the consideration that; the majority of third year students face the same difficulties of mother tongue interference in the production of English. The four teachers who participated in the work, two of them are teachers of written expression and two are of oral expression courses ; consequently, their views and perspectives in relationship to the influence the mother tongue on students production is of great value to the present work.

2.1.3 Research Tools

It is important to gather teachers' and students' opinions about the interference of the mother tongue on their use of English. Their views are very necessary to develop the students speaking and writing performance. For this aim, the instruments used; is a questionnaires addressed to both teachers and students. It is an appropriate tool to know their point of view in order to test a hypothesis.

3.1.3 Students' questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed in accordance with the literature review in the first and second chapter of the present dissertation. It consists of ten questions most of them are close ended; learners are invited to tick the correct answer. There are some open-ended questions where the informants are asked to provide explanations or further alternatives. The students were very cooperative in this operation, they answered the questionnaire online, and they did not find any difficulties to understand the questions. The questionnaire is divided into three main sections, they are as follows:

Section One:

• Background Information

This section constitututed of group of questions concerning the background information, the first and second questions are about students' gender and level of English. Concerning the last question, it is about the purpose behind students' choice of English as a branch of study at the University.

Section Two:

• Grammatical and Morphological Level

This section seeks information about Grammar and Morphology issues that learners face in studying English. It includes four questions to investigate some aspect of writing and the interference of mother tongue . The aim is to elicit students' view about grammatical and morphological transfer in their writing. Students are asked; if they think in Arabic or they think directly and immediately when writing in English. The last two questions aim at investigating the difficulties they face when writing, and if they are comfortable when the teacher explains the lesson in Arabic and in English.

Section Three:

Phonological Level

The last section consists of two questions, and it is concerned with the influence of the phonological issues that face students when speaking in English. The first question is about

the use of consonants/p/, /b/. /f/, /v/ represent a problem in the production of English. Moreover, students were asked whether they are aware that they confuse/b/ with /p/ and /f/ with/v/.

3.1.4 Teachers' questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed for teachers of oral and written expression to get more reliable information. It consists of six close-ended and open-ended questions. teachers are invited to tick the correct answer and provide full justifications were necessary.

3.2 Data Analysis and Interpretation

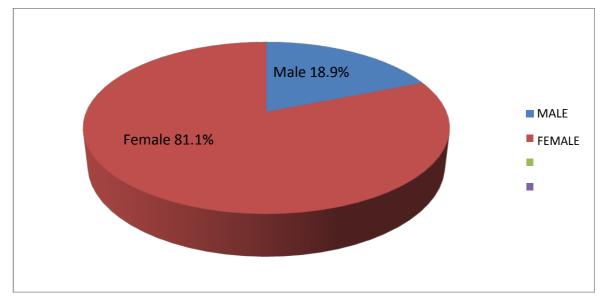
2.3.1 Results of Students' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is divided into three different parts, the first one contains general questions, whereas the second part contains grammatical issues and the last part contain phonological issue. So, starting by discussing some important questions of the first part. -The questionnaire is devoted to third year students of English the following table show the of students:

Q 1-Gender?

Table 3.6 students' Gender.

Gender	Male	Female	Total
Number of students	7	30	37
Percentage	18,9%	81,1%	100%



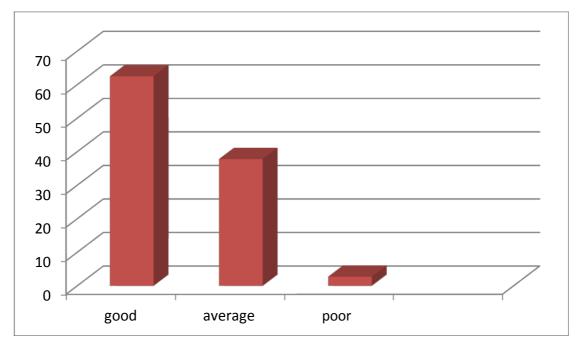
Graph 01: Students' Gender

From the graph 01 and the table above, we can notice that the most of these students are girls, whereas the boys are just 18.9%.

