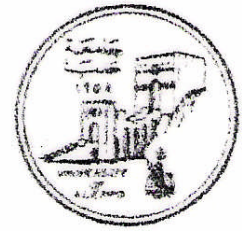


Aleppo University

Faculty of Arts and Humanities

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**Interference of Syntactic, Lexical and Phonological
Aspects from Arabic into English for Syrian University
Students: A Cross-Sectional Study in the HIL at Aleppo
University**

A Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

by

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2013

Declaration

I hereby certify that this work has not been accepted for any degree, and it is not submitted for any other degrees.

Candidate

Adnan Azzouz

Testimony

We testify that the described work in this Ph.D. dissertation is the result of scientific research conducted by the candidate Adnan Azzouz under the supervision of Dr. Ali Saud Hasan, Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Faculty of Education, Damascus University and Dr. Saleh Al-Khateib, Associate Professor of Phonetics at the Department of English, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Aleppo University. Any other references mentioned in this work are documented in the text of this thesis.

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Abstract

This research focuses upon the analysis of Pre-Intermediate (PI) and Upper-Intermediate (UI) students' errors of interlanguage focusing upon their syntactic, lexical, and Phonological types. Firstly, the notion of transfer is presented in relation to its concept and historical background. Secondly, the notion of error analysis is reviewed with its models. Finally, the concepts of syntactic, lexical and Phonological interference from the mother tongue (L1) into the target language (L2) are thoroughly reviewed and discussed. It also tries to seek the factors that play a main role in accelerating or reducing the process of interference.

Samples of syntactic, lexical, and Phonological interference errors are then introduced, which are collected from interviews, free composition tests, Language Proficiency Tests, and Motivation & Attitude Questionnaires. The samples of this study are 120 PI and UI students at the Higher Institute of Languages (HIL) at Aleppo University in September-November 2010. There is a comparison between PI and UI students' types of errors, paying particular attention to syntactic, lexical and, Phonological interlingual types in addition to general assessment of intralingual types.

Findings of the statistical analysis reveal that there is a natural development in the students' control of the syntactic, lexical, and Phonological aspects. The study indicates that there is a radical reduction of the types of errors that UI students have made in comparison to those of the PI students. Moreover, the analysis has also shown statistically significant differences between the performances of students in both levels. It shows that negative interference plays a major role in the rate and frequency of errors committed by the subjects in this study.

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Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

One of the crucial factors influencing the English learning process for Arab learners is interference or negative transfer, which may be defined as "the use of a negative language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language (TL)" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 205). The term 'interference', however, has been utilised to refer to the transfer of learners' previous or existing knowledge of the mother tongue (MT) while learning the target language (TL). Therefore, errors may occur as the outcome of such interference, which involves the application of general learning strategies similar to those manifested in first language acquisition (Lim, 2003; Richards, 1971). In relation to this notion, this research is intended for investigating the extent to which errors occur interlingually and intralingually in learning English by students of the Higher Institute of Languages (HIL) at Aleppo University.

The current research aimed to investigate the effects of the MT (Arabic) upon learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in an elicited cross-sectional atmosphere at the HIL, Aleppo University. It attempted to find out whether there was any negative or positive or no effect of their MT upon their foreign language (FL). The interlanguage English speech and writing of the subjects under question were thoroughly studied and examined. The main aim of the research was to detect and analyse the influence of L1 on the development of these skills. This project aimed to contribute to the debate concerning interlanguage in general, with reference to L1 feature transfer.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although the effect of First Language (L1) upon FL was investigated in the literature on Foreign Language Learning (FLL) in Syria, this process needs more exploration. In this respect, the present study aims to scrutinise the nature of errors that Syrian university students make and the effect of the Syrian university students' MT (Arabic) upon their English language. Thus, in brief, the problem of the research can be stated as follows: "What is the nature of students' errors and the effect of the Syrian university students' MT (Arabic) upon their English language in the syntactic, lexical and phonological fields?"

1.3 Significance of the Study

The significance of the study stemmed from the following points:

1. It is one of the few studies in Syria that deal with the factor of the MT (Arabic) as a variable affecting the FL (English) of the subjects (Syrian university students) that try to cover most linguistic aspects that were syntactic, lexical and phonological.
2. The implications of this study aid to reveal the existence of any negative effect of the MT upon the FL. If so, would English be recovered in the long run or become fossilised?
3. It investigates the types of the errors that these subjects made and attempts to attribute these errors to their possible reasons.
4. It might contribute to further understanding of learning English at Syrian universities.

1.4 Aims of the Study

This study aims to:

1. Trace the English output productions of students either in uttered or written forms in order to manifest if there was a negative effect of Arabic upon the students' produced language in the syntactic, lexical and phonological aspects.
2. Measure how Arabic has influenced the English language for Syrian Pre-Intermediate (PI) and Upper-Intermediate (UI) university students.
3. Figure out the amount of interlingual and intralingual errors in students' speech.

1.5 Questions of the Study

The present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Are there positive, negative or neutral effects of Arabic upon English for Syrian university students?
2. In what direction will English language use develop in the existence of Arabic language interference for HIL students at Aleppo University?
3. Are there any syntactic, lexical, or phonological aspects that are transferred from Arabic to English for these learners?
4. To what degree do interlingual and intralingual errors decrease with the improvement of learners' FL proficiency? Does the extent of decrease vary according to each language aspect?
5. If there are negative effects of Arabic language upon English, is it serious for the learners' final attainment of English?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

1. The performance of PI and UI students at the (syntactic, lexical and phonological) levels is different.
2. Some errors persist throughout the PI and UI language levels.
3. There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that students at the two language levels make.

1.7 Research Methodology

The English interlanguage output spoken and written texts of the subjects were reviewed, discussed and analysed in order to find out the effect of their MT. The areas of investigation in this research were approached by using more than one instrument for the purpose of collecting data: a questionnaire, tape-recording, face-to-face interviews and English Language Proficiency tests. In the present research, instrumentation was used to elicit, observe and record the spoken and written behaviours of EFL learners at the HIL. This study attempted to interpret the findings in light of the explanatory theories of FLL.

1.7.1 Data Collection Instruments

In this research, the following data collection procedures were implemented.

1.7.1.1 Interviews

The researcher conducted interviews with some of the subjects of the intended population: 15 PI and 15 UI students based upon random sampling. All subjects were asked the same type of questions and were given sufficient time to express themselves freely without any interventions.

1.7.1.2 Free Composition

Twenty-one subjects: 14 PI and 7 UI students were asked to do free composition in English about their daily life activities. They were asked to write an essay about a topic out of three topics. The focus here was on structural well-formedness (Kecskes, 1998; Kecskes & Papp, 2000a).

1.7.1.3 Questionnaire

This questionnaire consisted of questions related to Motivation and Attitude. It was administered to 120 subjects: 80 PI and 40 UI students, where the focus was upon the attitudes and motivation factors of the subjects under study. This questionnaire focused upon the linguistic backgrounds of the students under study and their attitudes towards English language in general.

1.7.1.4 Tests

They were the Oxford Placement Tests (OPT) that tested the grammaticality and acceptability of language. They focused upon morpho-syntactic structures as well as co-reference judgments. The sound system comprehension skills were tested in the listening skill. The purpose of the former test was to find out if Arabic language structures were transferred into English in students' minds. It helped to check if students who went through an advanced FL training or had the FL as a medium of instruction used their FL differently from those who were lower than them regarding the language level. Thus, this test was directed to two different populations who were at the PI and the UI levels. The reason of choosing these two language levels is thoroughly explained in the Research Methodology Chapter. This test was administered to the same 120 subjects (80 PI and 40 UI students). The reason behind using

the previous tests was to check if low proficiency and relatively rare use of the FL resulted in linguistic transfer from the L1 to the FL.

1.7.2 The Participants of the Study

The subjects of this study were Syrian university students who were learning English at the HIL, Aleppo University. They were divided into two different populations. The first group was subjects in the PI level of their English language who were 20-25 years old. The second group was subjects in their UI level of their English language who were 20-25 years old. The number of the first group was 80 subjects out of the total number that was 160, and 40 subjects for the second group out of the total number that was 80. Thus, 50% of the total number of students was selected in this study. They were divided into two categories based upon gender: 62 males and 58 females. The total number of subjects in the two groups was 120 subjects out of 240 students. The age factor was controlled because all the subjects belonged to the same age.

1.8 Procedural Definitions of Certain Terms

Foreign Language (FL): In this research, it is English which is only learned through instruction in a classroom setting.

Interlingual Errors: This type of errors refers to the errors that are attributed to L1 transfer.

Intralingual Errors: This type of errors refers to developmental errors that are attributed to the type of FL learning itself in addition to the process of FL structure development.

Interference of Syntactic Aspects: Syntactic and morphological aspects are transferred from the MT into the FL.

Interference of Lexical Aspects: Lexical aspects are transferred from the MT into the FL.

Interference of Phonological Aspects: Phonological aspects are transferred from the MT into the FL.

Performance: "A person's actual use of language" (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: 403). In this research, it refers to the language used by PI and UI students and the differences between them and the relation between this difference to MT interference or language natural development.

Phonological categories: They are shaped by linguistic experience and are tailored towards the speaker's native language (Makarova, 2010:173).

Mother Tongue (MT): In this research, it is the Arabic language because all the subjects are Arabs.

Syrian University Students: They are the students who have finished their secondary studies at Syrian schools and have enrolled at the universities.

1.9 Scope of the Study

1. The role of the linguistic abilities in attaining FL proficiency could be best detected by conducting a longitudinal study that displays the development of these abilities and their relatedness to the progress of FL proficiency. Nonetheless, due to time limitations, implementing such a study would have taken a considerable amount of time that the researcher could not. In addition, the researcher was unable to guarantee having the same students for many reasons. The first one was that some of them would move to higher language levels, while others might not be able to do so. The second one was the huge number of students, which could not be guaranteed to have all the time. The last one was that some students might leave the institute and might not continue their English language studies.

2. On the other hand, the availability of language laboratories could have greatly helped the researcher in analysing the data. For example, the phonemic transcription of the phonological errors could have been better transcribed and analysed by using a transcriber machine. The availability of such devices could have saved the time spent on doing the transcription, and more accuracy could have been gained.

3. The focus of this study was on interference (interlingual) errors with some reference to other intralingual and developmental errors. For phonological errors, the focus was upon interlingual ones, which were classified as segmental errors. However, other phonological intralingual errors were connected with those of lexical errors under the category "phonic and graphic resemblance". Other types of phonological errors were not included as supra-segmentals, that are sound phenomena as accent and intonation, which might stretch over more than one segment.

4. The focus of the detailed analysis in this research was on interviews because they reflected the students' actual productions at various linguistic levels. There was a reference to

other types of investigation as compositions, Language Proficiency Test: the grammatical and the listening and Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire.

1.10 The Structure Organisation of the Study

This chapter briefly introduced the main ideas of this research with the purpose and the significance behind conducting it as well as the problem of the study and the research hypotheses. The following chapters will discuss the ideas presented in this chapter in more details. In addition, pieces of evidence from the literature as well as from Syrian learners of English will be provided alongside the theories and hypotheses about the questions of this study.

This research consists of six chapters. After presenting the main ideas of this research in the introduction, the second and third chapters highlight the literature review about the topic of the study where the discussions, theories and viewpoints were presented. The fourth chapter, furthermore, deals with the research methodology and the instruments used to achieve the aims of this research. The fifth and six chapters discuss the results and the quantitative and qualitative analyses of results. The final chapter encompasses the conclusion where a summary of the essential findings of the research is presented with some suggested recommendations for further future studies.

Chapter II

Review of the Literature: Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the general framework, which examines five major issues related to the phenomenon of interference. Firstly, there is an analysis of the concept of "interlanguage" of FL learners in various studies. Secondly, an overview of the notion of interference or transfer, its historical background and its main characteristics are reviewed. Then, there is a review of the most important theories that have tackled the issue of L1 interference or transfer into FL. Primarily, they are the Behaviourist Theory and Contrastive Analysis (CA). Finally, the concepts of Error Analysis (EA), the nature of FL errors and their potential causes are reviewed and thoroughly explained.

2.2 Background Information on 'Interlanguage Theory'

There had been many attempts to find a definition for the notion of "interlanguage". The working definition was based upon relating this intermediate language as a third language with a dynamic structure, grammar, words and speakers at a specific point to acquire/learn the TL fully and correctly. Brown (2000) and Gass and Selinker (2001), for example, proposed a definition based upon the previous parameters:

The basic assumption in SLA research is that learners create a language system known as an interlanguage (IL). This system is composed of numerous elements, not the least of which are elements from the native language (NL) and the TL. What is important is that the learners themselves impose structure on the available linguistic data and formulate an internalised system.

(Gass & Selinker, 2001, p.12).

Interlanguage refers to the separateness of a foreign language learner's system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and TLs.

(Brown, 2000, p.215).

According to Gass and Selinker (2001) and Brown (2000), this concept of having "interlanguage" as an intermediate language opened the gate of having a wide range of language styles and systems that could hardly be accounted for. The language, which was manipulated by the "interlanguage" speakers, was so intimate to them in the sense that they could interact using it whereas others who watched or listened to them might not be able to capture it fully. It was a language that had the function of any natural language. It was a means of communication among those who interacted using it.

2.2.1 The Theory of Interlanguage

In 1969, a new trend in language learning evolved focusing upon any language that a learner or acquirer was using. It regarded any language as a completely dynamic world with its own structure, characteristics, grammar and words. This new approach was proposed by Selinker (1969, 1972) as the notion of "Interlanguage". Interlanguage can be defined as "a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and TLs", (Brown, 1994,

p. 203). It was the intermediate language that any L2 learner or acquirer of a language had to come across in his/her way to learn the TL comprehensively. Selinker, (1972) stated that, "The existence of a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm. This linguistic system we will call 'interlanguage' (IL)", (p.214). Selinker proposed the notion of "interlanguage" as a linguistic way, which was utilised by the learner to communicate in the TL. It was an attempt by the learner to interact with his/her new surroundings regardless of the correctness of his/her speech. Despite this notion, the language used by that learner was considered as a whole set of language rules that constituted a natural language, which was comprehended among its speakers.

2.2.1.1 Interlanguage and Strategies of Learning

Selinker (1972) proposed the notion that "interlanguage" was the outcome of many cognitive processes that were activated in the human brain. These faculties were activated when a subject tried to learn/acquire any language after the age of puberty. Selinker (1972) listed five factors, which might cause the output of interlanguage:

- (1) Language transfer: fossilisable items, rules, subsystems that occurred in the interlanguage because of transfer from the native language.
- (2) Transfer of training: items resulting from particular approaches used in training.
- (3) Strategies of FLL: identifiable approaches by the learner to the material being learned.
- (4) Strategies of foreign-language communication: identifiable approaches by the learner to communicate with native speakers of the TL.

(5) Overgeneralisation of TL linguistic material: overgeneralisation of TL rules and semantic features, (p.210).

Gass and Selinker (2001) noted that learner's interlanguage contained some rules that were identical to those of a native speaker, but differed in some respects. The rules/assumptions/hypotheses in the learner's interlanguage might be due to multiple reasons, such as the learner's native language, his/her innate language grant, generalisations based on experience in the TL, and creative hypotheses. It was noticed that any learner's interlanguage was not stable because of the increased exposure to the TL environment. Therefore, the learner's interlanguage would become more complex in that progress through an increased experience and involvement in the TL. However, it was not easily observable based on the types and numbers of errors that learners produced. It was noted that few learners progressed all the way to native-like proficiency in all areas of the TL. Most FL learners did not become fully professional in all relevant fields of target-language use.

In observing the previous notion of Selinker (1972), it was noticed that he had only included adults as having the previous cognitive processes. Nevertheless, the 'Interlanguage' theory was broadened to include children's second-language performance as well. Selinker and his associates (1975) manifested two circumstances where L1 hypothesis could be extended to child-language acquisition: (1) non-simultaneous acquisition of the second language, and (2) the absence of native speaking peers of the TL. 'Strategy' means a conscious or unconscious cognitive activity to process foreign-language data in the attempt to express meaning.

2.2.1.2 Interlanguage and Intelligibility

The concept of an interlanguage system was used to explain certain aspects of the intelligibility of non-native speech. Studies demonstrated that non-native listeners might have an increased ability to understand non-native speech spoken by speakers of their own native language relative to native listeners (Munro, Derwing and Morton, 2006). For example, English spoken by a native speaker of Arabic might be more intelligible to another native Arab speaker who was an FL learner of English, than to a native speaker of English. This phenomenon was attributed to the presence of an interlanguage system that was common and comprehended by speakers of the same L1 and was called the "interlanguage speech intelligibility benefit (ISIB)" (Bent and Bradlow, 2003, p.45).

Research into the ISIB produced a set of complex and contradictory results. Bent and Bradlow (2003) found that Mandarin and Korean learners could successfully recognise vocabulary in non-native English speech, which was uttered by speakers from their own native language. These learners were also successful at recognising vocabulary in native English speech. These findings referred to the mutual intelligibility of speech for non-native and native speakers for non-native listeners. This, in turn, showed the intelligibility benefit of speakers' interlanguage speech. Another type of ISIB was the one that showed that non-native listeners were much better in the ability to recognise the speech of other non-native speakers than those of native listeners. This was called the interlanguage speech benefit for listeners.

2.2.1.3 Interlanguage as Rule-Governed Behaviour

Attempts were made to look at the systematicity of the interlanguage of foreign-language learners as being a rule-governed behaviour. The central fact in support of the above comprehension of interlanguage was that it could be linguistically realised as any natural language. In the attempt to understand the degree of resemblance between ILs and natural

languages, Adjemian (1976) pointed out two parallels: "Both are the same type of systems and hence are both amenable to description by linguistic-theoretical tools... (and) ILs can normally be used for communication among their speakers" (p.300). Adjemian (1976) viewed that, in contrast to Selinker's cognitive emphasis, what emerged from interlanguage research was a strong belief that interlanguage grammars, like any language system, were internally consistent in obeying universal linguistic constraints. As long as linguists could account for errors committed by learners, they could formulate a set of rules about the development of the learnt language and the errors that were made during each stage. By doing so, they could claim the universal aspects of "interlanguage" as any other language that had its own linguistic rules.

Brown (2000) viewed "interlanguage" as a whole language by itself that was in the intermediate way between the MT and the TL and it was rule-governed despite its overt disorder. He insisted that although there was disarray in the process of "interlanguage" for its learners, it was a rule-governed behaviour, which involved personal engagement in shaping its confusion. Learners did their best to understand people in their new surroundings and in their turn made them understand their speech. They formulated a linguistic system that was in between that was between the MT and the TL.

Corder (1973) recognised that research could be directed at the learner's 'transitional competence'. Corder (1973) originally thought that the only possible methodological difference between Error Analysis (EA) and the study of the learner's language was in what was actually being compared. According to this point of view, EA was intended to compare the learner's language with the 'whole' TL, while the study of the learner's language itself was directed at the learner's knowledge at a given point in time in connection with what had been taught so far.

Adjemian (1976) emphasised that the property of permeability of ILs allowed penetration or generalisation. The loss of permeability prevented the learners from achieving native-like competence. Adjemian (1976) viewed permeability as, "A property unique to ILs and by which they may be differentiated from all other natural languages" (p.311). In this view, a clear distinction was drawn between "interlanguage" and other "natural languages". A natural language was subject to change by the passage of time but it required a long period to change. On the other hand, interlanguage was characterised by its continuous permeability over a very short period.

As it was noted before, interlanguage was not a TL by itself. It was the linguistic way by which its speakers could communicate with their surroundings. It was the means of speakers which enabled them to be part of their new surroundings. Although it contained errors and mistakes, interlanguage functioned well for the needs of its speakers.

2.2.1.4 Interlanguage as a Continuum of Styles

Under the concept of interlanguage as a natural language, Tarone (1979) assumed that IL behaved essentially as other languages. Tarone's (1979, 1983) paradigm of work was founded on the presupposition that there were axioms applicable to research on interlanguage. However, for a fuller appreciation of the relationship between the study of 'interlanguage' and Labov's (1970) methodological axioms, it was essential to mention them as summarised by Tarone (1979):

Axiom One: Style-Shifting

There is no fixed style that speakers of a language have to follow because speakers will change their linguistic and phonological styles as they change situations and topics.

Axiom Two: Attention

The attention, which is paid by speakers, will change as their linguistic styles move from little commitment to grammatical rules into almost fully grammatical speech.

Axiom Three: Vernacular

In this mode, people tend not to pay careful attention to their speech. Therefore, sustained regular and systematic phonological and grammatical models can be formed depending upon the actual free speech uttered by speakers.

Axiom Four: Formality

Contrary to the vernacular mode, when there is scrutiny of a native speaker or a non-native teacher towards a learner, the latter tends to pay more attention to his/her speech.

Axiom Five: Good Data

Although it is more natural when someone tapes others without their attention, it is advised that the good data should be taken in a direct tape-recorded interview. This means that the setting here is formal and the subject is fully aware that he/she is being tape-recorded.

It is worth investigating the factors that can accelerate or reduce the speed of learning/acquiring a language and its verification. One of the most important factors according to many researchers such as Pica, Holliday, Lewis and Morgenthaler, (1989) was the native speaker of the TL. Those native speakers, or more fluent non-native speakers of a language, negotiated meaning through interaction with the students, helping them to form and

test hypotheses, causing them to construct mental models of the TL, and ultimately helping the students to move along the interlanguage continuum towards the TL (Pica, Holliday, Lewis and Morgenthaler, 1989; Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos and Linnell, 1996)

Sociocultural perspectives on language learning were influenced by the work of Warschauer (1997). They provided a balancing position that considered language learners to be in direct relation to their social and cultural surroundings and condition. Many factors were thought to have a direct impact on a learner's interlanguage progression. They were summarised as "comprehensible input, intake, and output, negotiation of meaning, and attention to both form and meaning" (p.475).

On the question of the learner's interlanguage capability, Tarone (1983) described it as having the function of underlying or guiding the foreign-language learner's regular language behaviour. Tarone cast a greater emphasis on the term 'capability'; it was used instead of the term 'competence' because 'capability' could lead to accurate descriptions of interlanguage. In other words, 'capability' could fulfil all the expectations of a clear understanding of what underlies all regular language behaviours, whereas 'competence' referred to the linguistic knowledge which was reflected in grammatical intuitions accessed through introspection. In Tarone's model (1983) of 'Interlanguage Continuum', "the capability of the speaker of IL included both the careful and the vernacular styles of the system and the intermediate continuum of styles which made up the system of IL" (p.152). In the light of Tarone's understanding of the 'Capability Continuum', it was expected that TL structures, which moved from the careful style towards the vernacular over time as a part of the learning process, would replace the spontaneous IL structures of the vernacular style. It was not a fixed style; it was a moving forward style that pushed the learners to advance in their interlanguage towards being part of the TL styles. It was important to point out here that Tarone, like Adjemian, suggested not only that L1 but also the styles of L1 obeyed the constraints of language uni-

versals. In essence then, interlanguage could be considered as a natural language, and as such, it was subject to analysis by means of standard linguistic techniques.

An important term that should be presented is "fossilisation". Fossilisation is a mental situation that occurs when someone who acquires/learns a language believes that he/she is able to communicate in that language in a good and functional way. It is a passive push that reduces and even stops the process of changing "interlanguage" into a TL linguistic style. Fossilisation was described by Virgil and Oller (1976):

Fossilisation occurs when students stop moving toward the TL, reflecting a feeling that the current mental model is functionally acceptable and no longer challenged by input from the students' interlocutors (p.281).

In this perspective, fossilisation is natural in the light of our knowledge of the human mentality, which tends to relax after achieving a kind of success in a specific field. The main goal of learning or acquiring a language is to be able to communicate in the new surroundings. Thus, when people achieve an acceptable capacity to communicate with others regardless of the correctness of their utterances, they tend to feel comfortable and not to activate extra areas in their mind for more language learning.

Swain's (1985) theories agree with Virgil and Oller's (1976) theories of fossilisation (as cited in Brown, 1993), according to which, interlocutors can signal acceptance, or the need for more negotiation of meaning, in the face of students' output. When the interlocutors signal acceptance on both an affective and a cognitive level, many students tend to feel that their mental model of the language and its output are good enough to be functional. At this point, their model fossilises in the interlanguage continuum, before achieving the required linguistic competence in the TL.

Another notion that is related to IL is "the affective filter" which is a state in which learners think carefully before uttering a sentence. Thus, they filter their speech according to the standard dimensions of a language. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) defined the affective filter as "a screening device in the internal processing system, governed by the learners' motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states" (p.46), which allowed or prohibited the acceptance of new input. In other words, a lowered affective filter is 'an open attitude' as Krashen (1997) called it, "a strong affective filter would lead to rapid fossilisation" (p.17). Krashen's monitor hypothesis was much related to the affective filter. According to Krashen, when interacting with an FL, a language learner creates a mental apparatus, which is a technical monitor that aided them to generate correct outputs.

It is thought that a strong monitor is highly positive in controlled situations of language learning. This is manifested in the existence of exams and essay writing. However, it is supposed that such kind of monitor may prevent students from learning a language by working against the needed low-stress linguistic environment. Learners who have strong monitors incline to be very frightened from interacting with their new language surroundings. Thus, they tend to avoid the necessary input to modify the cognitive patterns of the language (Gregg, 1984; Krashen, 1977). This state alleviates the problem of fossilisation in the interlanguage as caused by continued interaction between non-native speakers at the same level and with the MT (Conrad, 1996; Meunier, 1997). It also offers truly interesting topics for discussion (Meunier, 1997) such as differences in life styles and worldviews.

2.3 Interference/ Transfer

Transfer was introduced in the world of language learning in the 1950s and 1960s. However, in the 70s it was under question and now it is agreed that it is not a controversial issue as Benson (2002) stated that it was "generally accepted that transfer does occur, but is a

far more complex phenomenon than hitherto believed" (p.68). It is a fact that the nature of language transfer and the mechanism in the minds of its learners remain a mystery for linguists (Dechert & Raupach, 1989). Lado (1957) referred to the transfer of the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of one's MT and culture to the FL and culture. There are two types of transfer: negative transfer, which leads to erroneous usage and positive transfer which leads to correct usage. It is a popular belief among FL teachers that thinking in L1 will increase the number of transfer errors in FL productions.

Most research studies when referring to the effect of L1 on FL use the term 'transfer'. However, Alderson (1984) referred to Yorio (1971) who proposed the term 'interference' instead. Of course, 'transfer' is used to imply the positive impact of L1 whereas 'interference' refers to the negative one (Brown, 2000). Kern (2000) asserted that: "Native language provides not only a source of lexical or morpho-syntactic structures to be 'transferred' or 'borrowed', but also an alternative processing space in which to design meaning", (p. 121).

Koda (2005) reviewed various points of views for different researchers with different interpretations about the idea of 'transfer' between L1 and FL. For Krashen (1983), L1 was just a way to compensate for FL missing necessary knowledge. Odlin (1989) believed that transfer was what came out from the similarities or the differences between the MT and the TL (as cited in Koda, 2005, p.111). Moreover, Gass and Selinker (2001) presumed that the transferred linguistic information and skills resulted in interlanguage forms, which could be positive, negative, or neutral to FL. These views shed light on two facts; first, what was transferred was the linguistic knowledge, and, second, FL learners' reliance on their L1 stopped once they developed efficient FL proficiency which filled the gaps that were previously occupied by L1 because of their insufficient background knowledge of FL.

Interference is defined as "the use of a negative language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the TL" (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992, p. 205). Errors may

therefore occur as a result of such intralingual interference, which involved an application of general learning strategies similar to those manifested in first language acquisition (Richards, 1971; Lim, 2003).