Q2-How do you evaluate your level in English? a-Good b- Average c-Poor Table

3.7 Students level in English.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Good	.2	5.26%
Average	41	2.23%
Podor	4	.2.%
Total	23	411%



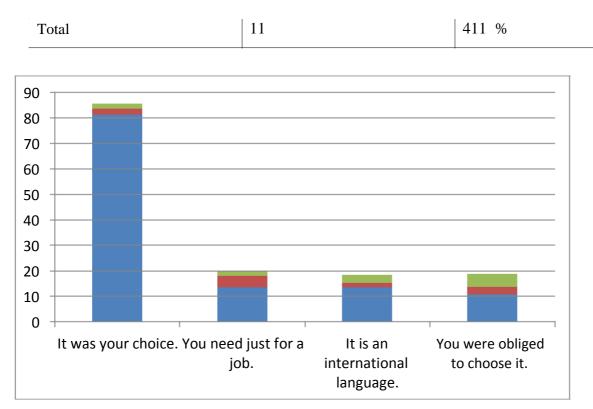
Graph 02: Description of the students' level in English.

The results of this question show, that (62.2%) of the respondents have good level in English, while (37.8%) of them are average and (2.7%) of them are poor. This can be related to the students self confidence and self esteem.

Q3-Did you choose to study English because?

Table 3.8 Students' ch	oice of English.
------------------------	------------------

Responses	Number	Percentage
It was your choice.	21	34213 %
You need just for a job.	6	4226%
It is an international language.	6	4226 %
You were obliged to choose it.	1	4123 %



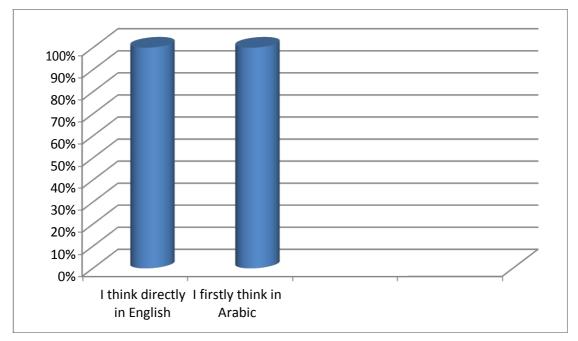
Graph 03: Students' choice of English.

As shown in the table above and the graph that The majority (81.08%) of the sample opted for "it was your choice " but, only (10.8%) of the students choose " you were obliged to choose it". Accordingly, most of the students were motivated to study English as a foreign language.

Q4-When writing in English, do you systemize in Arabic or you think directly and immediately in English?

Responses	Number	Percentage
I think directly in English	24	64.9%
I firstly think in Arabic	15	40.5%
Total	39	100%

Table 3.9 The language that students think of first.



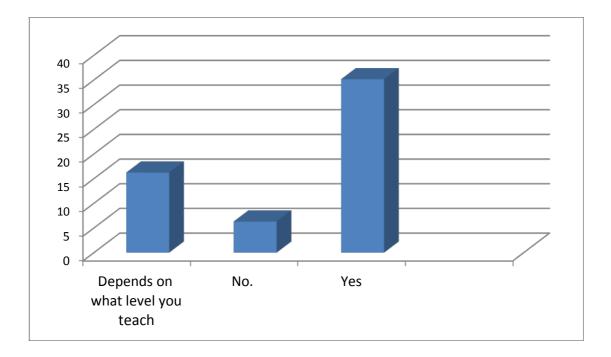
Graph 04: The language that students think of first.

we have noticed that(64.9%) said that think directly in English while (40.5%) choose to firstly think in Arabic than in English.

Q5-Do you believe that Arabic language can be used as means of instruction during English lessons?

Table 3.10 Using Arabic Language as means of instruction.

Responses	Number	Percentage
1-Depends on what level	6	16.21%
you teach.		
1-No.	17	6.29%
2-No, I don't think so.		
3-No, I don't.		
1-Yes, it can be.	13	35.13%
2-Yes.		
3-Yes, a lot.		
Total	36	100%



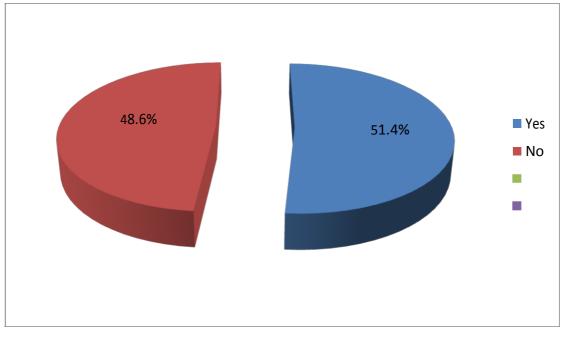
Graph 05: Using Arabic Language as means of instruction.

from the table and graph we can notice that (35.13%) agreed that Arabic can be used as mean of instruction. On the other hand, (6.29%) think that Arabic cannot be used as mean of instruction during an English class and (16.21%) indicate that it depends on the level of teaching.

Q6-Does your knowledge of the Arabic rules Affects your way of writing?

Responses	Number	Percentage
Yes	19	51.4%
No	18	48.6%
Total	37	100%

Table 3.11 The affect of Arabic Language on students' writing.



Graph 06: The affect of Arabic Language on students' writing.

Fom the table above and the figure that the majority have answered by "yes" and the rest have answered by "No".

Justification: In case of "Yes" or "No"

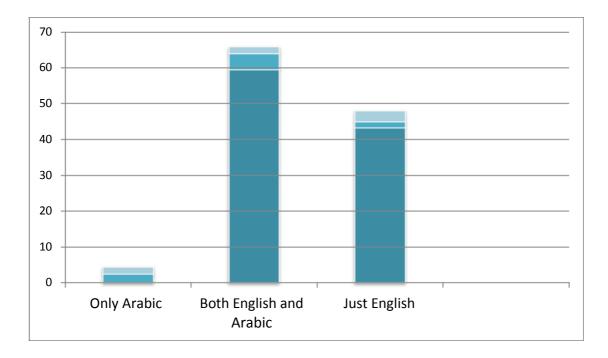
yes, it does affect the way we write (51.4%).

No, it does not affect the way we write (48.6%).

Q7-Do you feel more comfortable when the teacher explains the lesson?

Table 3.12 The language that students' prefer.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Only Arabic	0	0%
Both English and Arabic	22	59.5%
Just English	16	43.2%
Total	38	100%



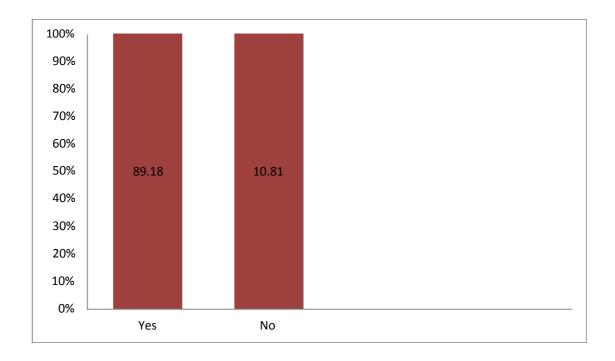
Graph 07: the language that students' prefer.

From the above table and the graph we can observe that (59.5%) prefer that the teacher explain the lesson by both English and Arabic while (43.2%) prefer that the teacher should explain only in English and (0%) explain in Arabic.