Transfer can be positive or negative. When the language patterns of L1 and FL are identical, learning could take place easily through positive transfer of the L1 pattern, but when they are different, learning would be difficult and errors may arise as the result of negative transfer or interference (Ellis, 1994). There is a number of manifestations of transfer. Ellis (1994) categorised the types of transfer into:

- Errors (negative transfer).
- Facilitation (positive transfer): The learner's L1 can facilitate FL learning. In this sense, facilitation does not imply that FL productions are errors' free, but that the number of errors that they commit is reduced and the rate of learning is higher.
- Avoidance: FL learners may use the strategy of avoiding using particular linguistic structures because of their difficulties, which is attributed to the differences between L1 and FL. It is a complicated phenomenon, and Kellerman (1992) attempted to classify it into three types and indicated that apart from the learner's L1 knowledge, the learner's knowledge of FL and the learner's attitudes toward his or her own culture and the TL culture acted as determinants of avoidance behaviour.
- Over-use: FL learners may show a tendency in using particular forms, words, or sentences as the result of the avoidance or underproduction of some "difficult" structure or "improper" expression.

The usual way to identify transfer in FLL research was something like an informal estimation method (Kasper, 1992). In informal estimations, transfer could be established by looking at the similarities and differences of the percentage, by which a particular category of

interlanguage features (such as a semantic formula, strategy, or linguistic form) occurred in the NL, TL and IL data. Similar response frequencies in all the three data sets were classified as positive transfer (Blum-Kulka, 1982; House & Kasper, 1987; Faerch & Kasper, 1989), while different response frequencies between IL-TL and NL-TL combined with similar frequencies between IL-NL register as negative transfer (Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Olstain, 1983; Takahashi and Beebe, 1987).

2.3.1 Theory of Access to Universal Grammar (UG) and L1 Transfer

(Chomsky 1965, 1975, 1986) introduced the notion that all humans had innate access to UG in their L1 acquisition. However, in the field of L2 acquisition or FL learning, there had been three contradictory views: the first view stated that no access to UG was available for adult L2 learners (Lenneberg 1967; Clahsen & Muysken 1986; Bley-Vroman 1989). The second view stated that FL learners had partial access to UG, not in the same direct and intervened way as L1 acquisition (Schachter, 1989; Strozer, 1992; Vainikka & Young-Scholten, 1991; Bhatt & Hancin-Bhatt, 1997). Finally, the view that L2 learners had full accessibility to UG. Thus, L1 and L2 acquisition were similar in this way (Martohardjono & Suzanne, 1995; Lakshmanan 1993; Schwartz and Rex, 1996).

Despite the over-all acceptance of the notion of transfer, some researchers tended to underestimate its effect. For example, Martohardjono & Suzanne (1995) analysed control structures in English, Japanese, Chinese and Spanish and concluded that L2 learners tended to neglect their MT syntax and depended only upon UG principles. On the contrary, White (1989) found out that although FL learners tended to use UG principles, their MT effect was so great in shaping this process. He considered that FLs' MT was an inseparable part of learners' interlanguage.

White (1989:48-9) outlined five valid opportunities for the relationship between transfer of the L1 and the accessibility of UG for L2 acquisition:

- "a. UG is accessible and functions as it does in L1 acquisition.
- b. UG is accessible, but learners initially transfer the settings of the L1.
- c. UG is accessible, but only via the settings of the L1.
- d. UG is accessible, but does not function identically as in L1 acquisition.
- e. UG is inaccessible", (cited in LaFond, 2002:113)

Schwartz & Rex (1996) introduced the notion of Full Transfer/Full Access. It stated that FL learners had to adjust their FL grammar with the UG accessible preferences in case that their L1 grammar could not match those of FL grammar. Their notion was the result of their study of an adult native speaker of Turkish who was learning German. The learner was obliged to use UG-constrained restructuring of his syntactic system because of the syntactic difference between Turkish and German. Selinker & Lakshmanan (1994) provided various examples from Dutch, Czech, Spanish, French, Hebrew and Hindi to show that "transfer of L1 syntax to the L2 not only occurred, but also prolonged the restructuring, particularly when there were multiple effects at work", (cited in Grami & Alzughabi, 2012:1554).

2.4 The Effect of L1 upon FL

2.4.1 Theories of the Effect of L1 upon FL

Theorists tried to explain the negative or bad outcomes from L1 upon learners or acquirers of a foreign/second language. They tried to do it based on their qualitative and

quantitative findings. Some of them sought to connect all the negative aspects to the effect of the first language, while others tried to explain this based on the lack of information on the learner's part or the formation of false learning strategies. In this section, there will be a discussion of the most renowned theories in this field. They are the Behaviourist Theory, the Contrastive Analysis (CA) Theory and Discourse Analysis.

2.4.1.1 The Behaviourist Learning Theory

Behaviourism was a movement in psychology that advocated the use of strict experimental procedures to study observable behaviour (responses) in relation to environment (stimuli). Behaviourism was developed in the early 20th century by the American psychologist Watson. Watson (1930) did not deny the existence of inner experiences, but he insisted that these experiences could not be studied because they were not observable.

The main issue of the behaviourist theory was its emphasis on the matter of 'habits'. This theory was mainly directed towards the field of learning. According to this theory, children got their first language by the process of imitating the language used by their parents or the adults in their surroundings. The amounts of utterances that children imitated usually get either the caretakers' correction or approval. This theory was also applied to FLL. It indicated that imitation and reinforcement were the means by which the learner identified the stimulus-response associations that constituted the habits of the FL. The matter of interference played a major role in the process of the behaviourist theory. Behaviourists agreed that the habits of the first language were transferred into the field of FLL. This idea was expressed by Bright and McGregor (1970) by considering the first language as playing an inevitable role in the learning/acquisition of the foreign one, "the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second" (p.81).

According to this concept, the learning of a second/foreign language cannot be treated in isolation; it is connected to the first language based on the concept of "interference".

Interference arises in the field of FLL when linguistic aspects of the MT are transferred into the FL that learners are learning. This is called 'proactive inhibition'. If there is a kind of resemblance in the techniques of conveying the thoughts between the MT and the TL, the 'proactive inhibition' will not take place or will be lessened. An illustration of this view was presented by Ellis (1985) who stated that if an Englishman who was learning German wanted to say that he was cold; he said: "Ich bin kalt", which was an analogous of "I am cold". In this case, there was a positive transfer between the habits of the MT into that of the target one.

Behaviourists considered that transfer must happen from L1 to FL, and interference must appear from L1 to FL in the process of FLL either positively or negatively. In order to overcome the negative interference, learners must improve their skills to learn new habits of expressing ideas in the TL. Moreover, developing a new set of language rules does not necessarily imply that interference will not occur. This is a natural strategy by which the mind tends to rely upon different mechanisms in order to compensate the loss of one rule in the learnt/acquired language by another from the first one.

2.4.1.2 Contrastive Analysis Theory

This theory was approached in order to predict the potential errors that FL learners would commit by the cautious comparison of the multi-linguistic aspects of the L1 and FL. This theory was originated by Lado in 1957. He emphasised the importance of discerning the linguistic systems of the MT and those of the TL. This knowledge aided researchers to conduct a kind of CA in which they would predict the errors that would arise in the field of learning the TL. However, this promising hypothesis seemed to fail in the real application.

This was due to the discrepancy between the linguistic systems of two languages and the actual production and comprehension in everyday life of the TL. To know something about the structure of a given language was good, but the production of that structure was something else. It depended on the real immersion in that language to achieve a stage closer to that of the native speaker of the TL. An advocate of this theory was Fries (1972) who was obvious about the inevitable connection of this approach to FL teaching. He claimed, "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (p. 9). Fries's claims were manifested by real observations of the errors that FL learners committed. These errors in most parts reflected the systematic realisations of L1 patterns. Such errors were mostly clear at the morpho-syntactic level rather than the phonological ones. An example of this was illustrated by Hakuta & Cancino (1977). They noticed that a Spanish native speaker uttered the following English sentence: "Is the house of my mother". The Spanish equivalent would be "Es la casa de mi madre". The English utterance contained two errors, whose sources could be obviously traced back to Spanish. Spanish allowed subject pronouns to be deleted. When this rule was transferred to English, "This is" or "It is" simply becomes "is". In addition, Spanish used the possessed-possessor order; thus it is "the house of my mother" ("la casa de mi madre"). It sounds that the foreign-language learner's difficulties could be predicted from the differences in the structures of the two languages. Principles such as imitation, positive and negative transfer, reinforcement and habit strength were borrowed from the academic psychology of learning and incorporated into the CA view of FL learning/acquisition. Having the notion that language development consisted of the learning of a set of habits, errors produced in the FL were viewed as the result of the L1 habits interfering with the learning of the habits of the FL. This notion was applied to classroom practice in the sense that the principles of habit formation and interference led to the use of

pattern drills in the audio-lingual method of foreign-language learning. Based on CA, difficult patterns were predicted and consequently emphasised in the language teaching (Hakuta & Cancino, 1977).

The CA theory can be summarised in the following:

1. The concentration should be focused on the authentic representation of language in order to investigate whether transfer was positive or negative. In the field of learning/acquisition, structures of syntax, morphology and phonology might be transferred from one language into another. If speakers of a language came across another language in which new cognitive, morphological or phonological systems were found, they would either improve their own system or substitute them with techniques of their MT. This is frequently detected in the case of phonological systems. For example, the Armenian language does not encompass phonemes as those of the initial sound of 'third' /θɜ:d/ and 'there' /ðeə/. Therefore, Armenians incline to substitute them with /t/ and /d/. Armenian speakers find that the former two sounds are strange, but they can do nothing about them simply because they are not included in their phonological system.

2. Some people who are learning/acquiring a language comprehend new structures of the TL, but they avoid constructing them. An example of this avoidance rules is illustrated in a native speaker of Arabic who is learning English as his/her FL. Many sentences in English start by prepositional phrases as in: "At the beginning of this course, I was very weak". It is noted that those learners try not to construct the sentence in this way preferring to construct it as the following: "I was very weak at the beginning of this course". Although placing a prepositional phrase at the beginning of a sentence has a function of shifting the interest to the beginning of the sentence, those Arab learners prefer constructing such a sentence according to the standard way. This is because it is common to find sentences starting with noun phrases or verb phrases.

There is a subdivision of CA that is 'contrastive interlanguage analysis' (CIA). It aims to achieve a better comprehension of a language as it is used by non-native speakers. It can involve two types of comparison that is between native speech (NS) and non-native speech (NNS) on one hand and between two or more varieties of non-native speech (NNS versus NNS) on the other hand. While the former type of comparison highlights the features of nativeness and non-nativeness of learner's language, the latter determines whether the non-native features are limited to one group of non-native speakers (in which case it is most probably a transfer-related phenomenon) or whether they are shared by several groups of learners with various MT backgrounds. Based on carefully designed corpora representing both native and non-native varieties of a language, such comparisons can be drawn easily and had trustworthy results. (Gilquin, 2001; Granger, 1996).

Over the past decades, CA and data from learners' side were used in order to study the interlanguage of FL learners. According to Selinker (1989), CA was the best means by which researchers could study language transfer by conducting empirical studies as having data collection and samples of subjects' speech productions, then attempting to analyse them. These techniques were the most preferable means to study the existence of transfer or not simply because mere predictions could lead to faulty assumptions. CA and interlanguage analysis were necessary for best assessment of the role of transfer in FLL.

2.4.1.3 Discourse Analysis

The basic idea of discourse analysis is that the study of language in context will offer a deeper insight into how meaning is attached to utterances than the study of language in isolated sentences. The context of language may be considered from both a linguistic and a social perspective. In most situations of language use, utterances will be preceded and followed by other utterances, resulting in a dialogic or monologic text. In all situations of

language use, specific social relations between speaker and hearer will guide the structure of these utterances.

Hatch and Long (1980) gave a survey of central research questions in discourse analysis and discuss such topics as a description of different speech acts in different communicative settings and a description of conversation rules. They listed several system constraints for communication, such as back-channel feedback, and turnover signals. Although these norms were universal, the way they were employed may vary between specific social, cultural or linguistic groups.

2.4.2 Effects of L1 upon FL Writing and Reading Activities

2.4.2.1 Effects of L1 upon FL Writing

In the study of L1 effect upon FL writing, researchers concluded that in the process of FL writing production, learners employed their L1 strategies in order to express themselves and feel more contented in their FL environment. These researchers focused upon the errors committed by the learners in their FL writing because of the negative transfer of their L1 (for example Gass, 1987; Schachter 1983; Wenzell 1989; Zobl 1979, 1984, 1986). By employing think-aloud protocols in the FL composing processes, there were two controversial findings. The first finding was that FL learners who thought in their MT were reducing the production of good composition (for example Wen & Johnson 1997), while the other suggested that such cognitive behaviour played a positive role in FL writing. FL writers were observed to utilise their L1 to "get a strong impression and association of ideas for essays and produce essays of better quality in terms of ideas, organisation and details" (Lay 1982, p.406). They were found to use their native language as "an important resource in their continual process of decision making while writing" (Cumming 1989, p. 128).

The research on the effect of L1 on FL writing focused mainly on the product level.

Those researches took the form of either CA (for example Cai 1998; Lide & Zhang 2002) or EA (for example Chen 2002; Li & Cai 2001). Their results showed that transfer was an important factor in accounting for errors ranging from lexical to discourse level (for example Fan 2001; Han & Zhou 2003; Lou 2001). Yanqun (2009) referred to the limitations of those studies. He believed that they were of two major types. First, in most of the studies, there was a division in the committed errors of learners of different language proficiency backgrounds, thus placing all the learners in one category regardless of the developmental stages of their FL. The second problem was that the investigation method usually excluded interviews with the subjects, which was an important step in the judgment of transfer errors. It was found out that the study of FL writing by L1 learners revealed the extent of their syntactic and lexical errors. This notion is going to be further discussed and explained in the following sections of this chapter. Hinkel (2011) reviewed the most frequent error types in L2 writing with examples of this type:

1. "Sentence divisions, fragmented and clipped sentences, and run-ons, for example, **So, I ask.* **Sometime, one can be lack.*
2. Subject and verb agreement, for example, **Teachers of math and reading is serious about teaching.*
3. Verb tenses and aspects, and verb phrases, for example, **I remember the time when I receive a phone call from my boss that they were not satisfy with the work we have done.*
4. Word-level morphology (that is absent or incorrect affixes) and incorrect word forms, for example, **nation pride,* **America class is more interested than in my country.*

5. Incomplete or incorrect subordinate clause structure (for example, missing subjects, verbs and clause subordinators), for example, *when try to be success, *although economic is not a factor.
6. Misuses (or under-uses and over-uses) of coherence and cohesion markers, such as coordinating conjunctions and demonstrative pronouns, for example, *At last, I completely agree with this. *The next reason is not willing to try again.
7. Singular or plural nouns and pronouns. *People want to go to school, so he work very hard on his subjects. *The elder are given many equipments to help them in the old age.
8. Incorrect or omitted prepositions, for example, *from my opinion, *At some time there is this young businessman who just about takes a taxi of the airport.
9. Incorrect or omitted articles, for example, *Finally, some people cannot take good exam and telling very sad. *Some students sleep in classroom, play cellphone, play game.
10. Incorrect modal verbs, for example, *It is also important to have adults by their side whom could advise them when they may make a mistake.
11. Spelling errors, for example, *This is my grammer book. *He is my boos. ".
(p.530- p.531).

In reviewing some of the studies conducted on the writing errors committed by Arab EFL learners, many studies showed that Arab EFL students faced severe problems in the process of learning English writing. Researchers, such as Abisamra (2003) and Mohammed (2000) concluded that most of the syntactic errors committed by Arab EFL learners in their written production were because of the interference of their first language. Interference or transfer from native language could be comprehended as 'a matter of habit', and negative

transfer would be obvious in cases of differences between the L1 and the FL (Abdulmoneim, 2000). EFL learners use their L1 in order to facilitate their language learning process. Researchers such as Corder (1973), Jakobovists (1970) and Jackson (1981) emphasised that when the EFL learners did not know how to express something in the FL, they directly referred to their native language. This matter was obviously stated and confirmed by many researchers such as Diab (1996) who conducted her research to identify, analyse and classify the writing errors of Lebanese EFL students. She collected 73 English essays written by Lebanese university EFL students. As a result of her study, she concluded that Lebanese EFL students committed many syntactic, lexical and semantic errors. These types of errors were due to the negative interlingual transfer from Arabic linguistic structures into English. Abisamra (2003) focused upon studying ten essays written by Arabic-speaking EFL students in their ninth grade. After analysis, she found that the major cause of their committed errors were negative L1 transfer 'interference' and intralingual interference. In a study conducted by Mohammad (2005), 420 errors were found in 42 essays. He emphasised that some of these errors could be attributed to negative interlingual transfer. Committing this huge number of errors indicated that EFL students depended on interlingual and intralingual strategies to facilitate their learning process. Al-Khresheh (2006) analysed 20 essays written by Jordanian undergraduate EFL learners. He found that students committed a large number of grammatical, syntactic and lexical errors because of interlingual interference from their L1. In another study conducted by Al-Khresheh (2010) on interlingual interference in the English language word order structure, he found that Jordanian EFL learners committed a huge number of syntactic interlingual errors with regard to word order within simple sentence structure. He revealed that these committed errors were due to the transfer of L1 habits. He also stated that the subjects were very much influenced by their L1 knowledge in understanding the English sentences.

2.4.2.1 Effects of L1 upon FL Reading

FL readers start reading activity without enough mastery of the main linguistic abilities of the TL (Koda, 2005). When an FL is introduced to a learner, a war is launched between the already established rules of L1 and the newly learned ones (Marton, 1981). The learner struggles and sways between the two sets of these systems for a while until he/she manages to make them coexist together in independent constructs.

Developing and mastering L1 before an FL indirectly implies that this language system is going to be the basis, which will receive, control, affect positively or negatively and restrict any similar processes in any other languages especially in the early stages of the process of learning. Koda (2005) stressed this point arguing that: "the linguistic conditioning generated by L1 linguistic features not only influences FL learning but also constrains the cognitive procedures used in FL processing" (p.15). In an experiment by Ryan and Meara (1991), there was a test regarding the impact of L1 orthography on FL word recognition. They held a comparison regarding the capacity of Arab and non-Arab learners in order to find out which one of them was better than the other one in detecting the missing vowels in some words in a visual matching task. Their subjects were given words consisting of ten letters in English (for example, department, revolution) and later the same words were presented but with the deletion of some vowels in these words (dpartment, revoltion). Arab readers were slower than the non-Arab ones because, in their language system, Arabs did not use letters to represent short vowels. Some researchers claimed that L1 reading strategies could be transferred to FL, and that the more these two languages were similar, the higher the percentage of transfer would be (Koda, 2005).

The previous viewpoints highlighted the idea that L1 did affect FL, but they did not clearly explain whether this effect was completely positive, negative or in between and whether it was affected by the similarities and the differences among languages or not. Jolly

(1978) argued that successful L1 readers were successful FL readers that is FL reading was a matter of transferring L1 skills rather than learning new ones. Those who could not read appropriately in FL either did not have proficient L1 skills or they had them, but they did not manage to transfer them successfully. Coady (1979) and Nuttall (1982) agreed with Jolly (1978), too. When readers had poor reading abilities in their L1, they had to be taught first the reading skills of their native language that should have been learned earlier before starting the process of FL reading. Thus, spending time on developing L1 reading abilities properly was recommended before moving to FL for it was considered the foundation on which the reader relied to establish and process efficient FL reading habits. These views seemed to be partly derived from 'the reading universal hypothesis' by Goodman (1973) which he claimed that the process of reading would be almost the same in all different languages.

Yorio (1971) seemed to have a contradictory opinion to what was mentioned above. His viewpoints were summarised by Alderson (1984) as follows:

Reading involves four factors: knowledge of the language, ability to predict or guess in order to make the correct choices, ability to remember the previous cues and ability to make the necessary associations between different cues that have been selected.

(p. 3).

Yorio (1971) ascribed inefficient FL reading to the insufficient linguistic knowledge of FL and the 'interference' of L1. Insufficient FL expertise impeded the 'guessing ability' needed to get the correct cues out of any given context. Therefore, it was obvious that L1, to him, had a negative effect on the process of reading in FL. In a study by Owens (2006) about FL reading comprehension of subjects who belonged to different language backgrounds, he found out that orthographic distance significantly affected reading comprehension of FL text.

Text manipulations differentially affected the reading comprehension of specific orthographic groups. Text simplification was the most effective manipulation for readers from different orthographic groups, and reading strategy affected comprehension of FL texts irrespective of orthographic background.

The most influential of the theoretical models explaining both listening and reading comprehension was the 'interactive process model' which believed that "Comprehension is the outcome of the interaction between linguistic and background knowledge" (Park, 2004, p.2). This model was applied by Park (2004) in a study of FL reading and listening comprehension and was able to explain a total variance of only 20% in reading comprehension of FL university students. As Park pointed out, FL reading comprehension appeared to be the outcome of a more complex set of variables than linguistic knowledge and background knowledge could account for. In the interactive process' theoretical framework, 'linguistic knowledge' referred to a reader's knowledge of the TL while 'background knowledge' seemed to refer to knowledge of everything else, including knowledge of other languages. As reading habits were developed in the experience of learning a first language, FL readers could be expected to read differently because of these specific L1 experiences. Although FL readers might transfer the methods and strategies of reading from one language into another, it was thought that these strategies might not fully function in the TL environment due to 'left to right' or 'right to left' text cultures discrepancies (Owens, 2006).

2.5 Error Analysis (EA)

2.5.1 Error Analysis and Types of Errors

EA was offered as an alternative to CA in the classroom research. CA could be predictive at the syntactic level and at the early stages of language learning (Brown 1994, p. 214) which allowed for prediction of the difficulties involved in acquiring/learning an FL

(Richards 1974, p. 172). On the contrary, EA emphasised "the significance of errors in learners' interlanguage system" (Brown, 1994, p. 204) which might be carried out directly for educational purposes (Ellis 1995, p. 51; and Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992, p. 127). EA emphasised "the significance of errors in learners' interlanguage system" (Brown 1994, p.204). Saville-Troike (2006) commented that learners' errors were "sources of insight into the learning processes" (p.38). The errors that people made when learning another language revealed patterns of second language development and differences between first language acquisition and FLL.

Gass and Selinker (1994) defined errors as 'red flags' that provided evidence of the learner's knowledge of the FL. Researchers paid special attention regarding errors due to their conviction that these errors were valuable for the great amount of information they contained. These data would provide information concerning the process and the tactics that students used in order to learn a language (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Richards, 1974; Taylor, 1975).

In order to identify errors, a definition of the word "error" was required, so the task of the researcher would be easier. Ellis (1994) presented a definition of the error committed in the language use as, "a deviation from the norms of the TL" (p.51). In this case, researchers needed to know the norms that they should follow in identifying errors. To solve such a problem, researchers tended to use the standard written dialect as the norm. In this research, the researcher followed the standard written and spoken British English.

Corder (1967) held a distinction between "errors" and "mistakes". An error occurred when the deviation came out because of lack of knowledge. In this way, an error represented lack of competence. A mistake occurred when learners failed to perform their grammatical, social and pragmatic knowledge of the TL. According to Corder (1974), there were various types of errors. There were errors of well-formedness (grammaticality), errors of appropriateness, referential errors (for example, calling a hat a cap), register errors (for

example, referring to a ship as a boat in a naval context), social errors (for example, addressing a teacher as 'old man') and textual errors (for example, providing a personal narrative when a project report was required). Ellis (2003) concluded that identifying an error requires the necessity of comparing the subjects' interlanguage sentences with correct or normal ones of the TL.

Moreover, according to Richards and Sampson (1974) "at the level of pragmatic classroom experience, EA will continue to provide one means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching and determines priorities for future effort" (p.15). According to Corder (1974), EA had two objects: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical purpose aimed to, "Elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a foreign language" (p.123). The applied object serves to enable the learner "to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes" (p.123).

The majority of studies in EA attempted to classify the errors committed by learners. Generally, errors were divided into two categories: interference/interlingual errors and intralingual and developmental errors. Interference errors that could be traced back to the native language of the learner were the ones that CA addressed. It is worth mentioning that in the EA, errors were not always comprehended as the inevitable result of the interference of first language habits into FL ones. Since the language learning process was seen as active hypothesis testing on the part of the learner, interference errors were interpreted as a manifestation of the learner's hypothesis that the new language was just like the native language (Corder, 1967). Unlike interference errors, intralingual errors sprang from properties of the TL and might be seen similar to the errors that children committed when learning their MT. These errors were divided into various subcategories as simplification and overgeneralisation. Several researchers investigated the extent to which learners made errors

of each type.

The research of errors could be diagnostic and prognostic. It was diagnostic in the sense that it provided information about the learner's language learning process at a specific period of time. It was also prognostic because it served the purpose of curriculum designers in having full information of the needs of that learners according to his/her present situation, so they could shift their attentions according to these specific needs (Corder, 1967).

2.5.2 Models of EA

Corder (1967 & 1974) identified a model for EA, which included three stages:

1. Data collection: Recognition of idiosyncrasy
2. Description: Accounting for idiosyncratic dialect
3. Explanation (the ultimate goal of EA).

Brown (1994) and Ellis (1995) expanded Corder's model for EA. Ellis (1997) and Hubbard, Jones, Thornton and Wheeler (1996) designed a practical strategy on the methods of identifying and analysing errors. Researchers needed to collect actual data of subjects' language outcome. Later, the step of sifting and organising errors was implemented. Grammatical analysis and explanation of each error type were the final stage of this process.

Moreover, Gass and Selinker (1994) identified 6 steps followed in conducting EA: "collecting data, identifying errors, classifying errors, quantifying errors, analysing source of error, and remediating for errors" (p. 67).

2.5.3 Sources of Errors

Selinker (1972) (cited in Richards, 1974, p. 37) reported five sources of errors:

1. Language transfer
2. Transfer of training

3. Strategies of FL learning
4. Strategies of FL communication
5. Overgeneralisation of TL linguistic material.

Richards and Sampson (1974) exposed seven sources of errors:

1. Language transfer that is thought to constitute one third of the erroneous sentences (George, 1971).
2. Intralingual interference: Richards (1971) displayed four potential reasons of intralingual errors:
 - a) Overgeneralisation (p. 174): In this kind of errors, the subject applies previously learnt grammatical rules to new irregular ones because he/she does not want to carry out his/her linguistic responsibility in learning new grammatical rules.
 - b) Ignorance of rule restrictions: that is the subject tries to apply rules in linguistic situations that are not correctly applied.
 - c) Incomplete application of rules.
 - d) Semantic errors such as building false concepts/systems: that is faulty comprehension of distinctions in the TL.
3. Sociolinguistic situation: As motivation (instrumental or integrative) and settings for language learning (complex or co-ordinate bilingualism) may influence second language learning.
4. Modality: Modality of exposure to the TL and modality of production.
5. Age: learning capacities vary with age.
6. Successions of approximate systems: The learning of new grammatical, lexical, or phonological rules is different from one learner into another according to his/her own circumstances.

7. Universal hierarchy of difficulty: It means that any learners regardless of his/her linguistic background is going to face intrinsic difficulties at particular syntactic, phonological, or semantic items or structures.

2.5.4 Weaknesses of Error Analysis

In the 1980s, EA started to lose its status because of the increasing criticism that was targeting its approach and method. Chau (1975) claimed that EA did not have the required objectivity in its procedures of analysis, of defining and categorising errors. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) referred to the three main weaknesses of EA as follows: (a) there was a general mixing between the descriptions of errors with their explanations, (b) there was a lack in the precise definition of error categories and (c) there was an unsophisticated classification of the reasons behind learners' errors.

Ellis (1985), Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) and Tono (1999) referred to the major weaknesses of EA as follows: First, the corpus of data that was gathered for EA represented one period of time, thus it did not represent the development of learners' languages over time. Second, EA tackled learners' verbal and written productions, which was their production competence. It did not deal with their receptive one. Third, EA did not explain precisely how the language functioned. Fourth, it was noted that EA was not so ideal in categorising errors and explaining their sources. Regardless of these problems, EA aided SLA researchers to learn more about the psycholinguistic processes involved in learning a second/foreign language. These processes represented an important role in the learning of the second and even the first language (Senders & Moray, 1991). Moreover, EFL teachers and methodologists needed error analysis to understand the learning strategies of the second language learners and in turn, developed better teaching methods.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented a picture of the theories in the field of interference from L1 into FL. It started by presenting the concept of 'interlanguage', with its wide background and current development. The effect of L1 into an FL was thoroughly discussed presenting conflicting notions of researchers in this field regarding the amount of this effect in its various linguistic aspects. There was a review of the most renowned theories that tried to explain this issue from the late 1950s until now. Then, the notion of error analysis was presented.

Chapter III

Review of the Literature: Previous Studies

3.1 Introduction

As has been mentioned earlier in chapter II, transfer was introduced into the world of language learning in the 1950s and 1960s. However, in the 1970s, the term 'interference' - replaced the term 'transfer' to denote only the negative transfer aspects of the MT into the TL. It was introduced by Yorio (1971). Dulay et al (1982) define interference as the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Lott (1983: 256) defines interference as 'errors in the learner's use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue'. Ellis (1997: 51) refers to interference as 'transfer', which he says is 'the influence that the learner's L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2'. He argues that transfer is governed by learners' perceptions about what is transferable and by their stage of development in L2 learning. In learning a target language, learners construct their own interim rules (Selinker, 1971, Seligar, 1988 and Ellis, 1997) with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible.

In this chapter, there will be a presentation of the most renowned studies that have tackled the issue of interference and transfer in their positive and negative aspects. At the beginning, there will be a review of these theories in the syntactic/grammatical field in general. Then, there will be a focus on the particular grammatical fields in which transfer

occurs as those of articles, plurality, negation and tenses. Later, a review of lexical and phonological studies is presented. The final stage involves the latest relevant studies in relation of the current study in the syntactic, lexical and phonological fields.

3.2 Interference of Multi-Linguistic Aspects from L1 into FL

3.2.1 Interference of Syntactic Aspects from L1 into FL

It is agreed that there is a syntactic interference from L1 into FL. However, they classify this kind of transfer into a positive or a negative one according to the familiarity or distance between L1 and FL. Researchers tend to study this phenomenon by scrutinising the FL learners' written compositions or oral productions output. These two activities reveal the extent to which FL syntax is affected by L1 one. Typically, EA techniques were followed in these procedures. Some researchers conduct their researches focusing upon all syntactic errors that learners commit, while other focus upon only one or two syntactic items as their major concerns.

Felix (1980) considered that the influence of the first language upon the learning/acquisition of the foreign/second one was so limited, so he stated that:

Our data on second language acquisition/learning of syntactic structures in a natural environment suggests that interference does not constitute a major strategy in this area...it seems necessary to me to abandon the notion of interference as a natural and inevitable phenomenon in second language acquisition (p.107).

Felix (1980) viewed the matter of interference from L1 into FL as a minor issue in the field of syntax. He interpreted it as a casual action and not as an inevitable process in the course of FL. Nevertheless, many other researchers referred to the fact of interference in the

course of FL learning as a natural phenomenon that happened whenever someone was learning a foreign language. Cummins (2000a) founded 'the developmental interdependence principle' where acquiring literacy in one's first language (L1) was thought to provide the strongest basis for successfully transferring these literacy skills to an FL. Antón and DiCamilla (1998) argued that L1 use may function as "an advantageous metacognitive tool" (p. 314) in FL learning. Both Lantolf (1997& 2000) and Tarone (2000) readvanced theories of "form-based FL play" in which functions played in the learning of FL forms.

Researchers agree that among all FL learners of English, there is a special route that they tend to follow in learning morphemes. This route is thought to be governed by various factors as those of their frequency of occurrence (Larsen, 1976) and their perceptual salience or distinctiveness (Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1976). Hakuta and Cancino (1977) provided an example in the cases of the progressive -ing and the regular third-person indicative -s:

The progressive -ing may be learnt early because of its high salience and high frequency, while the regular third-person indicative -s (as in "she comes") with its low frequency and low salience is learnt relatively late. (p.15).

3.2.1.1 Interference of Articles from L1 into FL

Learner's L1 plays a major role in determining learners' capacity of the semantic complexity of morphemes (Brown, 1973), for example, the English articles *a* and *the* ('a boy' versus 'the boy') need much more time and constructing semantic discriminations, in order an FLL masters their accurate use (Brown, 1973; Maratsos, 1971). Thus, the specific nature of native languages –if they contain such semantic discrimination- plays a major role in determining the speed of learning such morphemes. This is illustrated in Spanish and French, which show this type of contrast. On the other hand, native speakers of Arabic, Japanese or

Chinese do not have such discrimination, thus a native learner of these languages has to learn the exact definiteness rules in order to master such contrasts. English articles have the highest occurrence of all grammatical morphemes and are obvious in very expectable situations before nouns. English teachers all over the world acknowledge that learning articles constitutes a real difficulty for their students.

Some recent studies have manifested the existence of 'a binary feature parameter' in dealing with English articles: definiteness and specificity. These studies show that if a language such as Russian or Korean lacks articles, these learners 'fluctuate' between two matters; using articles as a means to encode definiteness or specificity (Ionin 2003, Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). In contrast, such fluctuation phenomenon was not found among learners of languages that contain definiteness as Greek or Spanish. Frauenfelder (1974) studied the learning of gender marking among English-speaking children in a French immersion program. He found out that his subjects did not commit errors in the definiteness/indefiniteness of articles; rather they committed these errors in the gender articles choice.

Dulay and Burt (1974) concluded that their Chinese subjects could not distinguish between *a* and *the* due to the scoring method. Fathman (1975) conducted an oral-production task to Korean- and Spanish-speaking children concerning various grammatical types assembling. She concluded that articles mark a significant difference between the two samples of the study in favour of Spanish-speaking children. This finding was comprehended on the basis that the Korean language did not contain article equivalents to those of English, whereas the Spanish language did.

The previous studies showed that there was a specific order for learning English morphemes, but there were two factors that controlled this process. The first factor showed that there was a general tendency among students of various linguistic backgrounds to act in the same way according to variables such as frequency and salience. The second factor was

the transfer of the MT that shaped and accelerated or reduced this process according to each learner's linguistic background. Thus, the interaction between these two factors marked the type and speed of this grammatical ordering.

Many studies that focused upon learning English articles showed that the omission of articles in the MT itself played a major role in the increasing number of errors that these students made in producing articles in English language classrooms. (Parrish 1987, Robertson 2000, Ionin & Wexler 2004 and White 2003). For instance, Robertson (2000) concluded that 'omission errors' were the main articles errors for his L1 Chinese subjects. He also found that his subjects did not commit errors in the proper use of the definite article in situations whereas the indefinite article had to be used or vice versa. These results were similar in a study by White (2003) who found the same type of omission errors for L1 Turkish speaker of English.

(Ionin 2003, Ionin et al. 2004) presented new theories for articles substitution errors under the titles 'the fluctuation hypothesis' (Ionin 2003) and 'the article choice parameter'. They are summarised as follows:

Ionin (2003) presented the Fluctuation Hypothesis (FH). He proposed that as long as FL learners had full possibility of having the principles and structures of Universal Grammar (UG), "they fluctuate between different parameter settings until the input leads them to set the parameter to the appropriate value" (p.23). He hypothesised that the FH permitted FL learners to categorise articles choice based on the definiteness and specificity classifications. The increase of exposure and indulgence of FL learners in the English language environment would aid them to set the correct choice of English definiteness. Ionin et al. (2004) concluded that the choice between definiteness and specificity for an English learner to determine was connected with that subject's correct input. On the other hand, Hawkins and Towell (1997) and Snape (2006) conducted studies that manifested that FL learners of English did not fluctuate between definiteness and specificity.

Sarko (2008) found out in her study that the two language groups (Syrian Arabic and French) studying English made a choice in definite articles. Their choice was similar to those of native speakers in singular nouns, which was consistent with their L1 qualities of Arabic and French. However, Syrian Arab speakers tended to insert a default form \emptyset with both mass and plural nouns, which was grammatical in English but incorrect in the context. This was evident in the lower proficiency groups, but decreased in the higher proficiency groups for both L1 language groups. In specific and non-specific indefinite contexts, the L1 French speakers were very much alike to the English native speakers in their performance. However, the FL grammar of L1 Syrian Arab speakers was clearly different from the grammar of natives in the field of articles. Although initial results suggested fluctuation, further analysis provided evidence that they transferred L1 syntactic properties into their FL grammar. Richards' (1974) study suggested that the articles' errors were independent of L1 transfer whereas Thompson (1995) and Mizuno and Harumitsu (1991) considered them as L1 transfer.

3.2.1.2 Interference of Plurality Notion from L1 into FL

Farooq (1998) conducted a study in Japan and his Japanese subjects showed real difficulties in expressing plurality notions in English. This notion was in line with Thompson (1995) who said that, "as no element in Japanese sentence regularly shows plurality, . . . , number and countability pose major problems" (p.218). Mizuno and Harumitsu (1991) provided experimental evidence of these problems. The main reason behind such errors was attributed to the negative transfer of Japanese language translation in making English sentences.

The strategy was so widely employed that the students neglected even the presence of the quantifiers, the plural demonstratives and the third person plural pronouns, which signalled a plural noun. The count nouns with the absence of an -s, heavily employed by the

students, were the words termed as the loan words which were commonly used in everyday speech of Japanese language in singular forms. Some determiners preceding a noun helped the students, generally the more proficient students, in conveying plurality through the translation strategy. These were the cardinal numerals and the quantifiers and the nouns referring to people. In their translated forms, they apparently prevented the students from making errors. The occurrence of these plural markers were found also in Jain's (1974) performance data, which was based solely on overgeneralisation errors, indicating that students with a common L1 background made use of this strategy for pluralising a noun.

3.2.1.3 Interference in Negation from L1 into FL

Various studies have examined the development of negation in foreign-language learners. Cazden, Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann (1975) conducted a study of negation in the acquisition of English by six native speakers of Spanish: two adults, two adolescents and two children. For each sample they calculated the proportion of occurrence for each of four utterance types and their relative frequency over time. They concluded that their Spanish subjects committed errors in forming negations in English because of "the Spanish speakers' first hypothesis . . . , that negation in English is like negation in Spanish, hence the learners place no in front of the verb" (p. 32). This would lead us to the conclusion that there was no transfer from Spanish, or positive transfer because of the resemblance in the negation system between English and Spanish. Many researchers asserted this point of view as Bloom (1970), Klima and Bellugi (1966) and Lord (1974). Gillis and Weber's (1976) and Hakuta (1976) conducted a longitudinal study about this notion upon three Japanese children. Their results were in line with these previous findings because their subjects did not produce the no + verb construction. Thus, it seemed that Spanish speakers were the only ones who had this capacity of the no + verb, due to language transfer.

3.2.1.4 Interference of Tenses Notion from L1 into FL

Many studies tried to figure out the existence of transfer in tenses. A careful analysis of the performance data showed that the students committed many errors in dropping the morpheme –ed in sentences (Brown 1994). They appeared to be as in present tense, where they should be in past tense (see Ellis 1997-a, p. 114; Richards 1974, p. 175). Many studies showed that many errors in this past tense category were associated with over-generalisation (Ellis 1997-a, p. 114, 123). They also showed that most of the students especially those who were below the intermediate level committed errors of this type in applying general rules to irregular forms of the past tense as exemplified by Ellis (1997-b, p. 23) and Freeman and Long (1994, p. 105-106).

3.2.2 Interference of Lexical Aspects from L1 into FL

Lexical transfer means that the properties of L1 lexical items are transferred into the FL lexical items. Lexical knowledge in FL is essential to the development of FL proficiency (Harley, 1996). Moreover, Hatch (1983:74) claimed that: "when our goal is communication, when we have little of the new language at our command, it is the lexicon that is crucial. The words will make communication possible", cited in Gass (1987:130). Although it is very vital to conduct research upon the lexical transfer from L1 into the TL, many researchers claimed that this type of research received less attention than those of grammar and phonology (Carter, 1987; Ellis, 1997; Richards, 1976; and Taylor, 1990).

There are studies that focused upon lexical interference from L1 into FL use. However, these studies showed a rigid contrast in their findings. Some of them related this contrast to the specific nature of L1 and FL. Thus, they assumed that if two languages belonged to the same language family, lexical transfer would be very great because learners relied on their MT lexical items in conveying their verbal and written messages in the TL.

However, in the case of the difference in language families' origin, there was a tendency for another linguistic phenomenon as 'code-switching'. This lexical interference was noticed largely at the beginning of the learning/acquisition process, and then it reduced gradually as the learner/acquirer moved forward in the FL learning process. Lexical interference might also be due to lexical deviance. It meant that a stretch of language did not match with the lexical patterning of the language under consideration. For instance, the string *... great black clouds gathered here and there in the 'pure sky', (clear) was lexically erroneous, since 'pure' did not collocate with 'sky'.

In a study by Fernández and Agustín (2009), they intended to study the lexical transfer behaviour regarding the motivation factor upon FL learners. They asked their 183 subjects to write essays. Then, these essays were examined and analysed in order to pick up cases of lexical transfer. Their subjects were Spanish native speakers who had 2 years of compulsory secondary education (8th grade). They were 13 and 14 years old. They categorised their subjects' lexical transfer errors into borrowing, coinage and literal translation. Their findings showed that those students who were more motivated wrote essays longer than those of less motivated ones did. However, they did not find a direct relation between motivation and lexical transfer. They concluded that the issue of lexical transfer was connected to the actual linguistic knowledge of the learner other than many extra factors as motivation or test performance.

In Agustín (2009), 208 subjects were asked to write essays in order to track the lexical transfer in vocabulary use. Her study was a longitudinal experiment in which she collected her data in two periods of time. The first one was when her subjects were in their 4th grade and the other one was when they were in their 8th grade, after 419 and 839 hours of instruction. She classified her subjects' lexical transfer errors into lexical borrowings, calques¹

¹ Calque: a type of BORROWING, in which each morpheme or word is translated into the equivalent morpheme or word in another language. For example, the English word *almighty* is a loan translation from

and coinages. She conducted descriptive and inferential statistical analyses in order to find out the quantitative and qualitative differences between the two periods of time. Her findings revealed that there was a noticeable reduction in the three types of lexical transfer errors as the subjects pass grade. The most obvious reduction of the type of errors was borrowings. In her qualitative analysis, she noticed that there was no consistency in the type of errors across grades. For instance, borrowings were the most frequent type of lexical transfer errors for 4th grade students; however, calques got the highest percentage of the type of errors for higher grades.

These findings were in conformity with previous studies that showed that transfer was an existing strategy all throughout the learning process, but that learners at more developed stages of learning/acquisition transferred less and showed other types of lexical transfer (Celaya, 2007; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Gost & Celaya, 2005; Naves, Miralpeix and Celaya, 2005). In Agustín (2009), borrowings were the most frequent category in 4th grade, but calques became the most prominent category four years later. This finding seemed reasonable because learners in grade 8 had a higher degree of mastery of the vocabulary of the TL and know more words in the FL. Consequently, they were able to manipulate the FL vocabulary to translate L1 structures and did not need to borrow vocabulary directly from their L1. This result was consistent with the observation that calques were the most recurring lexical error type for more sophisticated FL written essays (Agustín, 2007).

In a study by Park (2000), she examined the L1 transfer of verb properties throughout the data, which was taken from FL learners. It was hypothesised that the MT of an FL learner would affect his/her FL learning of verbs because of the existence of L1-FL translation equivalents. Her subjects were Hindi-Urdu speakers who were given tests of English causatives. Then, she compared the results with those of Vietnamese speakers. She carried out

the Latin *omnipotens*: *omni* _ *potens* all mighty _ *almighty*. A loan translation may be a word, a phrase, or even a short sentence, e.g. the English *beer garden* and *academic freedom* are loan translations of the German *Biergarten* and *akademische Freiheit*.

this comparison because of the significant variances between causativisation patterns in Hindi-Urdu and Vietnamese. Her results showed that her two language groups that were the Hindi-Urdu and Vietnamese acted in a very different way in many semantic contexts. Her findings indicated that semantic information of the L1 verb lexicon was transferred into the new-built FL verb lexicon. She suggested that verb characteristics were transferred in a selective way. Thus, in this context, transfer played a role in determining the degree of difficulty in highlighting overgeneralised lexical rules.

Ulijn, Wolfe and Donn (1981) conducted a study regarding the linguistic capacity of the Indo-Chinese immigrants moving to western countries who showed some familiarity with the French language. It was found that the nature of the TL and its closeness to French language linguistic structure play a major role in the increase or decrease of the general language learning environment. It was noted that for those people who immigrated to English-speaking countries, many cases of lexical transfer happened because of the lexical resemblance between French and English. The eighty-eight subjects were newly-arriving immigrants to the U.S. who had very little knowledge in English language. They were given Vietnamese sentences and were asked to translate a specific word within each sentence into English and French. It was found that in the case of French knowledge, the effect of lexical words knowledge seemed to exceed the role of word knowledge. They found out that: "Subjects demonstrated better knowledge of English-French cognates than formal contrasts and better knowledge of formal contrasts than misleading cognates" (p. 3).

There is a kind of L1 lexical transfer called "word coinage", in which an FL learner coins or creates a new word that does not exist in the TL vocabulary in order to convey the required meaning. Mohideen, (1996) provided an example of this when a learner who was not aware of the vocabulary items "bucket" and "kettle" might come up with *"water-holder" and *"water-boiler" respectively. Another kind of L1 lexical transfer is called "circumlocution". In

such kind of transfer, the learner, who is not familiar with the appropriate lexical item, goes on to describe the characteristic of the target object or action. For example, a learner who does not know the word "clothes line" may say "the thing to hang clothes on". In addition, if a person does not remember the word "optician", he/she might express that by saying "the person who tests our eyes". It is clear that the circumlocution strategy does not contain obvious errors. It manifests that the speaker still needs more lexical knowledge in the attempt to express himself/herself adequately.

3.2.3 Interference of Phonological Aspects from L1 into FL

Any FL learner would face easiness or exertion in learning/acquiring phonological categories of the TL. There were many reasons attributing to such difficulty or easiness. The early literature of phonological interference focused upon identifying such reasons. Brière (1966) attributed them to "(1) the competing phonemic categories of native language (NL) and target language (TL) systems, (2) the allophonic membership of these phonemic categories and (3) the distribution of these categories within their respective systems" (p. 768). Thus, it was noticed that if the two phonological categories of the MT and the TL shared a high degree of similarities, the mission of learning the TL phonological categories would seem easy for the FL learner, and the contrary was said to be true.

Native speakers can identify foreign accents that appear in the speech produced by L2 speakers. Therefore, pronunciation errors of second-language learners do not just present random attempts to produce unfamiliar sounds but rather reflect the sound inventory, rules of combining sounds and the stress and intonation patterns of their native languages (Ohata, 2007). Two methods are involved in which L1 interference influences the learning of L2 speech sounds. In the first one, learners are inclined to pick up only the unique features and to

disregard the superfluous ones. In the second, they are inclined to interpret the TL sounds in terms of the features of their L1 sound system (Ali, 2011).

The knowledge of the first language affects the learning/acquisition of another language especially in the field of phonology. There are many examples supporting this assumption. This is due to the fact that learners of an FL expect to find the same phonological system in the FL. Thus, they commence by using their L1 perceptual techniques in identifying or uttering the FL sounds. This is a real problem to those who migrate from one area to another. They need a good span of time in order to be able to discriminate in discourse between the end of a word and the beginning of another. This assumption was advocated by Klein (1997). He found out that one's knowledge of his/her MT had positive and negative effects on FL. An example of the positive effect was a French man who was trying to learn Spanish. He would find that the French word "tempe"/tãp/ "time" was very similar to the Spanish word "tiempo" /tempu/ "time". He would find it relatively easy to identify at least two sound clusters with the addition of /u/ to the final segment of the last cluster of the Spanish word.

Actually, not all languages carried that positive influence of the French language. For instance, a Chinese learner found it quite difficult to recognise the boundaries of words. Since both languages Dutch and German were characterised by inflection, the Dutchman expected the words in German to assume different endings; the Chinese learner might be deprived of this elementary cue and hence faced a much bigger problem of analysis (Klein, 1997).

Sometimes FL learners find it quite hard to learn new vocabulary because their pronunciations include a phoneme that is not found in their phonological system. This matter affects the perception and production of new words for that speaker. An illustration of this phenomenon is presented when an Armenian starts learning/acquiring English in a European country for instance. That person might not recognise the difficulty of comprehending words

like "third" or "these", but the problem lies when he/she tries to produce these words to a native speaker of English. He/She will utter "third" /θɜːd/ as /tɜːd/ and "these" /ðiːz/ as /diːz/. This is due to the fact that he/she does not have "th" in his/her phonological system. Another example of this is the Englishman who wants to go to some Arab countries. He finds it impossible to pronounce phonemes like "ض" /ð/ and "ط" /t/ due to the lack of these phonemes in his phonological system (Klein, 1997).

A review of the literature regarding the effect of the L1 spelling system upon FL spelling looks rather huge. Rodriguez-Brown (1987) conducted a study upon 84 secondary school students learning Spanish as an FL. The purpose of his study was to examine the language transfer hypothesis in FL spelling. His results showed that his subjects obviously transferred spelling strategies from L1 to L2 in reading.

Ferrolì (1991) studied the effect of the MT literacy skills and FL oral skills on the capacity of students to utilise such capacities in FL reading and spelling. The speech of his students was tape-recorded and then a special focus was made upon the FL misspelling of these subjects. This focus intended to highlight the positive and negative transfer of L1 spelling knowledge. His study revealed that both MT literacy skills and FL oral skills play an equal role in FL literacy learning. It was found out that the phonological consciousness of L1 spelling was solely positively transferred. However, students' theoretical understanding of their MT was thought to constitute positive and negative transfer.

Ferrolì and Shanahan (1993) investigated the effect of voicedness difference between Spanish and English upon the types of misspelling that FL students make. Their results manifested that students rely on their L1 spelling system in applying such strategies upon those spelling rules of the TL.

Zutell and Allen (1988) studied the effect of particular features of L1 pronunciation on the tactics of FL spelling. Their subjects were bilingual children who studied Spanish of a

three short-term program. They were in their second, third and fourth grades. Their findings showed that those students who were less successful committed more Spanish transferred errors than the more successful ones. It was found that the more successful students in spelling, no matter what their language level was, could make a distinction between English and Spanish, thus the English spelling errors that they committed did not show much influence of Spanish. On the other hand, poor spellers used the strategy of letter-name. Due to the fact that these poor spellers heard the letters as Spanish names, their English spellings were not at any linguistic consideration close to that of English native speakers.

It is often hypothesised that difficulties in perceiving non-native speech segments are due to the fact that the phonological system of a listener's native language (NL) interferes with their non-native speech perception. According to this hypothesis, the difference between Japanese and Koreans in /r/-/l/ perception (Ingram and Park, 1998) was attributed to the difference in their native phonological systems. Many researchers conducted studies in order to measure the degree of /r/ and /l/ in American English by Japanese and Korean speakers (Komaki and Choi, 1999; Komaki, Tajima, Yamada and Choi, 2000). They studied the perception of /r/-/l/ in five syllabic positions by non-native speakers. The findings of these studies were in line with the previous studies that investigated this notion as Ingram and Park (1998) and Lively, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, Tohkura and Yamada (1996). They demonstrated that the position of the syllable within the word itself determined the degree of contrast difficulty.

In a study by Komaki, Yamada and Katagiri (2002), they found out that there was an obvious trend in the relationship between production and perception within their Korean and Japanese language groups. They concluded that positions that were difficult for listeners to perceive were also difficult to produce. For instance, native speakers of the Japanese group had difficulty producing and perceiving /r/s and /l/s in the initial consonant cluster, while the

Korean group did not. One of the findings of their research was that the intelligibility of Japanese and Korean /r/-/l/ productions were different concerning the location of consonant. Moreover, the intelligibility of consonant position was different for the Japanese students in contrast to the Korean ones. Thus, what appeared to be easy for one language group to pronounce the /r/s and /l/s in specific positions, it was not the case for the other language group. Their results asserted that there was a negative transfer from L1 to the FL speech production.

3.3 Previous Related Interference Studies

3.3.1 Interference of Syntactic/Grammatical Aspects from L1 into FL

Al-Khresheh (2011) studied the performance analysis of a group of 120 Arabic-speaking Jordanian students of English at Jordanian schools, located in the south of Jordan. His subjects were asked to write compositions and later analysed them to find out the extent of interference of Arabic (L1) syntactic structures into English (FL). The main focus of his study was upon the errors made by these students in one particular syntactic category that was the coordinating conjunction 'and', that was equal to “wa” in Arabic. His results implied that his subjects made a large number of errors in using coordinating conjunction 'and'. He suggested that interlingual interference was the main reason behind making such a great number of this type of errors.

Tahaineh (2010) investigated the kind of errors that the Jordanian first, second and third year university students made in the use of English prepositions. They were students majoring in English at Al-Balqa Applied University in Jordan. His 162 subjects were asked to write free compositions. His results showed that the interference of the MT (Arabic) accounted for most of the errors that these EFL students committed (58%=1323). However, intralingual errors, which were attributed to the TL itself were also the second major cause of

errors (42%=967). These students showed the tendency of using the correct preposition in English if it had the same equivalent in Arabic. They selected the improper preposition in English if it did not have the same equivalent in Arabic, for example, *Amman is famous *by* its ruins. They also deleted or inserted prepositions in English according to their MT rules of inserting or deleting such prepositions. He concluded that Arab students' incorrect use of English prepositions was so vast even for the more advanced English language learners.

Al-Khresheh (2010) investigated the interference of L1 (Arabic) syntactic structures on FL (English) syntactic structures amongst Jordanian learners of English. His focus was on the word order errors committed by EFL learners within the structure of simple sentences. The purpose of the study was to trace the effect of the MT upon that of the TL. He used Corder's (1981) method that was comprised of a multiple-choice test. His 115 Jordanian subjects were tenth grade school students at Al-Mazer District of Education in the south of Jordan. The results of his study showed that the subjects committed (1266) interlingual errors regarding the specific syntactic category that he was investigating, which was the simple sentence structure word order. He found out after the sub-classification of these errors that they were attributed to the transfer from standard Arabic (SA) were more than those of the transfer from non-standard Arabic (NSA). Moreover, these transfer errors were found to be the result of the variance between the subjects' MT (Arabic) and English in addition to the transfer from two various varieties of Arabic.

Abu-Jarad (2008) studied the errors committed by 179 Palestinian university students studying English in Al-Azhar University – Gaza. He presented to the subjects a grammar test that was composed of 59 questions which were focusing upon 13 grammatical categories. The findings of the study showed that there was an increase in the students' command of the various grammatical categories and fewer errors committed as a result of the advancement of the students' language levels. It was found that the level 1 students were good in their results

because of their efforts to succeed in the high school general certificate exams. The results showed that in a particular grammatical category 'the use of articles'; there was a general weakness even for level 2, level 3 and level 4 students. He attributed such a weakness to that of teaching methods. He suggested that English teachers should pay particular attention to the use of articles as a review for their students at the beginning of their courses. It was also suggested that English teachers might attempt to show the difference in articles use in English and Arabic. Thus, it was also suggested that English teachers should conduct a diagnostic test before teaching English articles. The most notable increase in the performance of the specific grammatical categories was the use of the reported speech, present perfect and prepositions. However, the students' weakness was manifested in the use of articles and irregular comparatives.

Bataineh (2005) focused upon identifying the kinds of errors that Jordanian undergraduate EFL students committed in the use of the indefinite article. The size of the study population was 209 male and female university students majoring English in Yarmouk University. They were between 18 and 23 years old. Those subjects were asked to write compositions on various topics. The findings of her study suggested that most of the errors that these subjects committed were due to common learning processes as those of overgeneralisation and simplification of the English article system. Her study suggested that the interference of the MT in the specific language category that she was studying 'the use of the indefinite article' was so limited. However, the only type of errors that could be attributed to L1 interference was the deletion of the indefinite article.