Q8-Do the following consonants/p/, /b/, /f/, /v/ represent a problem in your

pronunciation? Table 3.13 The problem of pronouncing /p/, /b/, /f/,/v/.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Yes	33	89.18%
No	4	10.81%
Total	37	100%



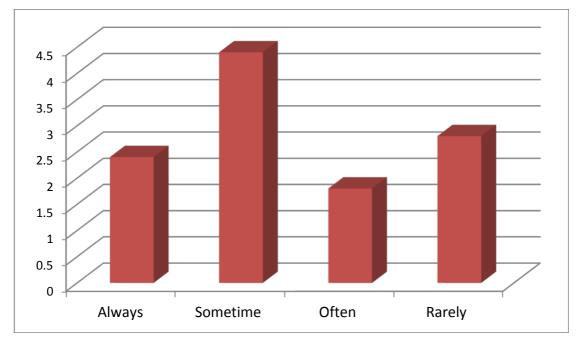
Graph 08: the problem of pronouncing /p/, /b/, /f/, /v/

from the table above and the graph we can notice that (89.18%) have problem in pronouncing the consonants /p/, /b/, /f/, /v/ while (10.81%) they don't have problem.

Q9-Do you confuse/p/, /v/ with/b/, /f/?

Table 3.14 The confusion between the consonants /p/, /v/ with /b/, /f/.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Always	28	75.7%
Sometime	6	16.2%
Often	3	8.1%
Rarely	0	0%
Total	37	100%



Graph 9: The confusion between the consonants /p/, /v/ with /b/, /f/

From the table above and the graph we can notice that (75.7%) have answer with always , (16.2%) answered with sometimes, (8.1%) answered with often and (0%) answered with rarely.

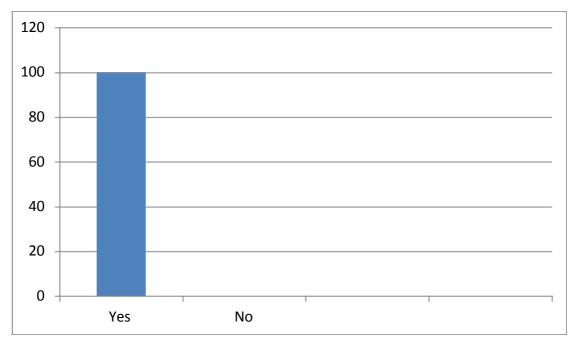
3.2.2 Results of Teachers' Questionnaire

The questions are six questions, the five first questions designed to ask instructors about L1 interference and the different errors that occur through the influence of the L1. Indeed, the last question is about the interference of students, mother tongue affect their progression of writing skills. The questionnaire has been submitted to teachers of third year students of English. the outcomes of the questionnaire are displayed in the following.

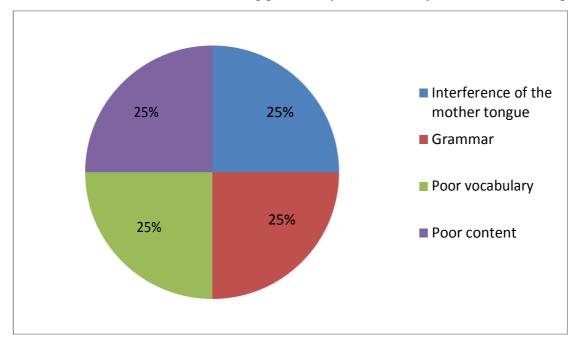
Q1-Do your students find difficulties when writing in English?

Table 3.15 The difficulties that students face.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0%
Total	4	100%



Graph 41: Description of the most common writing problems.



Q2-What are the most common writing problems you noticed in your students' writing?

Graph 44: Description of the most common writing problems.

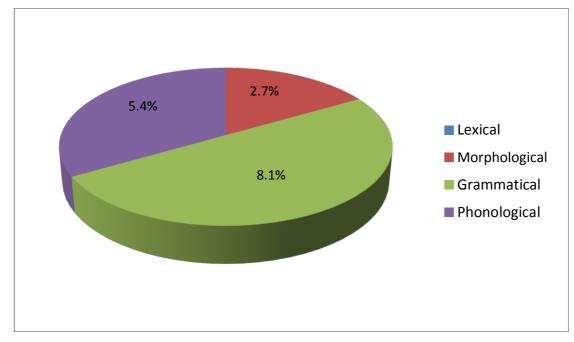
from the table above and the graph we can notice that students have problem in all (interference of the mother tongue, grammar, poor vocabulary, poor content).