Zughoul (2002) investigated syntax of the interlanguage of 25 Arab learners of English from seven Arab countries who were attending an intensive English program at the University of Texas, Austin. The focus of the study was on the area of the noun phrase concerning the closed system elements that can occur before or after the noun head. He

analysed the first 500 vocabulary of each subject's interlanguage; then he classified them according to a typology of errors that he designed according to a pilot study. His findings showed that noun phrase errors constituted 32.8 % of the total number of errors in the sample, which came second after verb phrase errors. The noun phrase errors according to their frequency were in the use of articles, especially the omission of the indefinite article in obligatory contexts, the use of "the" excessively, omission of the article "the," and redundant use of the articles "a" and "an". He concluded that the errors committed by Arab learners varied according to their dialects backgrounds. He also concluded that errors committed by Arab learners were very much similar to those errors committed by English learners of other language backgrounds.

Al-Jarf (2000) conducted a study of nine Saudi seniors at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia whose major was translation. She analysed 159 grammatical agreement errors. Statistics showed that the percentage of disagreeing verbs was more than pronouns, which in turn was more than adjectives. It also revealed that gender errors were higher than number agreement errors. Interlingual errors were more than intralingual ones. 27% of the errors were due to incorrect gender assignment to the controller or target, 3% were due to inability to determine the number of the controller or target, 24% were due to inability to associate the verb, pronoun or adjective with its correct referent.

Hashim (1996) revised most of the recurring studies that focused upon syntactic errors made by Arab learners of English. He classified these errors into seven various categories: verbal, sentence structure, relative clause, adverbial clause, conjunction, articles and prepositions. Findings of his study revealed that the interference of the MT (Arabic) was the main reason behind committing such types of errors. He added that when Arab learners tried to formulate an English sentence, they used strategies parallel to those of MT learners as

simplification and overgeneralisation. For example, *The son of the teacher is named Ali, and *He play football with us.

Al-Hazaymeh (1994) investigated the errors of verb tenses committed by high school Arab students learning English at Al-Mazer District of Education in the south of Jordan. His subjects were (587) students from public schools and (172) students from private schools. Findings of the study revealed that there were statistically significant differences between public and private school students, male and female students, scientific and literary students concerning their errors in the category of the English verb tenses. These errors were attributed to the MT interference, overgeneralisation, the complexity of the structures of the English verb tenses, the strategy of constructing an English sentence according to that of Arabic and lack of required knowledge of grammatical rules.

Al-Naimi (1989) investigated the errors made by Arab EFL learners of the category of English Adjectives. His sample was composed of 150 students enrolled in the classes of the Orientation Program of the language Centre in Jordan. They were asked to write essays. It was found that interference was the main reason behind committing the biggest number of errors in adjective formation, selection and comparison.

Khurma and Hajjaj (1989) described the characteristics of conditional usage in writing by learners whose first language was Arabic. The Type 1 conditional (If + present + future) was the next most common form they encountered. They stated that it generally did not pose a problem for Arab learners. They found out that Arab teachers of English language used Arabic for explaining difficult lexical items and grammatical rules. These teachers had the belief that using their MT is useful and they were pleased for that. They concluded that the L1 should not usually be used in FL classrooms, since the aim of FL teaching was to approximate near-native competence. However, if there was need for that, a limited and systematised use was recommended.

Al-Haq (1982) conducted a study regarding the syntactical errors in compositions written by 96 secondary male and female students in urban and rural schools of Irbid. His results manifested that no significant differences between male and female were found regarding noun-phrase and verb-phrase errors, except for prepositions, particles and tense. In addition, it was noticed that there were significant differences between urban and rural students concerning the definite article, prepositions and particles. Those errors were attributed to L1 interference, overgeneralisation, performance, ignorance of usage rules, restriction, formation and developmental errors.

Willcott (1972) conducted a study in which he focused on the category of definiteness in relation to other grammatical categories. His subjects were Arab speakers at the University of Texas, Austin. He thoroughly examined sixteen three-hour American History final examinations written by the subjects of his study. He classified the obtained errors into 24 categories, which in turn contained subtypes and sub-subtypes. He came up with the notion that definiteness problems represented the most frequent type of syntactic problems that Arab student encountered. They were 55% more than verb problems, 75% more than noun problems and so forth

On the other hand, many studies attributed most of students' errors to intralingual and developmental reasons. In her error analysis study of Arab learners of English, Abisamra (2003) found out that 35.9% of the errors were of transfer/Interlingual errors, while 64.1% were developmental and Intralingual. She found that the highest percentage of transfer errors was in semantics and lexis, and as for the highest percentage of developmental errors, it was mainly spelling. Other studies by George (1972), Richards (1971) and Brudhiprabha (1972) also found that only one-third of the foreign language learners' errors could be attributed to native language transfer.

Zughoul (1983) considered the curricula themselves to be the main reason behind the

errors committed by the students of a number of English departments at Arab universities (the University of Baghdad, Iraq; Damascus, Syria; Kuwait, Kuwait; Yarmouk, Jordan; Amman, Jordan) and at two American universities in the Middle East. He concluded that the main focus of the curricula of these departments (with the exception of the American University of Beirut) was the literature component. He added, "The study of English literature does not only dominate the syllabus of the English department, but also shapes the syllabus of the secondary schools" (p. 222). According to Zughoul, in English language and literature "the other two components of the syllabus – namely, language and linguistics – show a lack of balance in the curriculum, where the language component in particular stands out as the weakest" (p. 223). He complained that concerning language skills, these departments only have two courses on communication skills and the other one in writing. Zughoul (1983) claims:

Rarely does a department in a TW country offer solid language training that is training in reading comprehension, listening comprehension, term paper writing, or speech. In fact, the curriculum assumes that the incoming student is proficient in the language and that he does not need any further language training. This, indeed, is a very unrealistic assumption. (p. 223).

Muarik (1982) studied the committed errors in English writing that were generated by 20 preparatory and secondary students in Saudi Arabia. His subjects' translation of 36 Arabic sentences in English was the focus of the study. The grammatical categories that the researchers focused upon were partial Wh-questions, comprehensive yes/no questions, passive voice and negative form. He asked his subjects to write compositions in order to check his subjects' knowledge of the various uses of tenses. He classified all these errors into various grammatical categories and sub-categories in addition to their statistical interpretation and the

reason behind committing each error. He concluded that L1 interference was not the main reason behind committing these errors. The main reasons were that of intralingual and developmental strategies such as overgeneralisation, simplification and avoidance.

Richards (1974) carried out research upon structural difficulties in the target language of the student which impeded his second language acquisition. His research focused on errors in learning English which did not derive from transfer from another language, and which could not be predicted from contrastive analysis. These were intralingual and developmental errors. In order to investigate and distinguish interlanguage, intralingual and developmental errors, the author studied speakers of various languages backgrounds. The aim of such diversity was to reduce the potential confusion between intralingual errors and interlingual ones. He concluded that error analysis should lead to a real examination of teaching materials in addition to the underlying language learning assumptions.

3.3.2 Interference of Lexical Aspects from L1 into FL

Agustín (2009) examined the influence of the MT in vocabulary use in FL writing over four years. She found out that the lexicon was considered one of the language aspects most absorbent to the L1 and lexical transfer that revealed itself as a prominent compensatory learning strategy. However, previous studies found that the influence of the L1 in lexis decreases as grade and proficiency of learners increase (Celaya, 2007; Naves et al. 2005). Moreover, these studies also put forward that 'borrowings' were characteristics of the production of learners at the early stages of acquisition/learning, whereas calques were the most common type of lexical transfer by more proficient learners. This issue seemed reasonable because advanced learners in grade 8 for instance had a higher degree of mastery of the vocabulary of the FL and knew more words in the FL than those of beginners. Consequently, advanced learners were capable of using FL vocabulary to translate L1

structures and did not need to borrow words directly from L1. This result was consistent with the observation that calques were typical of the discourse of more highly elaborated FL written compositions (Agustín, 2007).

Wang (2003) maintained that switching between (L1) and (FL) was recognised as one of the salient characteristics of FL writing. Her subjects were 8 adult Chinese learners of English as an FL with two differing levels of proficiency in English. They were asked to perform two writing tasks. Results showed that the participants' frequencies of language-switching varied slightly by their FL proficiency, suggesting that FL proficiency determines writers' approaches and qualities of thinking while composing in their FL.

Woodall (2002) conducted a study on using the first language while writing in an FL. His subjects were 28 adult participants (9 FL Japanese, 11 FL English and 8 FL Spanish) to investigate how language switching was affected by FL proficiency. The results suggested that the less proficient FL learners switched to their L1 more frequently than the more advanced learners. ANOVA results suggest that less proficient L2 learners switched to their L1s more frequently than more advanced learners ($P=0.004$), and that more difficult tasks increased the duration of L1 use in L2 writing ($P\leq 0.001$). For students of a cognate language, longer periods of L1 use were related to higher quality L2 texts; for students of a non-cognate language, L-S was related to lower quality texts.

Mahmoud (2002) investigated the interlingual transfer of idioms by Arab learners of English. His data was collected from essays that were written by 230 Arab second year university students in the Sultan Qaboos University majoring English. Students from various branches of study wrote those essays as weekly tasks in partial fulfilment of the requirements of their reading and writing courses. 124 idioms (excluding phrasal verbs and binomials) were found in 3220 pieces written by his subjects. Out of the 124 idioms detected, 25 (that is 20%) were grammatically and lexically correct. More than 2/3 of the used idioms (18 idioms) were

found to have similar Arabic counterparts. They were very similar to those of the Arabic idioms at the context, formality and semantic levels. It was found that the other remaining idioms (7 idioms) did not have any Arabic counterparts. Many explanations were presented by the researcher as the proficiency level in EFL, the teachers' attempts to avoid using such idioms in order to make the learning process as easy as possible, and the common non-use of these teachers because they were not native speakers of English. In general, students' encounter to idioms was very rare because the articles that these students used to read were mainly academic or scientific, which usually did not include idioms. It was found that the main interaction between these students and the idioms was in the general discourse of the articles found in the first and second semesters of their first year, which included English for general purposes curricula.

Lenko-Szymanska (2003) investigated the lexical problem of Polish advanced speakers of English. She presented two samples of data drawn from learner corpus, representing two groups of students at different proficiency levels. The findings revealed that collocation errors were the most recurring lexical errors by both language groups.

Hamdan (1984) investigated the lexical errors committed by 60 Jordanian second year English majors in the use of Basic English vocabulary. Findings revealed that 63.85% of the subjects' responses were incorrect; whereas 36.15% were correct. The committed lexical errors were classified as lexical substitution, paraphrase, and the use of negative forms, coinage and translation. Analysis showed that 48.2% of the total number of lexical errors was attributed to L1 interference, whereas 14.6% were intralingual ones.

Hamdan (1994) conducted a study that focused upon the lexical errors committed by 100 English major students at Yarmouk University. These errors were taken from the students' responses to a controlled translation task and intuitive lexical judgment task. Findings revealed that in the controlled task, 32% of the responses of students were incorrect;

whereas 68% were correct. These lexical errors were categorised as synonymy, literal translation, similar forms and collocation. In the intuitive lexical judgment task, it was found that 34.2% of the subjects' responses were incorrect; whereas 65.8% were correct.

Azevedo (1980) investigated the lexical errors committed by 14th first-year graduate students of Spanish at the American university. His subjects were native speakers of American English. His data was the collection of 61 papers written by the subjects. Findings revealed that subjects committed many lexical errors. The subjects' Spanish speech revealed many gaps in morphology, syntax, semantics and style. These gaps "...were filled by rules of their own MT" (1980, p. 223).

Many studies focused upon lexical interference from L1 into FL (Carter, 1987; Clipperton, 1994; Ellis, 1997; Richards, 1976; and Taylor, 1990). However, these studies showed discrepancies in their findings. Some of them related this contrast to the specific nature of L1 and FL. Thus, they assumed that if two languages belonged to the same language family origin, general lexical transfer was not very great because learners did not need to rely on their MT lexical items in conveying their verbal and written messages in the TL. However, in the case of the difference in language families, there was a tendency for another linguistic phenomenon, which was part of lexical transfer that was 'borrowing'. This lexical interference was noticed largely at the beginning of the learning/acquisition process and then it was reduced gradually as the learner/acquirer moved forward in the learning process.

3.3.3 Interference of Phonological Aspects from L1 into FL

Na'ama (2011) investigated the English consonant clusters, which he believed to be the most difficult aspects in pronunciation that Yemeni University students faced. The sample of his study was 45 students randomly chosen from the three levels of The English Department., Faculty of Education and Hodiedah University. These students belonged to

various language levels after conducting a language placement test: good, moderate and low. He found out that they committed many errors in the use of the English clusters. These subjects repeatedly committed errors in this difficult form of pronunciation work. Thus, when given various vocabularies to pronounce which fell under this category as "spread", "splendid", "play" *and so on*. They applied the technique of 'Epenthesis' in English clusters. By definition: "epenthesis is the insertion of a vowel or consonant segment within an existing string or cluster reduction" (Celce-Murcia, Briton and Goodwin, 1996, p.83). They pronounced these words as follows: /spɪred/, /spɪlɛndɪd/, /plɪeɪ/ and so on. Findings revealed that these subjects committed many errors in English consonant clusters pronunciation. These errors were explained based on L1 interference into L2 because of the various phonological differences between Arabic and English regarding consonant-clusters. The second potential reason was that Yemeni university students did not use any listening aids. The third probable factor was the English language teachers themselves who were not masters of English pronunciation because they were not native speakers of English.

Ramussen (2007) investigated the intelligibility of native and Arabic-accented speech for native English and native Arab listeners. The main focus of his study was on the phonemic contrast between /b/ and /p/, which usually existed in English but not in Arabic. The subjects were native Arab listeners and native English listeners. They were subject to a forced choice word identification task that they were given individual English words, for example "pack" or "back", and were asked to recognise the words. Results showed that there was no indication that listeners got any advantage of speech intelligibility (that is native English listeners were more accurate at identifying Arabic-accented English words), however, it was found that talkers had some advantage in the interlanguage speech intelligibility (that is Arabic-accented English words were just as intelligible as native English words for native Arab listeners). Results also showed that the two language groups used voice onset times in a different way. It

was found that native English talkers manifested their ability to distinguish between the /p/ and /b/ along the voice onset time continuum, whereas the native Arab talkers manifested an overlap of the two categories.

Al-Jarf (2007) investigated the English spelling errors for 36 freshmen students majoring in translation at the College of Languages and Translation, King Saud University. They were all first year students in their second semester. The spelling errors were categorised into sources of whole word errors, and sources of faulty graphemes. She tried to figure out the causes of English spelling errors for these subjects. She concluded that: Communication breakdown was considered as the main factor that determined the vocabulary spelling and comprehension capacity by ESL students at the College of Languages and Translation. Students' inability to hear or spell words was determined by their language levels. The second most important factor was the almost ignorance of these students of the rules that governed English spelling rules. It was found that teaching spelling was not one of the parts of the ESL instruction or the evaluation system in that university. The third common source of spelling errors was the interference of the Arabic spelling system into English because of "the orthographic complexity difference between English and Arabic (p.8).

Schmidt (1987) conducted a study in order to investigate the notion that a careful CA can foretell something about interlanguage phonology. He examined the substitution of /s, z/ for English /θ, ð/ by native speakers of Egyptian Arabic. He conducted his study upon 34 native male speakers of Arabic who were studying English. They were asked to read selected Arabic and English passages. His results showed that native speakers of Egyptian Arabic frequently substituted sibilants in English *th-* words, regardless of whether or not they have been exposed to classic Arabic. He also found out that the Egyptians do not substitute stops in English *th-* words.

Flege and Port (1981), investigated the productions of English /p/ by native Arab speakers. They found evidence that the native Arab speakers understood the phonemic nature of English /p/ and were somewhat successful at developing an L2 category for /p/. The native Arab speakers produced /p/ with longer stop closure duration than they did for /b/. This was analogous to the timing contrast that existed in Arabic between voiced and voiceless stop consonants, that is native Arab production of /t/ and /k/ had longer closure durations than those of /d/ and /g/. The native Arab speakers seemed to comprehend that /p/ was analogous to /b/ in the same way that /t/ was to /d/. This showed that to some degree, the Arab speakers were able to grasp the phonemic nature of /p/ in English; they were not merely substituting /b/ for /p/. However, they were still unable to produce /p/ with native like Voice Onset Time (VOT) and generally produced it with glottal pulsing. Flege and Port (1981) tested the intelligibility of native Arab productions of English voiceless stop consonants and they found that native English speakers could identify /t/ and /k/ easily, but had trouble with /p/, frequently identifying it as /b/. They attributed this misperception to the presence of glottal pulsing during the stop closure. The native Arab speakers did produce /p/ differently than /b/. However, this contrast was primarily evident in stop closure duration, rather than in VOT. Native English listeners, while sensitive to VOT contrasts, were not sensitive to timing contrasts in word-initial stop consonants. Therefore, they were usually unable to perceive the difference between the Arab speakers' productions of /b/ and /p/ and generally identified them both as /b/.

Flege (1980) studied the productions of English /p t k/ by native speakers of Saudi Arabic. He found that the Saudis' productions exhibited many phonological aspects of native Arab speech. However, he also found that over time Saudis gradually acquired the ability to approximate English characteristics of stop production so that their productions were not typical of either native Arab speech or of native English speech. He determined that the

Saudis' productions were the output of what he called an interlanguage phonological system, a system that exhibits phonological characteristics that were intermediate to L1 and FL phonological norms.

3.4 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the works of various researchers on the particular issues of the interference of syntactic, lexical and phonological aspects from L1 into FL. There has been focused attention in recent research on Arabic. Some of these researchers attributed most of the committed errors to the interference of the MT, while others divided them into interlingual and intralingual/developmental types of errors. All studies of English interference into Arabic asserted that there is a negative effect of the MT (Arabic) upon the TL (English). However, they disagree upon the rate and frequency of specific linguistic errors among their subjects.

Chapter IV

Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This research is a descriptive analytical one in which the behaviour of the involved subjects was described , analysed and interpreted. In the present study, the researcher referred to the factors that affected the behaviour of these subjects. Then, he described the events and the behaviour of these subjects by taking notes during their natural discourse and interview.

This chapter presents research methods: data collection, qualitative and quantitative analyses and data interpretation. There are plenty of research methods in the field of language learning. Nunan (1992) classified them as:

Formal experiments and quasi-experiments; elicitation instruments; interviews and questionnaires; introspective methods including diaries, logs, journals, protocol analysis, and stimulated recall; interaction and transcript analysis; ethnography, and case studies. (p.1).

In the present study, the research hypotheses were tested or verified by setting up situations in which the relationship between different participants or variables could be determined (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). After identifying the group to which this study was directed and after eliciting samples from them, four techniques, namely, interviews, Language Proficiency Test, free composition test and Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire were

utilised in order to verify the research hypotheses and questions. Later, the collected data was analysed by using qualitative and quantitative methods.

4.2 The Choice of Subjects

The subjects in the present study were Syrian Arab students who were studying English at the HIL. This study investigated the multi-linguistic interference from L1 (Arabic) into FL (English). Thus, it was important to have the selected group representative of the whole population that was intended to be examined. By doing so, the collected data could be generalised out of the research environment. The results and the findings of this research were not limited to the number of the examined subjects, but rather were applicable to the wider population to which these subjects belonged and were chosen to represent. In choosing subjects, the "probability-sampling" procedure was adopted (Denscombe, 2003), in which the researcher chose a specific number of subjects from the whole population that he thought would be representative of the whole population in their general characteristics. The sampling technique that was used in order to serve this purpose was random sampling (Dörnyei, 2003). It was defined by Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (2002) as "a sample which contains a good representation of the population from which it is drawn" (p.465). Later in this chapter, there will be an explanation of this procedure.

The two language levels PI and UI were selected to serve the purposes of the research. Then, a number of students were randomly selected to represent the whole learners at these two levels. Nevertheless, the random selection was performed under the control of two boundaries namely age (20-25) and gender.

The age range (20-25) of the female and male subjects in this study was selected to cover university students and new graduates in order to test subjects that shared similar academic background and experience. This was to ensure that the number of the female and

male students, who later took the Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire and the Language Proficiency Test (the first stage of data collection), at both levels were almost equal in terms of the age range.

The subjects of this study were Syrian university students who were learning English at the HIL of Aleppo University. They were PI and UI students. The number of the PI students was 80 subjects out of the total number which was 160 and 40 UI students out of total number which was 80 for the second one. Therefore half of the total number of students was randomly selected, They were divided into two categories based upon the gender criterion: 62 males and 58 females. Thus, the total number of subjects in the two groups was 120 subjects out of 240 students. Having an almost equal number of female and male learners aimed at giving an equal opportunity to the two genders that were sampled as representatives of the two categories of English FL learners in Syria. Finally, the random sampling within the previous two boundaries was chosen to strengthen external validity in the sense that extraneous or subjective variables that might affect the outcome of the research were highly reduced (Dörnyei, 2003). In the random sampling, 50% of the total number of students was randomly selected by choosing the first student, the third one, the fifth one...etc. alphabetically.

The reasons behind the choice of the subjects in the present study were that:

1. The PI learners were those who were learning English with preliminary knowledge of FL. This was because researchers agreed that the interference of L1 upon FL was thought to be very great at this stage of learning English.

2. The UI learners were those who had a better grasp of English language. However, the degree of L1 interference upon FL at this stage was not specified and it was a matter of debate among researchers.

By having these two different groups, an attempt was made to track the transfer phenomenon from PI to UI learners. This was vital for comprehending this notion and trying to construct a better understanding of the issue of FL learning and the potential negative effect of the MT upon FL learning.

The following procedures were applied to the subjects under study:

1. 120 students out of the total number which was 240 took the Language Proficiency Test and the Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire.
2. 20 students were interviewed (10 students from PI and 10 students from UI).
3. 21 other students were asked to write essays about specific topics (14 students from PI and 7 students from UI).

The parameters that lay behind the process of FL learning for these two groups at this centre are listed below:

1. The subjects in this study were university students who had spent about 14 years in learning English at public schools and at university.
2. The HIL had determined the levels of FL learners by a placement test.
3. Learners' teachers were native speakers of Arabic, but their FL was English.
4. The Communicative Approach of teaching English was the adopted method of teaching.
5. The number of students in each class was 15-20 students.
6. The *New Headway* textbook series was taught to all levels.
7. The duration of the course was 8 weeks; three classes per week.

4.3 Instruments

In the current research, neither did the researcher manipulate or create the context of the studied phenomenon nor did he control the included subjects or the results (Cohen,

Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Nunan, 1992; and Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). The role of the researcher was just to choose the subjects randomly, ask them to participate in the procedures of data collection and record the findings and the results objectively without any intervention on his part.

Descriptive research was used to describe the characteristics of a population by directly examining samples of that population. Descriptive studies make primary use of surveys, interviews and observations (Glatthorn & Loyner, 2005).

The present study was cross-sectional in nature. In this study, a group of FL English students "PI and UI" were studied cross-sectionally. Various instruments were used in order to track L1 interference. Four techniques were utilised that supported the descriptive design of this research. They were interviews, language proficiency test, free composition test and Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire.

4.3.1 Interviews

Interviews are very common in social science studies for their 'in-depth-information-gathering', 'free response' and 'flexibility' (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). The researcher obtained the subjects' approval, their teachers' and the administration's of the HIL to interview the subjects. An 'OLYMPUS DIGITAL VOICE RECORDER VN-5500PC' was used to interview the subjects under study. Later on, these interviews were transcribed. Then, there was an identification of the errors committed in these interviews and an attempt was made to relate them to their potential reasons. The time allocated for each interview was 20-23 **mins**.

The type of interviews in this research was the qualitative interview. A qualitative interview is different from everyday conversation. It is a research tool and a good interviewer must prepare questions in advance and later analyses and reports results. (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Audio recording the interviews helps in preserving the actual language used by the

interviewees, adds objectivity to the procedure, saves the interviewees' contributions naturalistically and enables the investigator to analyse the collected data after the event (Nunan, 1992). Interviews are widely used to be acquainted with subjects' opinions, attitudes, or strategies concerning certain issues related to a specific population. Nonetheless, interviews can also "be used as tests for obtaining information about learners' language proficiency" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989, p. 167).

'One-to-one semi-structured interviews' (Denscombe, 2003), with 10 PI and 10 UI students were conducted. The interviews aimed to check the students' ability to recall ideas after hearing the researcher's questions and to check their pronunciation, vocabulary-choice and grammatical competence. In semi-structured interviews, the emphasis was on giving the interviewees the chance to express their ideas and interpretations freely and making them discuss and elaborate points of interest (Denscombe, 2003).

4.3.2 Language Proficiency Test

Researchers use the procedure of testing when they wish to scrutinise certain abilities of the subjects or their knowledge of certain disciplines (McNamara, 2000). Tests in FL learning research studies are usually used for different purposes depending on the aim of the study. They can be used, for example, to measure the learners' FL mastery in some areas such as vocabulary, grammar, reading and general proficiency. Tests are characterised by their degree of explicitness (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

The researcher chose the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) - constructed by Allan (1985) - which is a proficiency test that is intended to "measure global language abilities" (Brown, 2005, p. 2). It is made up of two sections: Test of Grammatical Structures (Appendix-A) and Test of Listening Skills (Appendix-B). The Oxford Placement Test is one of the most widely used measures of ESL/EFL proficiency in the UK. It has been reliably exploited for

ascertaining English proficiency of the students entering undergraduate and postgraduate studies in British universities. Since the subjects of the present study were of the undergraduate level, the researcher assumed that the Oxford Placement Test effectively and efficiently measured the subjects' proficiency in writing and listening. This test was composed of two subtests:

a. Test of Grammatical Structures: This is a written multiple-choice test of grammatical structures of English that covers the vast majority of course books, whether functional or structural, ranging from elementary to advanced. The test has fifty multiple-choice items, each scored two marks. A time limit of 40 **mins** was set for the test. Test-takers were asked to read the stem with a blank and to choose one of the three options for the blank. This test type was a multiple-choice task (Purpura, 2004).

b. Test of Listening Skills: This was a test of listening skills consisting of one hundred multiple-choice items, each of one mark. In the test, the subject's performance was dependent on the knowledge of the sound systems of the English language and upon the ability to make use of this knowledge. The recorded material controlled the time for the test. It took approximately 6:15 **mins** to complete the listening test. When the material was played, the researcher paused the recording for 5 seconds after each sentence, so the participants could recall the sentence in their minds. Thus, the total duration of the test was 14: 50 **mins**. Test-takers were asked to select the correctly spelt word, between two choices, that they had previously heard in the short sentences. Buck (2001) called this type of test a phonemic discrimination task in which the test-takers' task was to distinguish two words which differed by one phoneme.

The Oxford Placement Test in this study was a ready-made test. The reasons behind choosing this type of tests were that they were designed by experts. They reserved the objectivity of the scores obtained and enjoyed a high degree of reliability in the sense that

they always provided the same results because they were administered in the same way under certain conditions of administration.

4.3.3 Free Composition Test

In the present study, 21 subjects were asked to write an essay about a subject that they liked. The researcher suggested three topics: - 'Pollution', 'Your study at university' and 'An interesting topic of your own choice'. This test was designed to assess the subjects' linguistic competence in organising and presenting relevant ideas in writing. In this investigation, spontaneous prediction procedure had been followed. A time limit of one hour was set for the test.

4.3.4 The Design of Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire

Many studies have tried to find correlations between certain personality traits and FL learning. However, this should not be misinterpreted, because it has become common knowledge that personality alone does not explain success in FLL better than any other factor. One shortcoming of the studies carried out in the attitudinal-motivational domain has been the failure to find quantifiable data that would link success in FLL to the affective domain (Vuorinen, 2009). At least many traditional multiple-choice questionnaires, which have not focused on any specific area of attitude or motivation, has proved to be inadequate in linking affective variables to the theories they are constructed to evaluate (Johnson & Krug, 1980; Oller & Perkins, 1980). There were those who had introduced the motivation factor as one of the main factors that underlined the issue of learning. Thus, the research intended to utilise this notion and attempted to measure the extent to which the attitude of a learner affected his/her FL production.