Q3-What are the most recurrent errors made by third year students?

Table 3.16 The most recurrent errors made by students.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Lexical	0	0%

Morphological	1	2.7%
Grammatical	3	8.1%
Phonological	2	5.4%
Total	6	100%

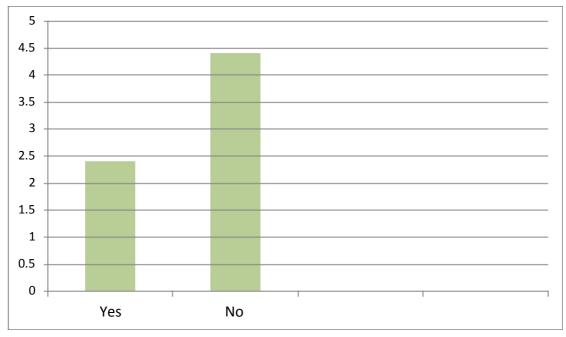


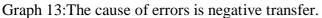
Graph 12: The most recurrent errors made by students.

from the table above and the graph we can notice that the most recurrent errors made by students is in grammar.

Q4-Do you think that these errors can be caused by negative L1 transfer/ interference? Table 3.17 The cause of errors is negative transfer.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0%
Total	4	100%





From the table above and the graph we can notice that the majority(100%) have answered by "yes" and (0%) by "No".

Justification in case of "No" or "Yes"

-It is deeply rooted in students' way of thinking. so the transfer easily happens especially with the lack of exposure to authentic language.

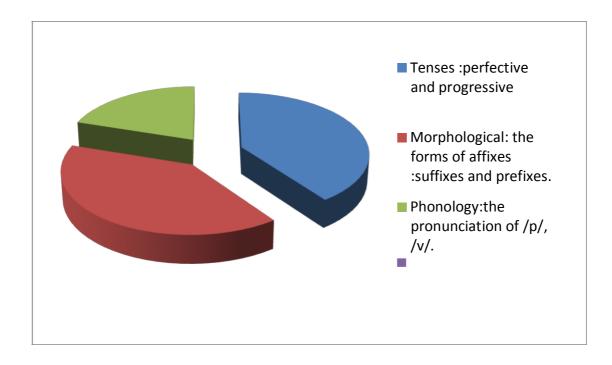
-They face all the four mentioned writing problems.

-some still think in the Arabic way.

Q5-What are the most frequent errors students make ?

Table 3.18 Students' most frequent errors.

Responses	Number	Percentage
Tenses :perfective and	2	5.4%
progressive		
Morphological: the forms	2	5.4%
of affixes :suffixes and		
prefixes.		
Phonology: the	1	2.7%
pronunciation of /p/, /v/.		
Total	5	100%



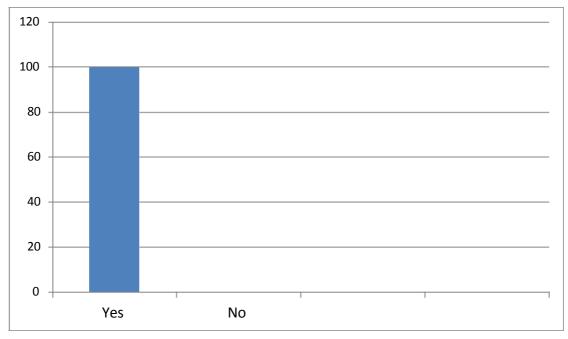
Graph 14: students' most frequent errors.

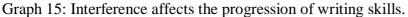
from the table above and the graph we can notice that the most frequent errors made by students are Tenses :perfective and progressive and Morphological: the forms of affixes :suffixes and prefixes.