In the present study, a modified version of the Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire originally devised by Gardner and Lambert (1972) was used. It tried to have depth information about the underlined factors behind the subjects' commitment of errors and the notion of transfer in general. It consisted of 20 questions that tried to trace the extent to which learners' motivation towards the TL could play a vital role in the extent of interference from L1 into FL (See Appendix E). It was suggested that those who were more motivated in learning an FL were less likely to have L1 transfer into their FL, whereas those who were less motivated were likely to have more transfer rate from L1 into FL. Later a comparison was held between the results of this questionnaire and Language Proficiency Test for each subject in order to examine the link between motivation and language transfer.

4.4 The Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

4.4.1 Validity

The procedures that were processed to enhance the validity of this study and its results are going to be highlighted. Four instruments were utilised to collect the data. These were:

- a. Interviews,
- b. The Language Proficiency Test,
- c. Free composition test,
- d. Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire

The validity of the interviews was attained in the sense the tape-recording preserved the actual and the natural language of the subjects under study. Thus, the interview would stand for objective recording of the subjects' natural and actual language with no control or modification to the context of the interview, as it had been asserted by Nunan (1992). The validity of the interviews processing was maintained because three linguists had reviewed the

interviews tape-recording and their orthographic transcription to assure that these transcriptions truly reflected the interviews. They also checked the errors list and their syntactic, lexical and phonological classifications and sub-classifications. Moreover, the researcher sought the advice of experts in statistics in the Faculty of Economics at Aleppo University for data collection and analysis. This was conducted because the statistical analysis gave the chance to organise the collected data in diagrams, charts and tables by transforming the raw data into numbers, percentages, and parameters that provided the research with a clear succinct summary of the results needed to confirm the hypotheses of the research (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Denscombe, 2003). The classification of errors was adopted from Burt and Kiparsky (1972) who developed a linguistic category taxonomy into which they classified several English errors made by students learning English as well as host environments

The subjects were told that these instruments were for academic purposes, which allowed them to speak freely without prior thinking of the differences between their MT (Arabic) and the TL (English). Their inquiries were answered too. Additionally, after explaining the objectives and the nature of this study with its academic benefits to the administrations of the HIL, the researcher obtained their formal permission to conduct the present study at this centre.

The issue of the validity of the language proficiency test was tackled on the basis that the adopted test was a standardised test and was published by a specialised university, Oxford. It had been mainly chosen to meet the objective of this study, paying attention to the levels of difficulty and easiness in a way that suited the selected learners' English proficiency levels.

The validity of the third procedure "free composition test" sprang from the fact that this test manifested the actual written production of the subjects under study. It manifested their errors and their correct forms, which was the main intention of the present research. These errors reflected the actual interference from L1 into FL at the syntactic level, the lexical

level or the spelling level. It showed whether the subjects had used mother-tongue syntactic structures, lexical items and spelling in order to compensate for their weakness in the TL or not, as had been referred to thoroughly in Chapters (II) and (III). In order to make sure that the errors in the written essays were due to lack of knowledge or MT interference, the students were asked to review their writings and correct them. By doing so, the researcher could be sure that the committed errors in the essays had not been due to haste of time; rather they showed the real competence of the students. Later, the sentences were examined by comparing the students' sentences with those of the reconstructed target-language ones (Farooq, 1998).

The validity of the fourth procedure, Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire was established because it was loosely designed after the one that was made by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Three referees were asked to judge the validity of this test. They were applied linguists. They asked for the modifications of some items of the content of the questionnaire in order to meet the purposes of the research.

4.4.2 Reliability

When dealing with the issue of reliability of a research, researchers have to focus upon two concepts: internal reliability that is consistency and external reliability that is replicability (Nunan, 1992). On the one hand, internal reliability refers to the consistency and accuracy of the procedures performed for collecting, analysing and interpreting data. On the other hand, external reliability entails confirming the fact that the results and the findings of the research are going to be the same if a similar study is to be replicated and administrated under similar conditions (Nunan, 1992).

The discussion of the concept of reliability in the present study initiated from the fact that the materials of the Language Proficiency Test were designed by a specialised university, Oxford, in a way that corresponded to the PI and UI English learners according to certain criteria that guaranteed the quality of the results of the test at each level.

To enhance the reliability of the Language Proficiency Test, all the subjects were given 40 **min** to finish the test. Later, some of them were asked to write essays and were given an hour to finish them. In the interviews, all of the subjects were asked the same questions in the same order, too. These procedures helped in preserving the consistency of the conditions for administrating the tests and the interviews.

The subjects' levels were determined by one placement test conducted by the HIL. This placement test was originally designed by Dr. Rod Walters with the British Council in Syria and developed later by a team of the institute to meet certain standards to make sure that its results matched the corresponding levels and the taught course. This indicated that carrying out this study again with other learners under similar conditions would provide consistent findings and results.

4.5 Data Collection Procedures

The process of collecting the required data for this study was performed from September through November, 2010. The researcher met the administrators of the HIL and explained the objectives and the nature of this study as well as the procedures needed to be implemented to meet the purposes of this research. The approval of the administrators of the HIL was obtained for conducting this study at the institute.

At the HIL, the researcher met some of the teachers who were teaching PI and UI classes to get their help in arranging for the tests, the questionnaire and the interviews with the students. He explained to them the aims and questions of the research.

Data collection was completed in a period of two months. All the (120) subjects took the language proficiency test, motivation and attitude questionnaire in the same classrooms where they used to have their English course. Later, the researcher interviewed 20 students of those who had previous tests. Other 21 students took the free composition test.

For the audio recording procedure, the researcher recorded the interviews by using 'Olympus Digital Voice Recorder VN-5500PC'. The researcher made it clear to the subjects that the test, the questionnaire and the interviews were not part of the course they were having at the institute, but were used solely for pure research reasons. In the interviews, the researcher's role was just to record the subjects while talking and asking them some questions without interfering with their ways of language production or answering the questions. At the end of the interview, the researcher expressed his gratitude to the participants for their cooperation. The researcher thanked the teachers and the administrators for the facilities they offered to collect the research data.

4.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to sifting, organising, summarising and synthesising the data in order to reach the results and conclusions of the research. Thus, data analysis becomes the product of all the considerations involved in the design and planning of the research (Selinger & Shohammy, 1990). Data analysis is valuable to the extent that there is a valid relationship between it and the other components of the research. A variety of techniques can be utilised for data analysis. Choosing the appropriate ones depends on the research type, its objective and the type of the data collected to serve its purpose.

In the present study, two inseparable types of analyses were carried out: Qualitative Analysis and Quantitative Analysis. Technically speaking, the qualitative analysis enabled the investigator to inspect closely the individual's performance and level of proficiency accurately

and thoroughly (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). It was clear then that the questions of generalisation and the applicability of the tested phenomenon on other learners were not addressed in the qualitative analysis. Here the complementary role of the quantitative analysis came out. It solved this problem and aided in proving that the sampled data was representative of the whole population as had been manifested earlier (Shulman, 1981).

4.6.1 Qualitative Analysis

FL researchers tend to use qualitative methods in their studies more than other types of data analysis methods (Adams, Fujii, & Mackey, 2005; Nunan, 1992). It can be ascribed to the fact that FL researchers are interested in examining certain linguistic and cognitive phenomena closely within their natural settings without any manipulation or intervention. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis gives them the chance to investigate the factors that underlie all the processes of FL learning in details (Adams, Fujii and Mackey, 2005).

The main focus of this research was on the notion of L1 interference and the factors that contributed to this transfer. In the present study, the term 'interference' is used to denote the negative effect of L1 on FL. To be able to investigate the previous factors thoroughly, language skills were tested and measured. It was assumed that the notion of transfer occurred at various language levels. The concentration of this research would be on errors rather than mistakes. However, it was difficult to determine that learners at the same language level shared the same type and number of errors or negative transfer. This natural variance was analysed qualitatively by examining the underlying linguistic factors. For this purpose, the second technique was applied in this study; the interviews were analysed in two stages. The first stage involved assessing the readers' oral output by measuring the accuracy of grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation (Hudson, Lane and Pullen, 2005). The subjects' oral output was transformed into text. Consequently, the subjects' oral output was to be transcribed

phonemically according to the International Phonetic Alphabet in the case of phonological errors (Crystal, 1997) and a profound analysis was performed in order to highlight and explain the subjects' oral miscues and errors (Hudson et al., 2005). To guarantee an objective assessment of the degree of the subjects' oral production fluency and accuracy, the researcher sought the help of a Syrian linguist to check these procedures. This procedure was carried out in order to avoid any kind of subjective measurement while listening to and transcribing the learners' language output.

In the tape-recording analysis procedure, the following methods were implemented as guided by Crystal (1982):

1. A sample of the subjects' interlanguage was collected by the tape-recording procedure.
2. This sample was orthographically transcribed.
3. The orthographic transcription was analysed.
4. The analysis was profiled on a summary chart.
5. The pattern of the profile chart was assessed.
6. The profile pattern was interpreted by linguistic means.

The process to identify transfer, according to Kasper (1992), followed three steps: First, an observation on the learner's productive interlanguage data was conducted. Second, under the guidance of the definition of transfer, there was a focus on the different means that learners employed in expressing and understanding a speech act in the TL. Thirdly, there was a sorting out of the collected data to the transfer features.

The errors that occurred during the subjects' discourse were analysed according to Corder (1974) and Richards' (1971b) distinction of error analysis and transfer. The researcher had tried to find out if more advanced level of language learning would reduce the frequency and percentage of these errors and the types that would resist improving. Corder (1974) suggested the following steps in EA research.

1. Collection of a sample of learner language.
2. Identification of errors.
3. Description of errors.
4. Explanation of errors.

For Error Tagging, the researcher adopted the following approach to annotate errors. This approach is carried out by marking different types of errors with special tags. By this, errors are classified into three types; syntactic, lexical and phonological ones. The word, which is syntactically erroneous, is put in bold style, followed by the correct version of that error for example "**He work for them** (He works for them)". The lexically erroneous word is put in italics, followed by the correct version of that error, for example *culture* (literature). The phonological erroneous word is put in italics followed by the phonemic transcription and followed by the correct version of that error, for example *imbrove* /Imbru:v/ (improve).

A comparison was made between the types of errors committed in the interviews of PI and UI subjects. The researcher had transcribed his interviews with the subjects (see Appendix J and K). During the interviews, some subjects used the Syrian dialect of Arabic at times and then they switched into English. This phenomenon is known as 'code-switching', which is the use of L1 and FL and the transition between them in the same discourse. Therefore, the researcher transliterated this Arabic discourse into the international language phonemes, followed by its English equivalent and interpretation. The transliterations of any Arabic utterances that were uttered during the discourse in this study were based upon the table arranged by Yusuf (1946) for the transliteration of Arabic words in the Holy Qur'an Translation. (See Appendix G). The researcher highlighted the errors committed by the subjects in his interview and analysed them later. These errors were attributed to syntactic or morphological, lexical and phonological factors.

4.6.2 Quantitative Analysis

In order to determine the notion of transfer, it was advised to use a statistically significant method. Kasper (1992) strongly recommended Selinker's (1969) operational definition of transfer. To her, it could be adapted to a suitable method for identifying pragmatic transfer in interlanguage production. This was echoed by Bley-Vroman (1983) who observed that multiple rather than binary choices were usually available for speakers to express communicative goal. Takahashi (1995) further elaborated on positive transfer as "similarity in terms of response frequencies in NL, IL and TL, while negative transfer as similar response frequencies in NL, IL with different response frequencies between NL and TL and between IL and TL" (as cited in Liu, 2001, p.3). This had been adopted in the present research in order to determine the notion of transfer and whether it was positive or negative.

Despite the fact that investigators usually collect their data from selected samples, their major interest, however, is not only limited to these samples. In most cases, it aims to take up the challenge of generalising the findings to the whole population. This is only one of the many other reasons that prompt researchers to adopt quantitative analysis in their studies. Statistics helps the researcher transform her/his results into numbers, summarise and present them in simple and highly organised ways such as graphs, charts and tables. Transforming the findings by using such statistical devices presents them in a concise way and adds objectivity to the research (Denscombe, 2003).

Although many ways to elicit data for transfer analysis were addressed in Grotjahn (1983) who argued that quantitative methods should be used, there were three main methods recurrently utilised in transfer study: cross-sectional, longitudinal and theoretical. The present study belonged to the cross-sectional method, in which there was a comparison of how

samples of FL learners at different levels of proficiency (PI and UI) understood and produced an FL.

The results of the interviews, Language Proficiency Test and Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire were analysed numerically for the sake of supporting the results of the qualitative analysis of the interviews and ascertaining their credibility and generalizability. The quantitative analysis could support the qualitative one and present consistent results if the hypotheses of the research were valid and the researcher's predictions were consistent with the analysed findings. Hence, the quantitative analysis had measured this phenomenon numerically by transforming the data of the language test into numbers and analysing them statistically. Therefore, the main essence of the quantitative analysis was to generate numerical quantified units (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Denscombe, 2003). Impacts on the elicited data were observed in the use of different instruments. Different production tasks would impose different processing demands on learners (Kasper, 1992; Nunan, 1991).

Dealing with statistical procedures, computers play the greatest role in processing the data statistically (Denscombe, 2003). Computer software makes the process of statistical data analysis easier and more organised by presenting them in tables and charts based on the stored data. Consequently, one of the most commonly used systems in statistical data analysis was adopted for the quantitative analysis of this study namely the Statistical Package for Social Science, Version 16 (SPSS 16). The data was labelled and classified in accordance with the technical pattern of data organisation of this program in order to apply the statistical procedures precisely and correctly. After statistically figuring out the general percentage and frequency of the occurrence of the syntactic, lexical and phonological errors for each of PI and UI students. An identification was made of the specific percentage of syntactic errors for PI and UI students in addition to those of lexical and phonological errors. Then, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) which is used to analyse the differences between group means and their

associated procedures was applied. ANOVA provides a statistical test of whether or not the means of several groups are all equal and therefore generalises t-test to more than two groups, (Levine et al., 2011). ANOVA Analysis was run to see if the difference between the means of PI and UI students' errors was significant. This matter could lead to the verification or refutation of the research hypotheses.

4.7 Conclusion

The present chapter has reviewed the methodology and instruments, which are the technical aspect of this research. Choosing the suitable instrumentation is essential for the success of any research because it affects the hypotheses, the quality of the collected data and the findings of the research. This study is a descriptive research. It investigates and tests the linguistic abilities of the subjects under study and the effect of L1 interference upon their interlanguage. For this purpose, four methods were applied: the Language Proficiency Test, interviews, the free composition test and Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire. These methods were chosen because they were supposed to be the most suitable instruments that could meet the requirements and the objective of this study. These methods were applied to randomly selected PI and UI students at HIL and classrooms where they were taking their English language course. The data was analysed qualitatively and quantitatively in order to guarantee the holistic analysis for these different types of the collected data. Hence, the whole aspects of the data were analysed thoroughly and explained linguistically in an objective way. This research tried to pick up the errors committed naturally by these subjects and related them systematically to their possible reasons according to the Errors' Correlated Hypothesis.

Chapter V

Analysis of Data

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the collected data, its analysis in relation to the aims and questions of the research and its interpretations. As has been mentioned earlier in the chapter on methodology and instrumentation (Chapter 4), the data was collected through four instruments: interviews, tests, free composition and a questionnaire. These instruments were employed in order to verify the research hypotheses and questions.

There is a classification of errors in each type of data collection based on the literature in chapter 2. Then, there is a review of various samples that illustrate the nature of the errors found in the collected data. With the intention of having a good vision of errors of the FL subjects, there is a quantitative analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Science, Version 16 (SPSS 16). There is an analysis of the types of errors and an attempt to attribute them to either the structure of L1 and FL and trace the potential influence of the MT on the TL or to FLL strategies themselves. This chapter provides data that help in identifying some errors of the subjects' interlanguage together with identifying the potential sources of those errors.

According to Ellis (2003) identifying an error requires the necessity of comparing the subjects' interlanguage sentences with correct or normal ones of the TL. Accordingly, a comparison was made between the results, the number of errors and their types between PI and UI subjects in order to find out the specific types of interference that resisted correction

and were supposed to be fossilised in PI and UI subjects. Linguistic interpretations of the results are the qualitative bases of the research assumptions.

5.2 Quantitative Analysis of Data Results

The quantitative analysis was conducted for the four types of data by holding a comparison between the results of PI and UI students in order to group the frequencies and the variations of the students' answers within the same level and across the two levels. After conducting the survey of the data collection procedures, there was an attempt to interpret the results attained from the data. It is worth mentioning that the FL language level was the base of the comparative direction of this study. The following section of this chapter assesses the results obtained in this research. The data of the research was processed and treated by the SPSS 16.

The sample size of the study was 120 students: 80 PI and 40 UI students. The collected data was coded, grouped and the results were transformed into tables and diagrams that displayed the results numerically to help answer the research questions.

5.2.1 Quantitative Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Interviews Results

In this section, there was a comparison between two different levels in order to investigate the real factors that underlie the variation in the oral production between PI and UI students. The focus of this section was on the errors committed by some Syrian students who were learning English as an FL at the HIL. Many empirical studies showed that many errors committed by the subjects in English could be traced back to their Arabic language. In the present study, the subjects were told that they were to be tape-recorded for research purposes.

It was noted that the more FL learners moved to advanced levels in their process of learning English, the more their linguistic abilities were influenced by this progress. This, of

course, led to better command in language skills and resulted in various degrees of language proficiency between one level and another. In the case of the PI and UI students, this variance was clear in the decreased number of errors in the output production of UI in comparison to those of the PI ones.

In this research, the taxonomy of Error Analysis (EA) was taken from Burt and Kiparsky (1972) which included syntactic and grammatical, lexical and phonological errors.

5.2.1.1 Syntactic/Grammatical Errors

5.2.1.1.1 Interlingual Errors

In this kind of errors, the subject resorts to his/her MT when he/she does not know the appropriate grammatical rule in the FL. These errors are because of the first language transfer. Some of the students literally translated the intended utterance from Arabic. The following errors reflect the interlingual syntactic errors. Not all error samples were included due to space limit. Because of their obvious ease in the field of terminology, the researcher did not explain them. Some errors were regarded as general mistakes because their speakers showed knowledge of those grammatical rules in other speech contexts.

The Interlingual Errors were subcategorised as follows:

1-Misuse of preposition, 2- using resumptive (returning) pronouns in relative clauses, 3- Arabic structure with English lexicon, 4- misplacing adverbs of frequency in case of modal verbs, 5- adjectives used after noun, 6- omission of dummy "it", 7- omission of relative pronoun, 8- omission of subject, 9- double negative, 10- misuse of reciprocal verbs, 11- addition of "the" because of L1 interference, 12- omission of "a" or "the" due to L1 interference, 13- misuse of "a" or "the" due to L1 interference and 14- omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference.

The following examples illustrate such sub-categorisations:

1. Misuse of Preposition

1. *Everything was difficult with me.	1. Everything was difficult for me.
2. *They interviewed with me.	2. They interviewed me.
3. *I like to do everything in myself.	3. I like to do everything by myself.
4. *To interview for me.	4. To interview me.
5. *I agree that.	5. I agree with that.
6. *I tell him my C.V.	6. I tell him about my C.V.
7. * On the first year, I didn't....,	7. In the first year, I didn't....,
8. *I didn't know what happened with me.	8. I didn't know what happened to me.
9. *I can't realise what happened with me.	9. I can't realise what happened to me.

2. Using Resumptive (Returning) Pronouns in Relative Clauses

1. *Everything I studied in my faculty it's interesting.
1. Everything that I studied in my faculty was interesting.
2. *Programming and networking it's very fantastic.
2. Programming and networking are fantastic.

3. Arabic Structure with English Lexicon

1. * Move I to Aleppo.	1. I move to Aleppo.
2. * Like Yaser said.	2. As Yaser said, ...
3. *It changes her property.	3. It changes its property.

4. * Just need time.	4. I just need time.
5. *When we stop and back to Aleppo.	5. When we stop and return to Aleppo, ...
6. *Sometimes like related to a religious site.	6. Sometimes, it is related to a religious site.

4. Misplacing Adverbs of Frequency in Case of Modal Verbs

1. *So that makes me nervous always .	1. So that always makes me nervous.
2. *But always , I think in the job.	2. But, I always think in the job.

5. Adjectives Used after Nouns

1. *I hope to improve my language English .
1. I hope to improve my English language.

6. Omission of Dummy "It"

1. * Everything happened in front of my door, not my business.
1. Everything that happens in front of my door isn't my business.

7. Omission of Relative Pronoun

1. * Everything happened in front of my door, not my business.
1. Everything that happens in front of my door isn't my business.
2. *It's the authorities may give the solution.
2. They're the authorities that may present the solution.

8. Omission of Subject

1. *Very clean country.	1. It's a clean country.
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2. *Teach students physics.	2. I teach students physics.
3. *In that occasion was a new body.	3. On that occasion there was a new body.
4. *Agreed with him	4. I agreed with him.
5. *Really is helpful.	5. Really, it is helpful.
6. *Just need time.	6. I just need time.

9. Double Negative

1. *No one don't has money there.	1. No one has money there.
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10. Misuse of Reciprocal Verbs

1. *I didn't give a lot of marks.	1. I didn't get high marks.
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11. Addition of "the" due to L1 Interference

1. * The regular people or normal people who do not study...
1. Regular people or normal people, who do not study, ...
2. *Recently the pollution is increasing.
2. Recently, pollution has increased.

12. Omission of "a" or "the" due to L1 Interference

1. *I slept for a week in hotel .
1. I slept in a hotel for a week.
2. *After month , I went every day to Homs.
2. After a month, I went every day to Homs.

3. *I hope to be professor in the university of Aleppo.
3. I hope to be a professor at the University of Aleppo.
4. *He was manager in the university.
4. He was the dean of the college.
5. *I plan to work in Islamic bank.
5. I plan to work in an Islamic bank.
6. *I studied in computer institute and graduate about ten years ago.
6. I studied at a computer institute and graduated ten years ago.

13. Misuse of "a" or "the" due to L1 Interference

1. *We don't have a chance to speak with them about our needs.	
1. We don't have the chance to speak with them about our needs.	
2. *There was a hot water.	2. There was hot water.

14. Omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 Interference

1. * People very organised.	1. People are very organised.
2. *I first in the Syrian institutes.	2. I was the first at Syrian institutes.
3. *I nervous and I was scared.	3. I was nervous and scared.
4. * He very sorry.	4. He was very sorry.
5. * It very very polluted.	5. It is very...very polluted.
6. * Mistakes so expensive.	6. Mistakes cost a lot..
7. * We still working in "safari".	7. We are still working in what we call "safari".
8. * I afraid of this.	8. I am afraid of this.

5.2.1.1.2 Intralingual and Developmental Errors

These types of errors emerge as a result of false conceptions of the learning process in addition to the natural development of the linguistic capacities of FL learners. They are subcategorised as:

1-Use of wrong tense, 2- a for an, 3- disagreement in subject and number, 4- failure to attach 3rd person "s", 5- failure to attach plural "s", 6- omitting "to", 7- misusing adverbs of quantity, 8- misusing parts of speech, 9- use of to be verb + simple form of verb, 10- to before object, 11- use of do and does before main verb, 12- Use of personal pronoun 'who' instead of impersonal pronoun 'which', 13- another for other and irregular plurals. The following examples illustrate such sub-categorisations:

1. Use of Wrong Tense

1. *I have studied secretary and now I'm studying English.
1. I studied secretariat and now I'm studying English.
2. *I went every day to Homs and come to Aleppo.
2. I went every day to Homs and came back to Aleppo.
3. *They interview me.
3. They interviewed me.
4. *I studied in computer institute and graduate about ten years ago.
4. I studied at a computer institute and graduated about ten years ago.

2. A for An

1. *Each story has a unexpected ending.
1. Each story has an unexpected ending.

3. Disagreement in Subject and Number

1. *Those reason it's enough to be...	1. Those reasons are not enough to be...
2. *There we did a lot of project .	2. There we did a lot of projects.
3. *All student get high marks.	3. All students get high marks.
4. *But our teacher are very bad.	4. But our teachers are very bad.
5. *We don't have a seats .	5. We don't have seats.
6. *I think that first year one thousands students.	
6. I think that in the first year there are about one thousand students.	

4. Failure to Attach 3rd Person "-s"

1. *It need man to think so much.	1. It requires man to think too much.
2. * This mess cost a lot of...	2. This mess costs a lot of...
3. *It change its property.	3. It changes its property.
4. *Nylon last in the environment for three hundred years.	
4. Nylon lasts in the environment for three hundred years.	
5. *It consume about twenty percent of its production.	
5. It consumes about twenty percent of its production.	

5. Failure to Attach Plural "-s"

1. *In one month, two month...	1. In one month, two months...
2. *I teach student or classes.	2. I teach students or classes.
3. *I didn't get a lot of mark .	3. I didn't get high marks.
4. *I was the first in the Syrian institute .	4. I was the first at Syrian institutes.
5. *If you want to see great buildings and great museum...	

5. If you want to see great buildings and great museums...

6. Omitting "to"

1. *I hope improve my English language.	1. I hope to improve my English language.
2. *I want learn English.	2. I want to learn English.

7. Misusing Adverbs of Quantity

1. *English's necessary not very good .	1. English is not necessary very much.
2. *It takes very a lot.	2. It takes much a lot.
3. *Islamic bank are little .	3. Islamic bank are few.

8. Misusing Parts of Speech

1. *I hope to talk to speak English fluency .	1. I hope to talk...to speak English fluently.
2. *The earth is very very pollution .	2. The earth is very...very polluted.
3. *You can be danger .	3. You can be dangerous.
4. *They make a completely projects.	4. They make well-built projects.
5. *My average is about eighteen .	5. My average is about eighty percent.
6. *People don't care about recycle .	6. People don't care about recycling.
7. *I wasn't sure about my specialist .	7. I wasn't sure about my field of study.
8. *I'm an employeer in the...	8. I'm an employee in the...
9. *It changes its physics properties.	9. It changes its physical properties.
10. *This is effect the environment.	10. This affects the environment.
11. *It was difference between here and Saudi Arabia.	
11. It was different between here and Saudi Arabia.	

12. *It consumes about twenty percent of its produce .
12. It consumes about twenty percent of its production.
13. *I'm studying Informatic Technology Engineering.
13. I'm studying Informatics Technology Engineering.
14. *There are teachers, a lot of mathematic in our university.
14. There are teachers and a lot of mathematics in our university.
15. *I am always afraid of being not successfully .
15. I am always afraid of not being successful.

9. Use of 'to be verb' + Simple Form of Verb

1. * It's stops.	1. It stops.
2. * That's make me nervous.	2. That makes me nervous.
3. *In general when sun is exist , air doesn't come so much.	
3. In general, when the sun exists, air doesn't come...	

10. 'To' before Object

1. *I returned to home .	1. I returned home.
2. *I would like to concrete .	2. I would like to do something concrete.
3. *The two professors from France come to here.	
3. The two professors from France came here.	
4. *In the future, I have to be, to be to a work in an Islamic bank.	
4. In the future, I will work for an Islamic bank.	

11. Use of 'do' and 'does' before Main Verb

1. *People who doesn't study medicine.	1. People who do not study medicine.
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12. Use of Personal Pronoun 'who' instead of Impersonal Pronoun 'which':

1. *I have a small cat who is white.	1. I have a small cat, which (that) is white.
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13. Another for other

1. *To speak with another people.	1. To speak with other people...
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14. Irregular Plurals

1. *I have three childrens and they are boys.	1. I have three children and they are boys.
2. *I checked with my parent to go out and they said it was Ok.	
2. I asked my parents if I could go out and they said it was Ok.	

*5.2.1.2 Lexical Errors**5.2.1.2.1 Interlingual Errors*

The number of PI interlingual errors constitutes 93% of the total PI lexical errors, whereas UI interlingual errors accounted for 86% of the total UI lexical errors. They can be sub-classified according to Palmer (1976), Channell (1981) and Okuma (1999) into translation and wrong collocation, assumed synonyms, confusion of binary terms and borrowing and code-switching. Because of the unfamiliarity of these terms, they were thoroughly defined. The following examples illustrate such sub-categorisations:

1. Translation and Wrong Collocation

A- Translation

What is meant by this category together with wrong collocation, which accounted for 17% of the total number of PI interlingual errors and 40% of the total number of UI interlingual errors, is that the production on the sentence level is a word for word translation from Arabic into English. The translation in this case is systematically based on colloquial spoken Arabic and on Modern Standard Arabic. If translated again into Arabic, the message would represent the learner speaking his/her own dialect of Arabic. The following errors were thought to reflect the speakers' phraseology and processing of their thoughts in terms of Arabic. The findings were consistent with Arabski (1979), Hamdan (1984, 1994), Okuma (1999) and Zughoul (1991).

B- Wrong Collocation Motivated by L1

Wrong collocation is one of the main sources of lexical errors made by Arab learners of English. Collocation seems to be a language- specific phenomenon that is each language appears to have its own collocation patterns although some of these might be similar in two or more languages. It is expected to find a great deal of interference from an MT like Arabic, which is not historically related to English, in the student's learning of the use of lexis with reference to collocation. The wrong choice of collocation in the following examples can be attributed to translation from Arabic into English and to the dependence on monolingual dictionaries that offer one word synonym without explanations or examples. This result was in agreement with that of Channell (1981), Hamdan (1984, 1994), Lenko-Szymanska (2003) and Zughoul (1991). The following errors may be ascribed to both varieties of Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic and spoken Syrian Arabic.

The following are examples of translation and wrong collocation errors from the data:

1. *A system of pumping water and <i>another</i> liquids.	
1. A system of pumping water and other liquids.	
2. *I think that this is not a <i>good</i> idea that if you keep thinking about failing, you must fail.	
2. I think that this is not a correct idea that if you keep thinking about failing, you must fail.	
3. *I don't have a lot of <i>hobby</i> .	3. I don't have a lot of hobbies.
4. *It's so <i>cost</i> .	4. It's so expensive.
5. *Mistakes are so <i>cost</i> .	5. Mistakes cost a lot.
6. *When we stop and <i>back</i> to Aleppo.	6. When we stop and return to Aleppo, ...
7...*For three hundred years, to <i>analyse</i> itself...	7...For three hundred years, to resolve itself...
8. *Air didn't come so much or <i>floor</i> .	8. Air didn't approach the ground.

2. Assumed Synonyms

Hence, the percentage of errors was 12% of the total number of PI interlingual errors and 10% of the total number of UI interlingual errors. Words that are considered synonyms especially those used in dictionaries are in fact different in meaning in some respect. The difference in meaning among synonyms may be, according to Nilsen (1975), a difference in geographical distribution, in styles or register, in collocation, in connotation and possibly some other ways. This can be demonstrated with a substitution test; for example: *Sphere, globe and orb* are broad synonyms. Any one of the three could be used in the sentence: The earth is a great.....However, if it was to talk about, for example: *a.....of influence, a map of the, a scepter and.....*, then it is seen that the three words are no longer interchangeable. In addition to the problem of specifying synonymy and differences of meaning in English, one has to be aware of the difficulty of comparison and contrast between English and Arabic. An Arab learner who uses the adjective طويل /tæwi:l/ (tall) to describe a man, a road and a tree and عالي /æli/ (high) to describe a building and learns the English

equivalents *long, tall and high* is at a loss to know which word to use in which context. Is he/she to use *mature* or *ripe* to describe a fruit and a man? Furthermore, The Arab learner of English who is dependent on the monolingual or bilingual dictionaries tends to assume that a number of related words are synonymous to the extent where they can be used interchangeably (Abu Naba'h, 2011). On the other hand, glossaries, which give vernacular equivalents of isolated English items and false analogy, are responsible for this type of error. This matches Hamdan (1994) and Zughoul (1991). The following samples are taken from the collected data:

1. *I am studying now in the fourth year in the Arabic <i>culture</i> .	
1. I am now a fourth year student at the Arabic literature Department.	
2. *He was sorry because of what he caused to <i>him</i> .	
2. He was sorry because of what he had caused to me.	
3. *And do a <i>post-graduate</i> in other countries.	
3. And do post-graduate studies in other countries.	
4. *Because in <i>first class</i> countries like U.S.A.	
4. Because in developed countries like the U.S.A., ...	
5. *May be if human <i>body</i> are being more careful about earth.	
5. May be if human beings are more careful about Earth, ...	
6. *I am in seventh <i>degree</i> in Consultation Center.	
6. I am in the seventh level at the English Language Advising Center.	
7. *I'm from other <i>country</i> , I'm from Idleb.	7. I'm from another province, I'm from Idleb.
8. *It's a <i>bit</i> problem we think.	8. It's a small problem, as we think.
9. *It's in third <i>class</i> countries like Africa.	9. It's in third world countries like those of Africa.
10. *Like Africa, or another <i>planets</i> .	10. Like Africa, or other continents.

11. *In my <i>point</i> , we ...	11. In my point of view, we should...
12. *To Russia and other <i>people</i> .	12. To Russia and other countries.
13. *There was not a new <i>item</i> .	13. There was not a new body.

3. Confusion of Binary Terms

The percentage of errors was 18% of the total number of PI interlingual errors and 0% of the total number of UI interlingual errors. According to Palmer (1976), there are lexical items that are usually categorised as "relational opposites". These words generally exhibit the reversal of a relationship between items rather than "oppositeness in meaning". Erdmenger (1985) includes these items under binary opposites such as antonyms as in 'big' and 'small', complementary relations as 'male' - 'female' and directional relations as in 'come' and 'go'. Arab students tend to confuse the use of such words and substitute one word for another. Examples of the data are as follows:

1. * <i>Him</i> interviewed with me.	1. They interviewed me.
2. *He took from me <i>anything</i> .	2. He took everything from me.
3. *I tell him about my <i>via</i> .	3. I told him about my C.V.
4. *May be on the next <i>city</i> .	4. May be in the next year.
5. *I didn't <i>give</i> a lot of marks.	5. I didn't get high marks.
6. *No, <i>I'm</i> a banking scientist.	6. No, I want to be a banking expert.
7. * <i>They</i> the future.	7. In the future,...
8. * <i>It's not</i> necessary to deal with sick people.	8. It's necessary to deal with sick people.
9. *My college is <i>recently</i> .	9. Recently, my college has been founded.
10. *In Norway, <i>it</i> consume.	10. In Norway, they consume.

11. *Computer is very <i>very</i> work.	11. Computer requires a lot of work.
12. *That will <i>stop</i> .	12. That will stop pollution.

4. Borrowing and Code-switching

The percentage of errors was 46% of the total number of PI interlingual errors and 36% of the total number of UI interlingual errors. Every word in English has a variety of meanings depending on its context. The production of lexical errors, which leads to “funny” meanings or cause incomprehensibility, has been described as "the merciless and indiscriminate fracturing, bruising and mutilation of English". (Larik, 1983, p.15). When people speak, their choice of the proper word should be made according to the appropriate meaning the word might convey within the target language context. 'Borrowing' means that the FL speaker is using a lexical item from his/her MT lexicon inventory in order to fill the lexical gaps in the TL. This is very clear at the early stages of the learning process. In this research, it is noticeable that the subjects who have used the strategy of 'code-switching' inclined to it only in the case of their lack of specific vocabulary when these vocabulary were hard for them to know as will be shown later.

However, it is assumed that this phenomenon tends to decrease as long as the student is moving forward in the TL continuum. Examples from the data are as follows:

1. * Now this problem غير موجودة [gayro mawgoda].	1.Now this problem doesn't exist.
2. * I think وضع قوانين [wadh'o qawaneen]...	2.I think that issuing regulations...
3.* There is ازالة التشجير [izalet altashgeer]...	4.There is deforestation....
4.* We don't نطبق [noṭabbeq]...	5.We don't apply...
5.* We are going to نأهل [noahhel]	6.We are going to rehabilitate

5.2.1.2.2 Intralingual Errors

These errors are classified as phonic and graphic resemblance and overgeneralisation.

The following examples illustrate these sub-classifications:

1. Phonic and Graphic Resemblance

Errors in this section shared phonic and graphic resemblance with the targeted lexeme. The subjects dragged from their passive lexical repertoire a word that shared the same phoneme or grapheme thinking that he/she had made the correct choice. These errors differed in one or two phonemes and graphemes. There is a phonemic transcription of the uttered erroneous word in the incorrect sentence. Laufer (1986) used the term 'synophones' to refer to similar errors. The following are some illustrative examples:

1. *I don't have any special <i>sings</i> /sɪŋs/ in my study.	1. I don't have any special things in my study.
2. *We just <i>sing</i> /sɪŋ/ we can clean our house.	2. We just think that we can clean our house.
3. *I <i>thing</i> /θɪŋ/ the main reason is....	3. I think the main reason is....
4. *We try to <i>trait</i> /traɪt/ the water...	4. We try to treat the water...
5. *In that way we can <i>hit</i> /hɪt/ water for all cities.	5. In that way we can heat water for all cities.
6. *I teach students or <i>glass</i> /glæs/.	6. I teach students or classes.
7. *In the future, I <i>plane</i> /pleɪn/ to...	7. In the future, I plan to...
8. *Economic is very <i>importing</i> /,ɪmpɔ:tɪŋ/.	8. Economics is very important.

2. Overgeneralisation

Richards (1992) claimed that overgeneralisation was associated with redundancy reduction. It covered instances where the learner created a deviant structure based on his experience of other structures in the TL. The writer coined new nouns, verbs, or adjectives

along the line of existing paradigms. This was in agreement with Farooq (1998), Hamdan (1984), and Zughoul (1991). The following are examples of overgeneralisation:

1. *There are teachers and a lot of mathematic in our university.
1. There are teachers and a lot of mathematics in our university.
2. *It consumes about twenty percent of its... produce .
2. It consumes about twenty percent of its...production.
3. *I'm studying Informatic Technology Engineering.
3. I'm studying Informatics Technology Engineering.
4. *In Syria we have a lots of sun in mosts days of year.
4. In Syria, we have many sunny days most days of the year.

5.2.1.3 Phonological Errors

They are segmental interlingual errors. By definition, a 'segment' is any linguistic unit in a sequence, which may be isolated from the rest of the sequence, for example a sound in an utterance or a letter in a written text. Thus, a segmental error is an error of pronunciation, which involves individual vowels or consonants. Thus, in this type of errors, learners find it difficult to pronounce the exact required phoneme in the TL, so they resort to a similar one in their MT. A detailed description of this phenomenon is found in **6.2.2.3**. The following are examples of this type:

1. * I het /het/ to say.	1. I hate to say.
2. * I want to imbrove /imbru:v/ myself.	2. I want to improve myself.
3. *I will cau /kəu/ to university.	3. I will go to university..
4. * Even the regular beoble /bi:bl/...	4. Even the regular people...

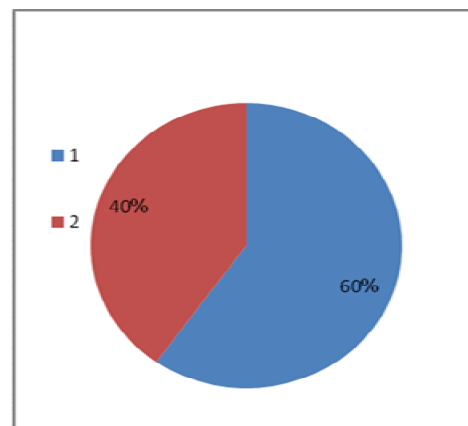
5. * I was in the <i>feftʰ</i> / <i>feftʰ</i> / grade...	5. I was in the fifth grade ...
6. * Each story has an unexpected <i>inding</i> / <i>indɪŋ</i> /...	6. Each story has an unexpected ending...

5.2.2 Statistics of PI and UI students' Interviews Results

Table 5.1 shows the general final results of the two levels' students:

Type of Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Syntactic/ grammatical Errors	262	53	176	56
Lexical Errors	188	38	100	32
Phonological Errors	45	9	39	12
Total	495	100	315	100

The distribution of the committed syntactic errors for PI and UI students is as follows:

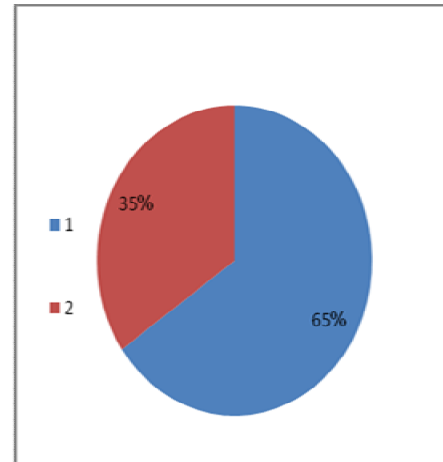


1. PI students, 2. UI students

Note: The percentage is a function of the total number of errors which is (438)

Figure 5.1 PI & UI Interviews Syntactic Errors Distribution Percentage

The distribution of the committed lexical errors for PI and UI students is as follows:

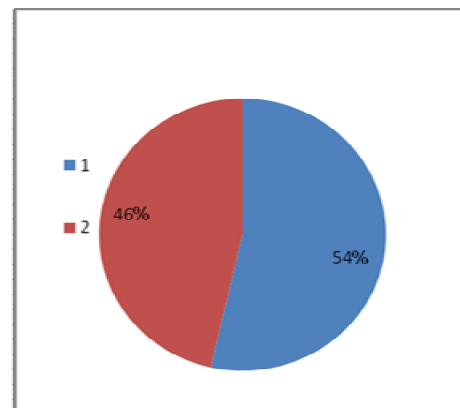


1. PI students, 2. UI students

Note: The percentage is a function of the total number (288)

Figure 5.2 PI & UI Interviews Lexical Errors Distribution Percentage

The distribution of the committed phonological errors for PI and UI students is as:



1. PI students, 2. UI students

Note: The percentage is a function of the total number (84)

Figure 5.3 PI & UI Interviews Phonological Errors Distribution Percentage

These previous figures denote that there is a general development in the language skills performance from PI into UI. The indication of these results is going to be thoroughly analysed in the linguistic analysis section.

5.2.2.1 Syntactic Errors of the PI and UI Students' Interviews Results

In the interviews, 315 deviant syntactic errors were identified and classified according to their possible sources. There will be a display of the syntactic errors classifications according to the reasons behind committing such errors. They, in general, fall under two main categories: 1. interlingual errors (negative transfer) and 2. Intralingual and developmental errors:

Interlingual Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1. Misuse of preposition	17	12%	13	12%
2. Using resumptive (returning) pronouns in relative clauses	2	1%	0	0%
3. Arabic structure with English lexicon	43	31%	25	24%
4. Misplacing adverbs of frequency in case of modal verbs	2	1%	0	0%
5. Adjectives used after noun	26	18%	19	18%
6. Omission of dummy "it"	1	1%	0	0%
7. Omission of relative pronoun	2	1%	0	0%
8. Omission of subject	5	4%	2	2%
9. Double negative	1	1%	0	0%
10. Misuse of reciprocal verbs	1	1%	0	0%
11. Addition of "the" because of L1 interference	1	1%	8	8%
12. Omission of "a" or "the" due to L1	9	6%	15	14%

interference				
13. Misuse of "a" or "the" due to L1 interference	3	2%	7	7%
14. Omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference	28	20%	16	15%
Total	141	100%	105	100%

Table 5.3*PI and UI Interviews Intralingual Errors Distribution*

Intralingual Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Use of wrong tense	39	32%	21	30%
1. A for An	1	1%	0	0%
2. Disagreement of subject and number	9	7%	8	11%
3. Failure to attach 3 rd person "s"	4	3%	0	0%
4. Failure to attach plural "s"	18	15%	20	28%
5. Omitting "to"	8	7%	2	3%
6. Misusing adverbs of quantity	3	3%	1	1%
7. Misusing parts of speech	24	20%	19	27%
8. Use of to be verb + simple form of verb	3	3%	0	0%
9. To before object	4	3%	0	0%
10. Use of do and does before main verb	3	2%	0	0%

11. Use of personal pronoun 'who' instead of impersonal pronoun 'which'	1	1%	0	0%
12. Another for other	1	1%	0	0%
13. Irregular plurals	3	2%	0	0%
Total	121	100%	71	100%

The error frequency in each language level for the interviews was calculated. Then the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis was run to see if the difference was significant. (Table 5.2) displayed the categories of interlingual errors and (Table 5.3) showed the categories of intralingual errors. The frequency of interlingual errors from PI into UI students decreased from 141 to 105.

It can be inferred from the two tables that UI students committed less errors than PI students. However, despite this general fact, UI students have committed more errors in some types than PI students. This issue will be discussed later in detail.

When *ANOVA* analysis was run, three categories of interlingual errors including, "Arabic structure with English lexicon" Sig. (.021), "adjectives used after noun" Sig. (.014) and "omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference" Sig. (.000) and one category of intralingual errors: "use of wrong tense" Sig. (.011) showed a significant change.

Table 5.4		
<i>Syntactic PI and UI students Interlingual Errors Statistics</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of errors	141	105
Mean	10.07	7.50
Std. Error of Mean	3.562	2.303
Median	2.50	4.50
Std. Deviation	13.327	8.618
Variance	177.610	74.269
Range	42	25

The *M* of PI students' errors sum is 10.07 with *SD* of 13.327, whereas the *M* of UI students' errors sum is 7.50 with *SD* of 8.618. It is clear that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' interlingual syntactic errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is implemented.

Table 5.5					
<i>ANOVA Syntactic Interlingual Errors Statistics</i>					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2307.429	8	288.429	961.429	.000
Within Groups	1.500	5	.300		
Total	2308.929	13			

The 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states, "Some errors persist throughout the two language levels". This conclusion is due to the fact that in the last table, F is 961.429, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is less than 0.05, it is concluded that the mean of variable is different.

The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum'. This table shows that although syntactic interlingual errors continue to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the syntactic command of UI students in comparison to PI ones.

The following table shows the statistics interpretation of the intralingual syntactic errors:

Table 5.6		
<i>Syntactic Intralingual Errors Statistics</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of errors	121	71
Mean	8.64	5.07
Std. Error of Mean	2.957	2.237
Median	3.50	.00
Mode	3	0
Std. Deviation	11.064	8.371
Variance	122.401	70.071
Range	38	21

The M of PI students' errors sum is 8.64 with SD of 11.064, whereas the M of UI students' errors sum is 5.07 with SD of 8.371. It is clear that there is a difference in the M between the PI and UI students' intralingual syntactic errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is implemented.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1579.214	6	263.202	153.535	.000
Within Groups	12.000	7	1.714		
Total	1591.214	13			

In the previous Table, F is 153.535, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is less than 0.05. Thus, the 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states that, "Some errors persist throughout the two language levels". Whereas the 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the M_s of the PI and UI errors' sum'. This table shows that although syntactic interlingual errors continue to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the syntactic command of UI students compared to PI ones.

Table 5.8		
<i>Statistics of Syntactic Errors (Interviews)</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of errors	262	176
Mean	9.36	6.29
Std. Error of Mean	2.275	1.593
Median	3.00	.50
Std. Deviation	12.041	8.428
Variance	144.979	71.026
Range	42	25

The *M* of PI students' errors sum is 9.36 with *SD* of 12.041, whereas the *M* of UI students' errors sum is 6.29 with *SD* of 8.428. It is clear that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' intralingual syntactic errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is implemented.

Table 5.9					
<i>ANOVA Syntactic Errors Statistics(Interviews)</i>					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3859.000	11	350.818	101.267	.000
Within Groups	55.429	16	3.464		
Total	3914.429	27			

In the last Table, *F* is 101.267, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is less than 0.05. Thus, the 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The

performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states, "Some errors persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum'. This table shows that although syntactic interlingual errors continue to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the syntactic command of UI students compared to PI ones.

In the previous tables, it is found that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the values around the UI students' sum of errors' *M* is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is expected that the UI students' errors are less than the PI students' ones. Thus, these results may be interpreted as that the UI students are better at English than the PI ones. However, this is not the intention of this comparison. The aim of this comparison is to reveal the specific linguistic errors that continue to exist from PI language level into UI language level. Thus, the analysis reveals that even the UI students had some weak points in their linguistic abilities that affect their language performance.

5.2.2.2 Lexical Errors of the PI and UI Students' Interviews Results

In the tests interviews, 288 deviant lexical errors were identified and classified according to their possible source of errors. It is important to mention that the quantification of errors does not include frequencies of individual lexical items and the types of errors are by no means exclusive; in many cases, they overlap.

The analysis of the data yields two main categories of errors: interlingual and intralingual errors. PI interlingual errors accounted for 93% and the PI intralingual accounted

for 7% of the total number of errors. UI interlingual errors accounted for 86% and the UI intralingual accounted for 14% of the total number of errors. Interlingual errors respectively take the form of translation and wrong collocation, assumed synonyms, confusion of binary terms and borrowing and code-switching. On the other hand, intralingual errors were due to phonic and graphic resemblance and overgeneralisation.

Interlingual Types of Errors	PI		UI		Frequency Sum
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	
Translation and wrong collocation	32	18%	40	46%	72
Assumed synonyms	22	13%	10	12%	32
Confusion of binary terms	34	20%	0	0%	34
Borrowing and code- switching	86	49%	36	42%	122
Total	174	100%	86	100%	260

Table 5.11					
<i>Findings of Intralingual Lexical Errors' Analysis (interviews)</i>					
Intralingual Types of Errors	PI		UI		Frequency
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Sum
Phonic and graphic resemblance	8	57%	10	71%	18
overgeneralisation	6	43%	4	29%	10
Total	14	100%	14	100%	28

Tables (5.12, 5.13 and 5.14) display the statistics of lexical interlingual and intralingual errors in addition to general lexical ones.

Table 5.12		
<i>Lexical Interlingual Errors Statistics (interviews)</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of Errors	174	86
Mean	43.50	21.50
Std. Error of Mean	14.408	9.777
Median	33.00	23.00
Std. Deviation	28.816	19.553
Variance	830.333	382.333

Table 5.13		
<i>Lexical Intralingual Errors Statistics (interviews)</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of Errors	14	14
Mean	7.00	7.00
Std. Error of Mean	1.000	3.000
Median	7.00	7.00
Std. Deviation	1.414	4.243
Variance	2.000	18.000

Table 5.14		
<i>Lexical Errors Statistics</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of Errors	188	100
Mean	31.33	16.67
Std. Error of Mean	11.929	6.941
Median	27.00	10.00
Std. Deviation	29.221	17.002
Variance	853.867	289.067

The *Ms* of PI students' lexical errors sum are 43.50, 7 and 31.33 with *SDs* of 28.816, 1.414 and 29.221 for lexical interlingual, lexical intralingual and general lexical errors respectively. The *Ms* of UI students' lexical errors sum are 21.50, 7 and 16.67 with *SDs* of 19.553, 4.243 and 17.002 for lexical interlingual, lexical intralingual and general lexical errors respectively. It is clear that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI

students' lexical errors sum. The only exception is the lexical intralingual errors. Their means = 7, which indicates that both language levels students are the same in their intralingual errors.

However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way ANOVA Analysis is implemented for general lexical errors.

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4171.333	4	1042.833	10.641	.003
Within Groups	98.000	1	98.000		
Total	4269.333	5			

In the last table, F is 10.641, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .003 which is less than 0.05. The 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states, "Some errors persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum. This table shows that although lexical interlingual errors continue to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the lexical command of UI students in comparison to PI ones.

In the previous tables, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the

values around the UI students' sum of errors' M is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is expected that the UI students' errors are less than the PI students' ones. The aim of this comparison is to reveal the specific linguistic errors that continue to exist from PI language level into UI language level. Thus, the analysis reveals that even the UI students had some weak points in their linguistic abilities that affect their language performance.

5.2.2.3 Phonological Errors of the PI and UI Students' Interviews Results

In this study, the phonological errors are segmental errors. The following table shows the distribution of phonological errors between PI and UI students.

Types of errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Segmental Errors	45	54	39	46

As mentioned in Table 5.16 above, the percentage of phonological interference errors show that PI students made 56% of the phonological errors, whereas the UI students made 46% of them. These results show that although phonological interference continues to exist from PI into UI, there is somehow a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the phonological capacity of UI students in comparison to PI ones. These results show that the research's 1st and 2nd hypotheses are confirmed which state that, "the phonological performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different" and "some phonological errors persist throughout the two language levels".

Table 5.17		
<i>Phonological Errors Statistics</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of errors	45	39
Mean	22.50	19.50
Std. Error of Mean	7.500	4.500
Median	22.50	19.50
Std. Deviation	10.607	6.364
Variance	112.500	40.500

The *M* of PI students' phonological errors sum is 22.50 with *SD* of 10.607 for phonological errors. The *M* of UI students' phonological errors sum is 19.50 with *SD* of 6.364 for phonological errors. It is clear that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' phonological errors sum.

The previous results denote that the 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The phonological performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states, "Some phonological errors persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum. This table shows that although phonological interference continues to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the phonological command of UI students in comparison to PI ones.

In the previous tables, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the

values around the UI students' sum of errors' M is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is expected that the UI students' errors are less than the PI students' ones. The number of linguistic errors is as follows: PI linguistic errors are 495, UI linguistic errors are 315. In Table 5.18, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' M is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the values around the UI students' sum of errors' M is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is found that UI students committed fewer errors than PI ones. Thus, the analysis shows that even the UI students had some weak points in their linguistic abilities that affect their language.

	PI	UI
Number of Errors	495	315
Mean	13.75	8.75
Std. Error of Mean	2.934	1.822
Median	5.50	3.00
Std. Deviation	17.603	10.929
Variance	309.850	119.450

The M of PI students' errors sum is 13.75 with an SD of 17.603, whereas the M of UI students' errors sum is 8.75 with SD of 10.929. It is clear that there is a difference in the M between the PI and UI students' errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is conducted.

Table 5.19*ANOVA Analysis of PI and UI Errors' Interviews*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9721.850	16	607.616	10.281	.000
Within Groups	1122.900	19	59.100		
Total	10844.750	35			

In Table 5.19, F value is 10.281, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is ≤ 0.05 . Thus, the 1st research hypothesis is confirmed which states, "The performance of the students at the PI and UI levels is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states, "Some errors persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states, "There are no statistically significant differences in the types of errors that the students at the two language levels commit".

A detailed linguistic analysis of the specific types of errors distribution between PI and UI students will be presented in the following sections.

5.2.3 Quantitative Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Language Proficiency Test

5.2.3.1 Quantitative Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Grammar Test

This type of language test aims to assess the degree of the PI and UI English students' FL mastery in the grammar. A comparison is going to be held between the PI and UI students' results at specific grammar items. There is going to be an analysis of these errors and whether they are due to L1 interference because of the syntactic structural discrepancy between Arabic and English.