Q6-In the view of your experience does the interference of students' mother tongue affect their progression of writing skills?

Responses	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0%
Total	4	100%

Table 3.19 Interference affects the progression of writing skills.





From the table above and the graph we can notice that (100%) have answered by "Yes" and (0%) have answered by "No".

Justification: In case of "Yes" or "No"

-somehow as his linguistic background is poor+lack of reading=still depends on mother tongue's structures.

-Yes, it does.L1 transfer inhibits students from producing a good piece of writing using the target language. This may be displayed in certain cultural-related expressions.

Conclusion

In summation, the present chapter seeks to examine the hypotheses and provide complete answers to the questions. The Questionnaire addressed to both teacher and students were used as suitable tools for this research. The results based on the error analysis of students' productions, revealed that the errors that have been made by third year students in different areas are due to L1interference. To support the statistical calculated, the analysis of the findings shows that the majority of students have difficulties in grammar, morphology and phonology.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The learner's mother tongue has such a powerful impact on foreign language acquisition that EFL learners try to employ their first language norms and structures to help them learn the foreign language. This way of transforming information from one language to another may cause what is called negative transfer. The latter affects two of the four skills that are respectively speaking and writing. This are regarded as the most complicated and hardest skills for EFL students to acquire. Third year learners at Biskra University make a lot of errors while practicing the writing and speaking skills, these errors are due to the interference of mother tongue. The aims of this research were to analyze and identify how far is the impact of the mother tongue on writing and speaking in English as a foreign language, and to explore the common errors made by third year students. The obtained outcomes indicate that FLL's awareness of this problem may lead to initial procedure to solve this kind of FL acquisition difficulties.

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Appendices

Appendices

Appendix 01: Students' Questionnaire

Students' Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to find out your attitude toward transfer of mother tongue into English. Your answers will be used for research purposes only. This questionnaire will be anonymous. Thank you.

Section One: General information

. You have to answer the following questions by ticking (\Box) the appropriate box, or by making a full justification wherever needed.

1-Gender
Male
Female
2-How do you evaluate your level in English?
good
Average
Poor
3- Did you choose to study English because:
a- It was your choice.
b- You need it just for a job.
c- It is an international language.
d- You were obliged to Choose it.

Section two: Grammar and Morphology issues 3- When writing in English,

do you systemize in Arabic or you think directly and immediately in English?

a/ I directly think in English.
b/ I firstly think in Arabic.
4-Do you believe that Arabic language can be used as a means of instruction during English
lessons?
5-Does your knowledge of the Arabic rules affects your way of writing?
Yes
No
-whatever your answer, please Justify?
6- Do you feel more comfortable when the teacher explains the lesson?
a- using only the Arabic language.
b- When the teacher uses both English and Arabic.
Section three: phonological issues
1-Do the following consonants/p/, /b/. /f/, /v/ represents a problem in your pronunciation?

2-/p/,/v/ have no equivalent in Arabic. Do you use the sounds/b/, /f/ instead ?

-Always	
-Often	
-Sometimes	
-Rarely	

Appendix 02: Teachers' Questionnaire

This survey is part of my master's thesis study. I would appreciate it if you take your precious time to tick the appropriate answer. Thank you for your cooperation.

1-Do your students find difficulties when writing in English?

.....

2- What are the most common writing problems you noticed in your students' writing?

Grammar mistakes
Interference of the mother tongue
Poor vocabulary
poor content
3- The most recurrent errors made by third year students?

-Lexical	
-Morphological	
-Grammatical	
-Phonological	
4-Do you think th	at these errors can be caused by negative L1 transfer/ interference?
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	

.....

5What are the most frequent errors students make:

-Tenses : perfect/progressive tenses.

-Morphological : the forms of affixes: suffixes and perfixes).

-Phonology : the pronunciation of /p/, /v/.

6-According to your experience does the interference of students 'mother tongue affect their progression of writing skills? please, Justify your answer.

.....

ملخص الدراسة