Table 5.20 shows the final results of the two levels after multiplying the results of the UI students, so the number of students at both levels will be equal. This multiplication is due to the difference in numbers between PI and UI students:

Types of Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1. Plural-uncountable nouns	224	54%	190	46%
2. Past tense	171	60%	116	40%
3. Determiners	267	48%	292	52%
4. Quantifiers	93	61%	60	39%
5. Perfect	300	53%	270	47%
6. Passive	186	48%	202	52%
7. Prepositions	89	51%	84	49%
8. Gerunds	184	57%	136	43%
9. Conditionals	46	74%	16	26%
10. Modifiers	80	48%	86	52%
11. Pronouns	197	50%	200	50%
12. Adverbs	113	48%	124	52%
13. Word change	69	51%	66	49%
14. Modal	59	55%	48	45%

The percentage of these PI errors is presented in (Figure 5.4):

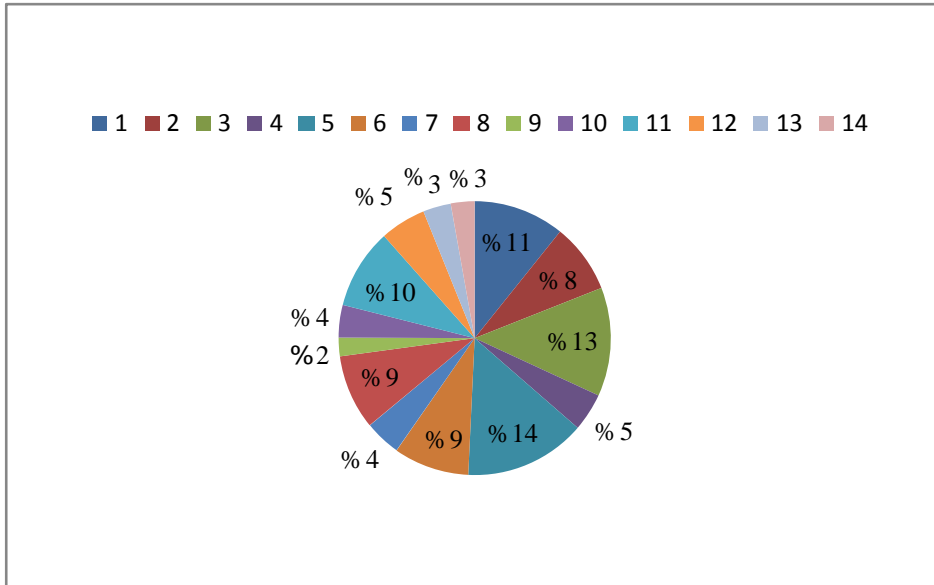


Figure 5.4 The Percentage of PI Errors in the Language Proficiency Test
1-plural uncountable nouns, 2- past, 3- determiners, 4- quantifier, 5- perfect, 6- passive, 7- preposition, 8- gerund, 9- conditional, 10- modifier, 11- pronoun, 12- adverbs, 13- word change, 14- modal

The percentage of these UI errors is as follows:

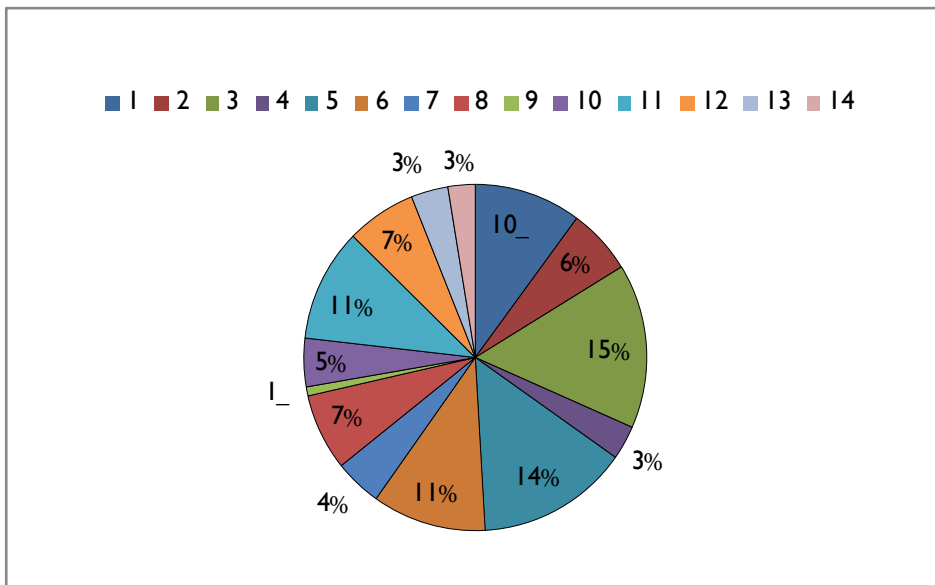


Figure 5.5 The Percentage of UI Errors in the Language Proficiency Test
1-plural uncountable nouns, 2- past, 3- determiners, 4- quantifier, 5- perfect, 6- passive, 7- preposition, 8- gerund, 9- conditional, 10- modifier, 11- pronoun, 12- adverbs, 13- word change, 14- modal

The distribution of these errors is illustrated in the following figure:

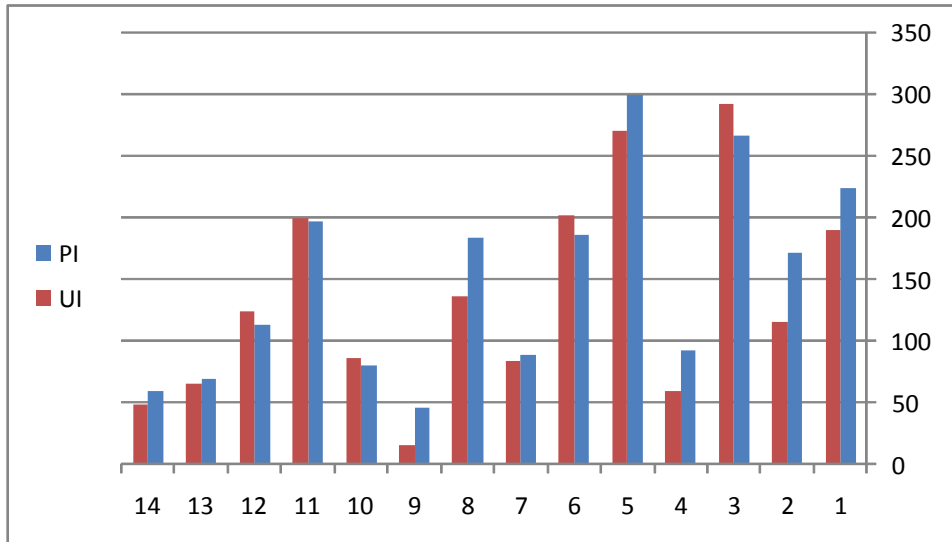


Figure 5.6 PI and UI Language Proficiency Test Errors Distribution

X axis: represents the 14th types of errors as represented in Table 5.20

Y axis: represents the number of committed errors as represented in Table 5.20

These results denote that there is a general development in the language skills performance from PI into UI. Table 5.21 displays the statistical interpretations of the last figure where the *Ms* of the PI and UI students' errors' distribution are presented:

Table 5.21

Statistics of PI and UI errors' Distribution of the Language Proficiency Test

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
PI	224	171	267	93	300	186	89	184	46	80	197	113	69	59
UI	190	116	292	60	270	202	84	136	16	86	200	124	66	48
<i>M</i>	207	143.50	279.5	76.5	285.0	194.0	86.50	160.00	31.00	83.00	198.5	118.5	67.5	53.5
Std. Error of <i>M</i>	17.00	27.500	12.50	16.5	15.00	8.000	2.500	24.000	15.00	3.0	1.500	5.500	1.50	5.50
<i>Mdn</i>	207.0	143.50	279.5	76.5	285.0	194.0	86.50	160.00	31.00	83.00	198.5	118.5	67.5	53.5
<i>SD</i>	24.04	38.891	17.67	23.3	21.21	11.31	3.536	33.941	21.21	4.2	2.121	7.778	2.12	7.77
Variance	578.0	1512.5	312.5	544.5	450.0	128.0	12.50	1152.0	450.0	18.000	4.500	60.50	4.50	60.5
Sum	414	287	559	153	570	388	173	320	62	166	397	237	135	107

1- plural uncountable nouns, 2- past, 3- determiners, 4- quantifier, 5- perfect, 6- passive, 7- preposition, 8- gerund, 9- conditional, 10- modifier, 11- pronoun, 12- adverbs, 13- word change, 14- modal

In Table 5.18, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the values around the UI students' sum of errors' *M* is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is found out that UI students' committed less errors than PI ones. The aim of this comparison is

to reveal the specific linguistic items that are transferred from Arabic into English for PI and UI students.

Table 5.22 <i>Detailed Statistics of PI and UI Students' Errors' Distribution of the Language Proficiency Test</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of errors	2078	1890
<i>M</i>	148.43	135.00
Std. Error of <i>M</i>	21.691	22.509
<i>Mdn</i>	142.00	120.00
<i>SD</i>	81.160	84.222
Variance	6586.879	7093.385

The *M* of PI students' errors sum is 148.43 with an *SD* of 81.160, whereas the *M* of UI students' errors sum is 135.00 with *SD* of 84.222. It is clear that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is carried out.

Table 5.23 <i>ANOVA Analysis of PI and UI errors' Distribution of the Language Proficiency Test</i>					
	Sum of Squares	Df	<i>M</i> Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	85629.429	13	6586.879	.677	.000
Within Groups	.000	0	.		
Total	85629.429	13			

In Table 5.23, Fischer value is .677, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is ≤ 0.05 . Thus, the 1st research hypothesis of this research is confirmed which states that, "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Grammar Test is different". The 2nd

hypothesis is also confirmed which states that, "some grammatical errors persist throughout the two language levels". However, the 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states that, "there are no statistically significant differences in the types of Grammar Test errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum'. This table shows that although syntactic errors continue to exist from PI into UI, there is a decline in the rate and frequency of occurrence of these errors. Thus, there is a development in the syntactic capacity of UI students in comparison to PI ones. Table 5.24 shows the PI and UI students' results:

	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
good = 20 errors and above out of 50	23	28.8%	48	60.0%
average = 26 errors and above out of 50	45	56.3%	18	22.5%
poor = 32 and above out of 50	12	15.0%	14	17.5%
Total	80	100	80	100%

It is apparent from these two tables that most PI students (56.3%) got the average rate, whereas most UI students (60%) got the good rate. In the last table, it is worth mentioning that those UI students who are rated as poor in their Grammar Test did not complete their tests.

Apart from the quantitative analysis, there is going to be a detailed linguistic analysis of the specific types of errors distribution between PI and UI students in the Grammar Test and the potential relation of each error type to the interference of Arabic into English.

5.2.3.2 Quantitative Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Listening Test

This type of language test aims to assess the degree of the PI and UI English students' FL mastery and acquaintance in the listening field of their general proficiency. A comparison is going to be held between the PI and UI students' errors of specific phonological items to find out whether their weakness is due to L1 interference out of the non-existence of some phonemes in Arabic.

Buck (2001) called this type of test a phonemic discrimination task in which the test-takers' task was to distinguish two words which differ by one phoneme.

Table 5.25 shows the final results of the two levels:

Types of Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1. /tʃ/ versus /ʃ/	21	68	10	32
2. /p/ versus /k/	44	85	8	15
3. /ə/ versus /u:/	18	90	2	10
4. /æ/ versus /ʌ/	30	71	12	29
5. /p/ versus /b/	39	71	16	29
6. /f/ versus /θ/	16	89	2	11
7. /s/ versus /z/	46	66	24	34
8. /l/ versus /r/	28	100	0	0
9. /n/ versus /m/	56	78	16	22
10. /æ/ versus /ɒ/	45	69	20	31
11. stress versus unstress	73	68	34	32

12. /ʌ/ versus /u:/	19	83	4	17
13. /t/ versus /ʃ/	4	100	0	0
14. /t/ versus /d/	31	72	12	28
15. /f/ versus /s/	9	82	2	18
16. /aɪ/ versus /eɪ/	35	78	10	22
17. /ɜ:/ versus /ɔ:/	10	100	0	0
18. /s/ versus /t/	19	90	2	10
19. /d/ versus /dd/	10	71	4	29
20. /e/ versus /ɒ/	15	60	10	40
21. /t/ versus /f/	12	100	0	0
22. /eɪ/ versus /ek/	11	85	2	15
23. /ə/ versus /u:/	12	60	8	40
24. /e/ versus /ɪ/	13	76	4	24
25. /ʃ/ versus /g/	5	71	2	29
26. /ɪ/ versus /ɒ/	13	87	2	13
27. /ha:/ versus /a:/	7	64	4	36
28. /i:/ versus /eɪ/	1	33	2	67
29. /f/ versus /h/	15	79	4	21

The distribution of these phonemic errors is illustrated in the following figure:

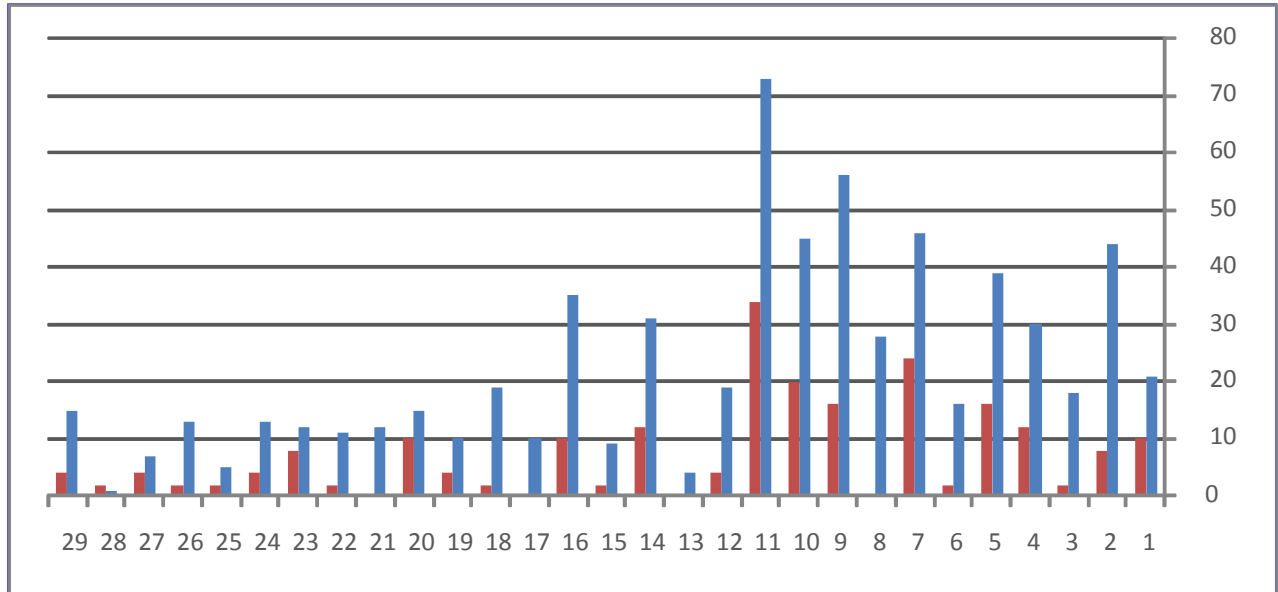


Figure 5.7 PI and UI Listening Test Errors Distribution

X axis: represents the 14th types of errors as represented in Table 5.25

Y axis: represents the number of committed errors as represented in Table 5.25

These results denote that there is a general development in the listening discrimination capacities performance from PI into UI. Table 5.26 and Table 5.27 display the statistical interpretations of the Figure 5.7 where the *Ms* of the PI and UI students' errors' distribution are presented:

Table 5.26*Statistics of PI and UI errors' Distribution of the Listening Test Part.1*

	/tʃ/ vs. /ʃ/	/p/ vs. /k/	/ə/ vs. /u:/	/æ/ vs. /ʌ/ /ɒ/	/p/ vs. /b/	/f/ vs. /θ/	/s/ vs. /z/	/l/ vs. /r/	/n/ vs. /m/	/æ/ vs. /ɒ/	stress vs. unstress	/ʌ/ vs. /u:/	/t/ vs. /ʃ/	/t/ vs. /d/	/f/ vs. /s/
PI	21	44	18	30	39	16	46	28	56	45	73	19	4	31	9
UI	10	8	2	12	16	2	24	0	16	20	34	4	0	12	2
<i>M</i>	15. 50 0	26 .0 0	10.00	21 .0 0	27 .5 0	9.00	35.0 0	14.0 0	36.0 0	32 .5 0	53.50	11.5 0	2.00	21. 50 0	5.5 0
Std. Error of <i>M</i>	5.5 00 00	18 .0 00	8.000	9. 00 0	11 .5 00	7.00	11.0 00	14.0 00	20.0 00	12 .5 00	19.500	7.50 0	2.000	9.5 00 00	3.5 00
<i>SD</i>	7.7 78 56	25 .4 56	11.31 4	12 .7 28	16 .2 63	9.89 9	15.5 56	19.7 99	28.2 84	17 .6 78	27.577	10.6 07	2.828	13. 43 5	4.9 50
Variance	60. 5	64 8. 0	128.0	16 2. 0	26 4. 5	98.0	242. 0	392. 0	800. 0	31 2. 5	760.5	112. 5	8.0	18 0.5	24. 5

Table 5.27														
<i>Statistics of PI and UI errors' Distribution of the Listening Test Part.2</i>														
	/a:/ vs. /e/	/ɜ:/ vs. /ɔ:/	/s/ vs. /t/	/d/ vs. /dd/	/e/ vs. /ɒ/	/t/ vs. /f/	/eɪ/ vs. /ek/	/ə/ vs. /u:	/e/ vs. /i/	/ʃ/ vs. /g/	/ɪ/ vs. /ɒ/	/ha:/ vs. /a:/	/i:/ vs. /eɪ/	/f/ vs. /h/
PI	35	10	19	10	15	12	11	12	13	5	13	7	2	15
UI	10	0	2	4	10	0	2	8	4	2	2	4	1	4
<i>M</i>	22.50	5.00	10.5 0	7.00	12 .5	6.00	6.50	10 .0	8.5	3.50	7. 5	5.50	1. 50	9. 50
Std. Error of <i>M</i>	12.50	5.000	8.50 0	3.000	2. 50	6.00 0	4.50 0	2. 00	4.5	1.50	5. 5	1.50 0	.5 00	5. 50 0
<i>SD</i>	17.67 8	7.071	12.0 21	4.243	3. 53 6	8.48 5	6.36 4	2. 82 8	6.3 64	2.12 1	7. 77	2.12 1	.7 07	7. 77 8
Variance	312.5	50.0	144	18.0	12 .5	72.0	40.5	8. 05	40	4.5	60	4.5	.5	60 .5
Sum	45	10	21	14	25	12	13	20	17	7	15	11	3	19

In Table 5.28, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' phonological errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the values around the UI students' sum of phonological errors' *M* is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is found that UI students' committed fewer errors than PI ones. The aim of this comparison is to show the specific linguistic errors that continue to exist from PI language level into UI language level. In Table 5.28, the sum of UI errors is multiplied, so the number of students at both levels is going to be equal. This multiplication is due to the

difference in numbers between PI and UI students because the total number of PI students is 80, whereas the total number of UI students is 40 which is half of the PI students.

Table 5.28		
<i>Statistics of Phonological Errors</i>		
	PI	UI
Number of phonological Errors	524	344
<i>M</i>	22.66	14.90
Std. Error of <i>M</i>	3.209	3.030
<i>Mdn</i>	16.00	8.00
Mode	10 ^a	4
<i>SD</i>	17.280	16.315
Variance	298.591	266.167
Sum	657	432

The *M* of PI students' phonological errors sum is 22.66 with an *SD* of 17.280. Whereas the *M* of UI phonological students' errors sum is 14.90 with an *SD* of 16.315. It is comprehended that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' phonological errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is carried out.

	Sum of Squares	Df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6813.085	9	757.009	9.295	.000
Within Groups	1547.467	19	81.446		
Total	8360.552	28			

In Table 5.29, Fischer value is 9.295, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .000, which is ≤ 0.05 . Thus, the 1st research hypothesis of this research is confirmed which states that, "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Listening Test is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states that, "some phonological errors persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states that, "there are no statistically significant differences in the types of Listening Test phonological errors that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum'.

Apart from the quantitative analysis, there is going to be a detailed linguistic analysis of the specific types of phonological errors distribution between PI and UI students in the Listening Test and the potential relation of each error type to the interference of Arabic into English.

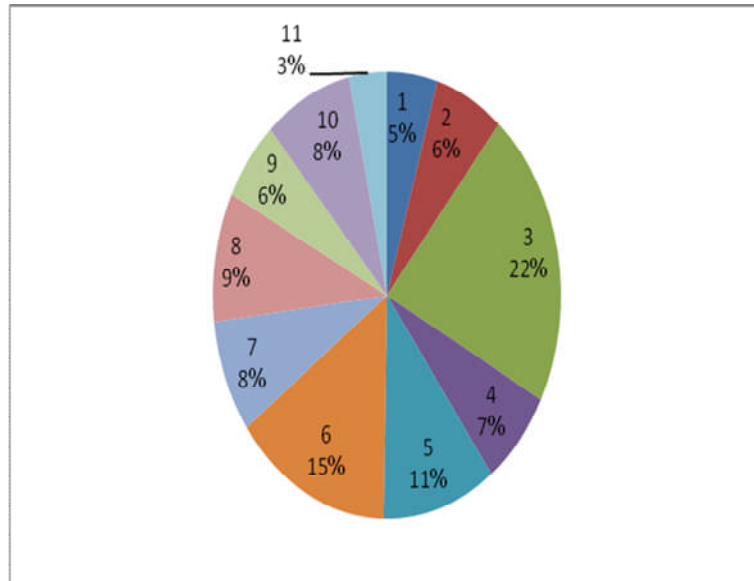
5.2.3.3 Quantitative Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Free Composition Test

This type of language test aims to assess the degree of the PI and UI English students' FL writing mastery in the syntactic and lexical fields of their general proficiency. A comparison is going to be held between the PI and UI students' errors in their compositions. Thus, this type of comparison aims to identify the various types of errors and relate them to

the language level that these students belong to and whether these errors are systematic or students' weakness is due to the syntactic structural discrepancy between Arabic and English.

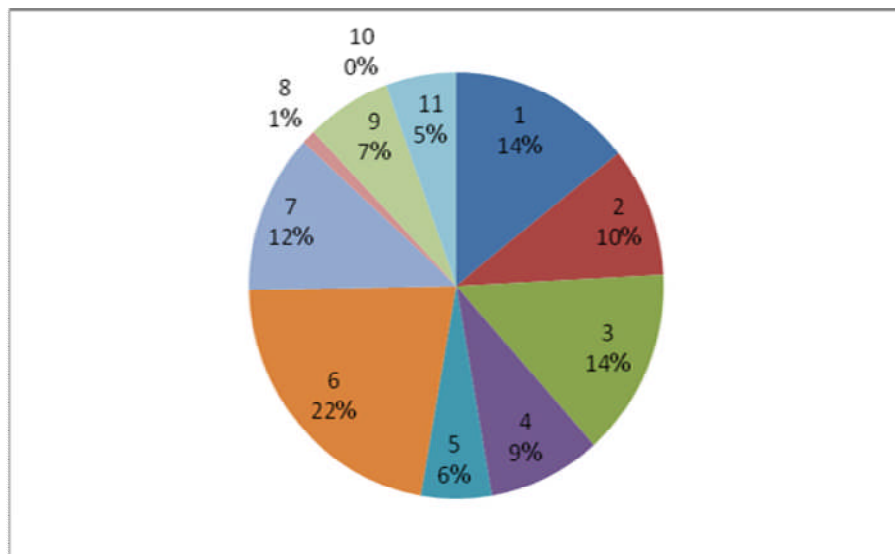
Table 5.30 shows the final results of the two levels:

Types of Errors	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1. Noun versus Adjective	8	38	13	62
2. Preposition	11	55	9	45
3. Word Misspelling	37	74	13	26
4. Word Missing	12	60	8	40
5. Plural	18	78	5	22
6. Word Change	25	56	20	44
7. Determiner	14	56	11	44
8. Past versus Present	16	94	1	11
9. Copula	10	62	6	38
10. -s Third Person Singular	14	100	0	0
11. -ing Progressive	6	55	5	45



1.Noun vs. Adjective, 2.Preposition, 3.Word Misspelling, 4.Word Missing, 5.Plural, 6.Word Change, 7.Determiner, 8.Past vs. Present, 9.Copula, 10.–s third person singular, 11.-ing progressive

Figure 5.8 The Percentage of PI Free Composition Students' Results



1.Noun vs. Adjective, 2.Preposition, 3.Word Misspelling, 4.Word Missing, 5.Plural, 6.Word Change, 7.Determiner, 8.Past vs. Present, 9.Copula, 10.–s third person singular, 11.-ing progressive

Figure 5.9 The Percentage of UI Free Composition Students' Results

The distribution of these errors is illustrated in Figure 5.10:

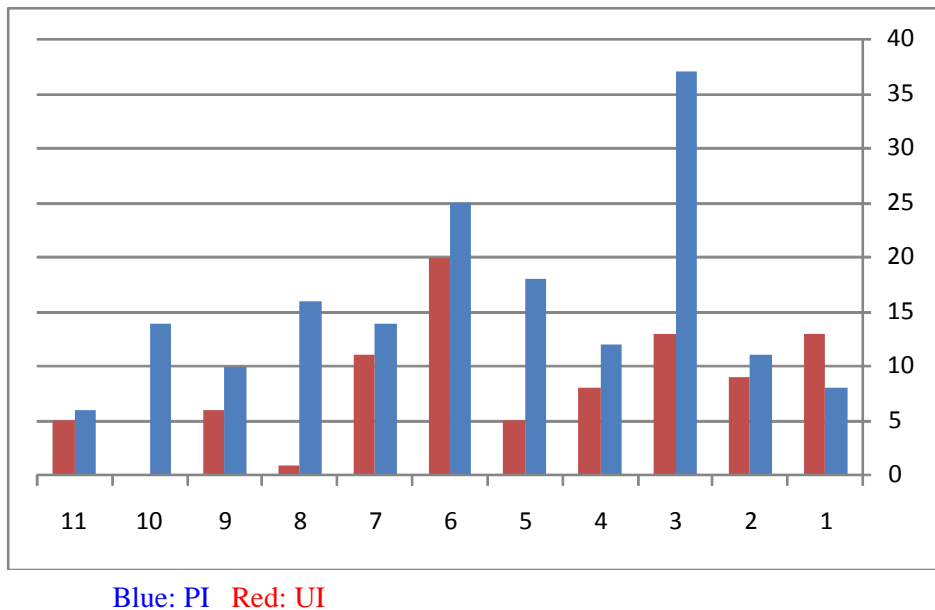


Figure 5.10 PI and UI Free Composition Test Errors

X axis: represents the 11th types of errors as represented in Table 4.30

Y axis: represents the number of committed errors as represented in Table 4.30

These results denote that in the composition test, there is a general development in some language aspects from PI into UI and there is also a decrease in other language aspects as in the 'noun versus adjective' and 'preposition'. This notion is a discrepancy to the generally held truth that the increase in language level decreases errors' rate. The reason behind such a discrepancy may be due to the length of composition for each of PI and UI students. The average length of PI students' composition is 64 words, whereas the average length of UI students' composition is 137 words, which is more than the double of PI students' one. It is the general impression that the longer the composition is the more errors are found. Thus, after presenting such a reason, it is comprehended that there is a general development in all language aspects from PI into UI.

Table 5.31 displays the statistical interpretations of the last figure where the *M*s of the PI and UI students' errors' distribution are presented:

Type of Errors		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Students	PI	8	11	37	12	18	25	14	16	10	14	6
	UI	13	9	13	8	5	20	11	1	6	0	5
<i>M</i>		10.50	10.00	25.00	10.00	11.50	22.50	12.50	8.50	8.00	7.00	5.50
Std. Error of <i>M</i>		2.500	1.000	12.000	2.000	6.500	2.500	1.500	7.500	2.000	7.000	.500
<i>Mdn</i>		10.50	10.00	25.00	10.00	11.50	22.50	12.50	8.50	8.00	7.00	5.50
<i>SD</i>		3.536	1.414	16.971	2.828	9.192	3.536	2.121	10.607	2.828	9.899	.707
Variance		12.500	2.000	288.000	8.000	84.50	12.500	4.500	112.500	8.000	98.000	.500
Minimum		8	9	13	8	5	20	11	1	6	0	5
Maximum		13	11	37	12	18	25	14	16	10	14	6
Sum		21	20	50	20	23	45	25	17	16	14	11

1. noun versus adjective, 2. Preposition, 3. Word misspell, 4. Word miss, 5. Plural, 6. Word change,
7. determiner, 8.Past versus present, 9. Copula, 10. s- third person singular, 11. ing-progressive

In Table 5.32, it is found out that the variance of the values around the PI students' errors' *M* is higher than that of the UI students. Consequently, the distribution of the values around the UI students' sum of errors' *M* is more symmetrical than that of the PI students. It is found that UI students' committed less errors than PI ones. Thus, as the analysis continues, it shows that although the UI students had some weak points in their linguistic abilities, their general performance in their composition was far more advanced than PI in content and grammar.

	PI	UI
Number of errors	171	91
<i>M</i>	15.55	8.27
<i>SD</i>	8.790	5.815
Variance	77.273	33.818
Minimum	6	0
Maximum	37	20
Sum	171	91

The *M* of PI students' errors sum is 15.55 with an *SD* of 8.790. Whereas the *M* of UI students' errors sum is 8.27 with an *SD* of 5.815. It is comprehended that there is a difference in the *M* between the PI and UI students' errors sum. However, it is not possible to determine that this difference is significant unless the one-way *ANOVA* Analysis is carried.

	Sum of Squares	Df	<i>M</i> Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	280.227	8	35.028	.142	0.001
Within Groups	492.500	2	246.250		
Total	772.727	10			

In Table 5.33, Fischer value is .142, whereas the significance of errors' sum is .001, which is ≤ 0.05 . Thus, the 1st research hypothesis of this research is confirmed which states

that, "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Composition Test is different". The 2nd hypothesis is also confirmed which states that, "some linguistic errors in the Composition Test persist throughout the two language levels". The 3rd hypothesis is discarded which states that, "there are no statistically significant differences in the types of linguistic errors at the Composition Test that the students at the two language levels commit". This is because there is a critical difference between the *Ms* of the PI and UI errors' sum.

Apart from the quantitative analysis, there is going to be a detailed linguistic analysis of the specific types of errors distribution between PI and UI students in the Free Composition Test and the potential relation of each error type to the interference of Arabic into English.

5.2.4 Quantitative Analysis of the subjects' Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire

In this section, there is a display of the linguistic backgrounds of the subjects under study. It shows their tendencies, motivation and attitude in addition to their ways of learning English and what would influence their language performance.

Table 5.34 and Table 5.35 show the male/female difference in language results and levels:

		Student's Language Level		Total
		PI	UI	
Sex of Subject	Male	44	18	62
	Female	36	22	58
Total		80	40	120

Table 5.35				
<i>Results of Students and Sex of Subject</i>				
		Sex of Subject		Total
		Male	Female	
Results of Students	good = 20 and above out of 50	26	21	47
	average = 26 and above out of 50	31	23	54
	poor = 32 and above out of 50	5	14	19
Total		62	58	120

Table 5.34 shows that male students are better than female students at their English language proficiency test. However, doing the ANOVA Test will check this notion

Table 5.36					
<i>ANOVA of Male/Female Results</i>					
Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	.718	1	.718	2.896	.041
Residual	29.249	118	.248		
Total	29.967	119			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Results of Students					
a. Dependent Variable: Sex of Subject					

Table 5.36 shows that the sig. is 0.041 which is ≤ 0.05 , thus it is comprehended that there is a difference in the results of PI and UI students in relation to gender difference in favour of male students. This notion may be comprehended if a link is established with the social dimension of the purpose of learning English for the male and female students under study. The following tables 5.37- 5.38 show the relation between sex of students and their purpose for learning English:

		Subject's Purpose of Learning English					Total
		Traveling abroad	studying abroad	getting a better job	Understanding movies and songs in English	getting good marks in English subjects at the university	
Male	Count	14	12	16	0	2	44
	Percentage	31.8%	27.3%	36.4%	.0%	4.5%	100
Female	Count	6	0	22	5	3	36
	Percentage	16.7%	.0%	61.1%	13.9%	8.3%	100%

		Subject's Purpose of Learning English					Total
		travel abroad	study abroad	get a better job	understand movies and songs in English	get good marks in English subjects at the university	
Male	Count	8	2	7	1	0	18
	Percentage	44.4%	11.1%	38.9%	5.6%	.0%	100.0%
Female	Count	2	3	14	1	2	22
	percentage	9.1%	13.6%	63.6%	4.5%	9.1%	100.0%

Table 5.37 and Table 5.38 show that the purpose of learning English for most male students (PI=31.8%, UI=44.4%) is travelling abroad, whereas for most female students (PI=

61.1%, UI= 63.6%) is getting a better job. The difference between male and female students in their purpose of learning English may contribute to the understanding of the difference in their results in favour of male students. These types of motivation are either intrinsic (derived from the personal interests and inner needs of the learner) or extrinsic (derived from external sources such as material rewards). This research shows that both male and female students are extrinsically/instrumentally motivated. However, this result shows the new socio-cultural tendencies for learners' gender differences and the change of female students' preferences into enrolling into work environment. It has been found out that despite that both genders share the extrinsic motivation, the subdivision of this motivation shows a difference between these two groups.

Table 5.39 shows the linguistic background of the students under study:

Table 5.39				
<i>PI and UI Starting Age of Learning English</i>				
	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
between 5 and 7	8	10.0	8	20.0
between 7 and 9	4	5.0	4	10.0
between 9 and 11	11	13.8	19	47.5
between 11 and 13	29	36.2	7	17.5
Above 13	28	35.0	2	5.0
Total	80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.39 shows that there is a difference between PI and UI students concerning the beginning of learning English. Most UI students (47.5%) started learning English when they

were 9-11 years old, whereas most PI students (36.3%) started learning English when they were 11-13 years old. This point may refer to the effect of the early learning of English upon the later performance of learners. The following three tables deal with the issue of the early linguistic background of the subjects under study:

Table 5.40				
<i>Setting of Learning English</i>				
	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
At home	12	15.0	3	7.5
Through private school	16	20.0	11	27.5
Through state school	50	62.5	26	65.0
Living abroad	1	1.3	0	0
Total	80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.41					
<i>In Schools Subjects only learnt English via Grammar</i>					
		PI		UI	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	49	61.3	22	55.0
	No	31	38.8	18	45.0
Total		80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.42				
<i>Subject's English Teacher Teaches him/her a lot of Grammar and Little Speaking and Writing</i>				
	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	47	58.8	20	50.0
No	33	41.3	20	50.0
Total	80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.40 shows that most of PI and UI students started learning English at state schools. This matter may contribute to the understanding of the general low performance of the subjects under study especially at the speaking level and their use of the MT. This issue may be a reflection of their teachers' excessive use of that language in teaching and the focus of their teachers upon English grammar more than general English language communication skills. This point was reflected in the students' opinion about their teachers' way of teaching English in their high schools. Last year, the Ministry of Education in Syria published new editions of English language books for all state schools levels. The new versions of these books contained a new way of teaching English language in Syria, which reflected the communicative approach. However, the subjects under study were older and learned English in the old traditional way of teaching the English language in Syria, which focused on grammar-translation activities. Thus, their early methods of learning English (their English language background) might contribute to the understanding of the excessive number of interlingual errors in comparison to intralingual ones.

The following tables 5.39-5.40 reflect the subjects' self-evaluation regarding their

English language performance and their language aspiration:

Table 5.43					
<i>Preferring Arabic Language Sometimes as a Means of Instruction during English Language Classroom Hours</i>					
		PI		UI	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	39	48.8	14	35.0
	No	41	51.3	26	65.0
	Total	80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.43 denotes that there is a difference in the preference of the MT usage during English language hours. It shows that about half of the PI students (48.8%) would like their MT to be used sometimes as a means of instruction whereas the other half (51.3%) does not like this. However, this tendency tends to change as students indulge more and more in the TL environment and turn out to be more professional. This point is seen in the tendency of UI students. Most UI students (65%) do not like their MT to be used in their English language classrooms. This matter shows that as these students feel that they start to master the TL, they become aware that their MT usage would represent a hindrance for their final English language attainment.

Table 5.44				
<i>The Difficult Part of English Language for PI and UI Subjects</i>				
	PI		UI	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid Speaking	41	51.3	18	45.0
Listening	14	17.5	9	22.5
Reading	13	16.3	3	7.5
Writing	12	15.0	10	25.0
Total	80	100.0	40	100.0

Table 5.44 shows that the subjects of both language levels share the same language problems. They both suffer from the inability to speak well (51.35% for PI students and 45.0% for UI students). However, other language problems are decreased with the passage of time as that of reading (16.3% for PI students and 7.5% for UI students). This issue may represent a dilemma for researchers because it is supposed that reading and speaking require the same nature of the ability to produce language sounds. However, speaking involves more language skills than just constructing, comprehending written graphs and uttering them. It involves the ability to recall ideas and specific words, construct them grammatically and utter them correctly. Moreover, it needs the courage to use all these aspects properly at specific occasions which is the sociolinguistic dimension of this process. In light of this finding, students should immerse more in the culture and communication of the TL in order to speak the FL fluently. This issue is explained in details in the recommendation section.

5.3 Conclusion

This chapter displays the quantitative analysis of the instruments used in this research. These instruments are interviews, Language Proficiency Test, Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire and free composition test. The errors committed are classified as syntactic, lexical and phonological errors. They are sub-classified as interlingual and intralingual errors. Statistical analysis is then offered in order to show the percentage and frequency of occurrence of these errors for PI and UI students.

Chapter VI

Discussion of the Research Findings

6.1 Introduction

This study presents a detailed qualitative analysis of each type of the collected data in the present study. Samples from the collected data are going to be presented and a comparison between the PI and UI error samples is to be made. The aim behind such a comparison is to find out the potential reasons for making such errors and relate the role of interference from L1 into FL to such errors if it exists.

6.2 Linguistic Analysis of the Data Results

6.2.1 Linguistic Analysis of the PI Interviews Results

The subjects' interviews are transcribed and their errors are highlighted, so any reader can easily identify the errors and their types. These errors are classified according to their linguistic type as syntactic, lexical and phonological. There is an analysis of two samples of each error type, so the total number of samples is going to be six types for each language level.

The errors committed by the subjects are divided into two groups: interlingual errors and intralingual and developmental errors. However, this research focuses mainly upon interference errors because they are the main focus of the present study with little reference to

intralingual and development errors. The parameters that governed the choice of samples, their analysis and discussions are found in 4.6.1.

6.2.1.1 Syntactic Errors

6.2.1.1.1 Sample no.1

The first sample of interlingual syntactic error is "*People organised there*". The correct version of this sentence is "People are organised there". This is because in English the grammatical rule is that 'Be' is a main verb when it combines adjectives and nouns. Here, this error fell under the category "omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference". The subject here committed an error that was classified as a syntactic interlingual error. That assumption was based on the ground that the notion of copula "verb 'to be' " was not found in the Arabic language syntactic structure. This was called "copula absence" in which the copula (for example English be) was absent in the present tense, so that sentences in Arabic such as 'She working' and 'He real nice' are fully grammatical (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002). In Arabic, some sentences called 'nominal sentences' do not require main or auxiliary verbs in their structures. Thus, in this context, it was realised that the subject relied upon the rules of his MT to cover his weakness or lack of knowledge about the exact rule of forming a nominal sentence. He followed the exact Arabic rule in forming the sentence as follows:

"الناس منظمون"

الناس

منظمون

(alnasó

mónazzāmwna)

People

organised

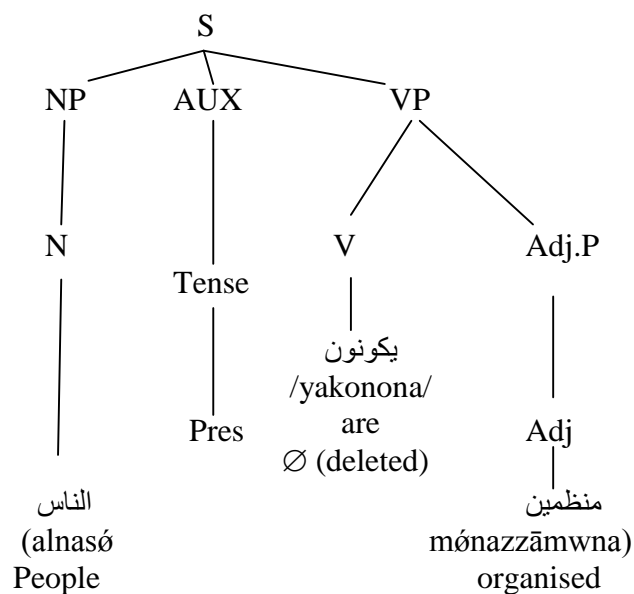
People

(are)

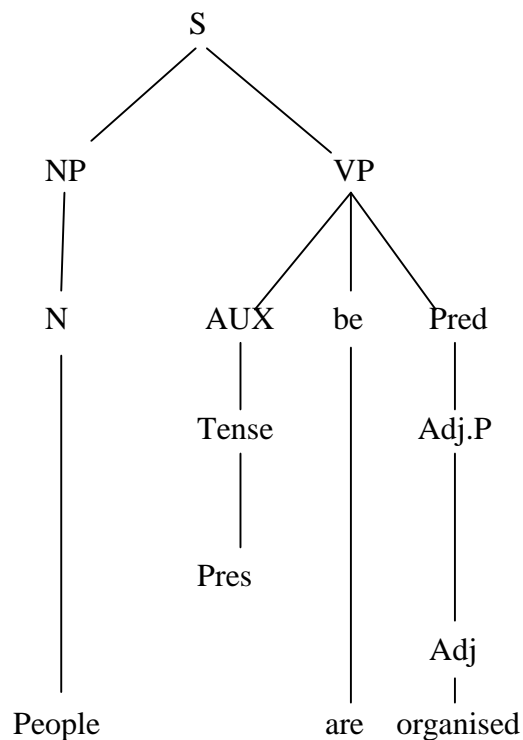
organised

In the Arabic translation of the sentence, it was obvious that there was no "verb to be", or a combining verb between the noun and the adjective. According to that Arabic rule, there was not an auxiliary verb, but in English, a copula is needed to be inserted after the subject (Wright, 1977). This loss created a contradiction for the Arab learner who was studying English. In this sample, it was noticed that there was a transfer of structure from L1 to FL. It was a kind of interference according to Dulay and Burt (1974) in which these errors showed the structure of the first language. This error can also be represented using the tree diagram of the transformational grammar, which shows the absence of the verb to be in the surface structure in the erroneous English sentence and its equivalent in Arabic.

According to Fehri (1981), in Arabic, copula verb is present at the deep structure, but it fails to do so at the surface structure when it bears the [-past] tense feature as in الشمس ساطعة (ashshamsu saṭe'a) "The sun is shining ". By contrast, the [+past] tense feature forces the copula to be present at the deep structure as in كان الناس منظمين (kana alnasó múnazzāmeena) "People were organised". When comparing the erroneous version of this sentence with its equivalent in Arabic, the exact resemblance between them is noticed. They are presented at the surface structure as follows:



However, the correct version in English "People are organised" is going to be represented as follows:



6.2.1.1.2 Sample no.2

The second sample here is "I hope to improve my language English". This error is an example of the syntactic interlingual errors in the category of "Arabic structure with English lexicon" and "adjectives used after nouns" in the "noun-adjective" arrangement. The correct version of this sentence is 'I hope to improve my English language'. This subject committed an error found regularly among Arab learners of English. This error is attributed to the notion of placing the adjective after the noun. In order to understand the origin of this error, an analysis of the grammatical structure of the Arabic sentence is to be presented. In English, to form a sentence like, 'I hope to improve my English language', the adjective "English" should precede the noun "language" whereas in Arabic, it is the reversed way. The adjective was placed after the noun as in:

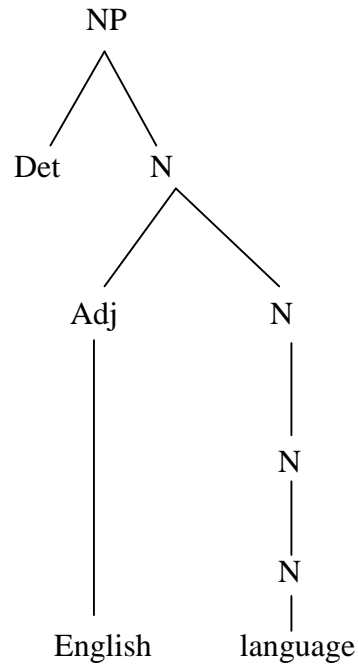
"أتمنى أن أحسن لغتي الانكليزية"

أتمنى	أن	أحسن	لغتي	الانكليزية
(atamanna	an	oħassena	logaty	al'enjilizeya)
(hope I	to	improve	my language	English)

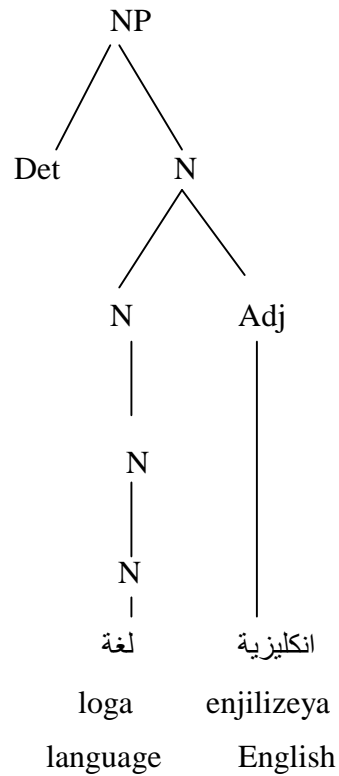
The equivalent version of the previous sentence in English is: "I hope to improve my English language". After explaining the previous rule found in Arabic, the negative transfer of structure of "adjective" from Arabic into English is noticed. This was called by Ellis (1994), a "transfer of structure". In this case, the grammatical, lexical or phonological structural strategies were transferred from the subject's MT into the acquired/target one.

There were interpretations of this subject's error. Either the learner was not fully aware of the difference between Arabic and English concerning adjective-noun order, or he knew this grammatical rule, but he failed to apply this rule to everyday language. The other interpretation is that the learner relied upon his MT strategies in order to formulate that sentence, although there was a discrepancy in the grammatical structure of this rule.

The correct version of this error in English is represented as follows:



However, in Arabic and the erroneous sentence of English, they show the same pattern of an adjective preceded by a noun as follows:



6.2.1.1.3 Sample no.3

The third sample in this type of errors is the sentence "Fourteen years ago, I have studied secretary...". The correct version of this sentence is: "Fourteen years ago, I studied secretary...". In this sample, the error was in the 'Perfect/Past' use. The subject used the present perfect tense instead of the past tense. There was a worthy-to-mention phenomenon here because during all the PI level interviews, this was the only subject who formulated a sentence in the Present Perfect Tense. However, when he used it, he committed an error in formulating it. When a comparison was made between this finding and the results of errors' distribution of PI students' Language Proficiency Test, it was found out that 14% of these errors are in the 'perfect tense' usage. This percentage was the highest among all the other types of errors. According to Hinkel's (1992) findings, Arab learners have difficulties in the perfect tense because they have a "deictic time reference" (p. 565). Abushihab, El-Omari and Tobat (2011) found that Arab learners tend to use simple past instead of present perfect. This notion is further explained below and in 6.4.2.

Although this error was generally classified as a syntactic intralingual error under the category 'use of wrong tense', it could also be traced to L1 interference. This subject committed an error in constructing the simple past tense. Although he put the time indication 'fourteen years ago', he failed to continue constructing the other components of the simple past tense. The interpretation behind such an error might be traced to the idea of 'perfect' itself. Here, the subject showed the general tendency features in the erroneous formulation of the 'perfect tense' notion. This error was justified based on the interference of Arabic into English. The 'perfect tense' notion is not found in Arabic. Thus, when the subject used this tense, he could not use it correctly. He did not show the knowledge of the specific cases in which the Present Perfect Tense might be used. Although he used the past tense indication 'ago' correctly, he could not extend that knowledge to formulate the rest of the sentence by

using the verb in its past inflection. It was supposed that the subject formulated a wrong idea of the use of the 'perfect tense' in that: "it is a tense that started in the past". He did not comprehend that this grammatical rule had a completion, which was: "although this tense started in the past, its results are still there in the present time".

6.2.1.1.4 Sample no.4

The fourth sample in this category is: "Subject: teach students". The subject here committed an error in the deletion of the 'subject' of the sentence. The correct version of the sentence is: "Subject: I teach students". This error was considered a syntactic interlingual error under the category "omission of subject". This error was also attributed to the interference of Arabic into English. To illustrate this point, there would be an explanation of this sample and an attempt to relate it to the Arabic potential interpretation. The verbal sentence in Arabic is composed of:

Verb subject object (Rest of the sentence).

However, this 'subject of the sentence' is covert and it is comprehended throughout the inflection of the main verb and it is called "حركة" 'ḥarakā' 'diacritics'. This can be illustrated as follows:

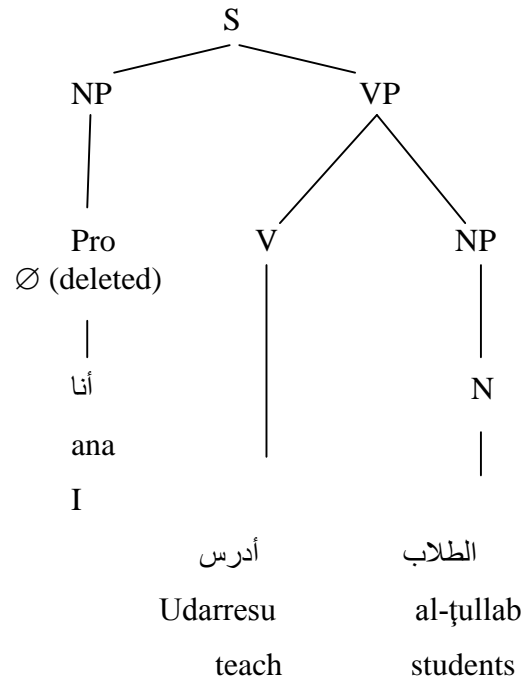
teach	X	students
أدرس	أنا	الطلاب
Udarres	ana	al-ṭullab

The subject here showed lack of knowledge regarding the rule of composing a sentence in English, which is as follows:

Subject verb object rest of the sentence

Thus, he resorted to his MT grammatical rules to compensate for this loss as has been shown above.

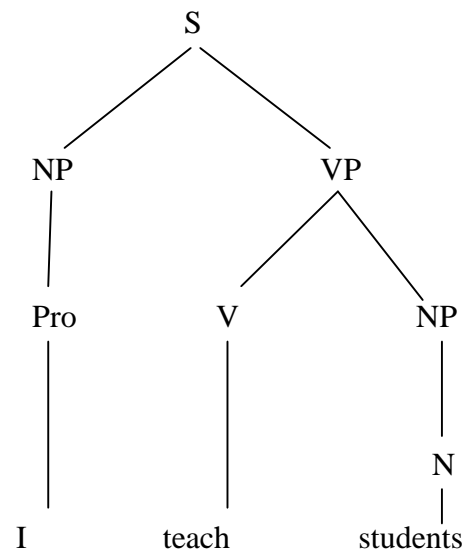
The erroneous sentence in English and its equivalent in Arabic have the same representation using the tree diagram as:



In this sample, an covert subject is there that is identified by the rich inflection in:

u-darres-u
prefix suffix

However, the correct version of the erroneous sentence in English "I teach students" is going to be represented as follows:



Arabic is considered a null subject language under the category of partial pro-drop languages. A pro-drop language is a language in which certain classes of pronouns may be omitted when they are in some sense pragmatically inferable. The phenomenon of "pronoun-dropping" is also commonly referred to in linguistics as zero or null anaphora (Haspelmath, 2001; Huang & James, 1984).

6.2.1.2 Lexical Errors

6.2.1.2.1 Sample no.1

The first sample in this category is: "I'm from another *country*; I'm from Idleb". The subject here committed an error in the use of a word assuming that it is its synonym. The correct version of the sentence is: "I'm from another province; I'm from Idleb ". This error was considered a lexical interlingual error under the category 'assumed synonyms'. It was attributed to the interference of the lexical items from the subject's colloquial MT. The subject was thinking of the word 'بلد' (balad) (country), which meant in some Syrian dialects the word 'province'. Thus, although the two hyponyms 'province' and 'country' were interchangeable in the sense that the noun 'country' was the most general word which meant 'an area of land'. It usually meant an area of land with its own government and people. However, the noun 'province' meant "one of the large areas into which some countries are divided" (Oxford

Dictionary, 1992). Thus, because of the negative transfer of the lexical item from Arabic into English, the subject failed to comprehend the specific contextual dimensions of the noun 'country'. Therefore, he applied those dimensions of the Arabic word 'بلد' (balad) (country) to that of (province) thinking that they were interchangeable.

5.3.1.2.2 Sample no.2

The second sample in this category is: "I didn't *give* a lot of marks". The correct version of the sentence is: "I didn't get a lot of marks". The subject here committed an error in the use of an antonym of a word instead of that word itself. This error was considered as a lexical interlingual error under the category 'confusion of binary terms'. Here, the subject committed an error in using the verb 'give' which meant, "to provide someone with something" instead of the verb 'get' which means just the opposite which is "to take something from someone". Here, the subject showed knowledge of what he wanted to convey, but failed to perform that correctly. An additional reason for such a choice might be due to the phonological resemblance of the first two phonemes /ge/ and /gɪ/ in the two antonyms 'get' and 'give'. Thus, the subject resorted to the closest word in his lexicon that carried the general notion of 'providing or removing provision' that was the word 'give' instead of the word 'get'.

6.2.1.2.3 Sample no.3

The third sample of this category is: ' I *thing* the main reason is....'. The correct version of this erroneous sentence is ' I think the main reason is....'. This error is considered a lexical intralingual error under the category "phonic/graphic resemblance". The subject here committed an error in the production of 'thing' instead of 'think' due to phonic/graphic resemblance with the targeted lexeme. The subject dragged from his passive lexical repertoire a word that shared the same phoneme/grapheme thinking that he had the correct choice. This

error differed in one phoneme/grapheme. Laufer (1986) used the term 'synophones' to refer to similar errors.

6.2.1.3 Phonological Errors

The erroneous samples here are various and are supposed to be attributed to the difference in the phonological systems of English and Arabic.

6.2.1.3.1 Sample no.1

The first sample here is: "I like /zɪs/ kind". The correct version here is: "I like this kind". In this sentence, the subject uttered the sibilant /z/ instead of the interdental fricative /ð/. This error was attributed to the MT interference. It was seen as a basic phonemic error of the type in which the TL had a phoneme unmatched in the phonemic inventory of the native language (Todaro, 1970). Schmidt (1987) assumed that since the phoneme /ð/ was found in classical Arabic, students who had knowledge of Classical Arabic would not face any problem in uttering this phoneme that was in their phonological inventory. However, some researchers, as Todaro (1970) and Lehn & Slager (1959), had a different perspective concerning this issue. They concluded that a person who is familiar with the /θ, ð/ sounds in classical Arabic, "he has usually substituted /s, z/ in English while labouring under the illusion that he was saying something else" (Lehn & Slager, 1959, p.28) (as cited in Schmidt, 1987). The substitution of /ð/ for /z/ and /θ/ for /s/ was often attributed to the L1 effect. That is, in the consonant inventory of Arabic dialects, the interdental consonants /θ, ð/ merged with the apico-dental (often labelled as alveolar or sibilant) /s, z/ (Watson 2002) (as cited in Ali, 2011).

Newman (2002) showed that in the colloquial varieties of Arabic, the dental fricative sounds /θ/ and /ð/ were constantly substituted by /t-/s/ and /d-/z/. There were many

manifestations of this colloquial effect upon Arab speakers learning English. They would pronounce words as *breathe* like *breeze* and *think* like *sink*.

6.2.1.3.2 Sample no.2

The second sample here is: "-* I */het/* to say". The correct version here is: "I hate to say". In this sentence, the subject uttered the diphthong /eɪ/ as the short vowel /e/. This error was attributed to the interference of the phonological system of Arabic into English. In the Arabic script, "short consonants and long vowels are represented by letters but short vowels and consonant length are not generally indicated in writing. In Arabic, 'ḥarakāt' 'diacritics' were equivalent to short vowels in English. They were positioned above or below consonants or throughout written long vowels as "أ" /a:/, "ي" /i:/ and "و" /u:/ (Versteegh, 1997).

Diphthongs were created every time you had a short vowel preceding the semivowels و (w) and ي (y) as in يوم (yawm) (day) and بيت (bayt) (house). However, the absence of clear diphthong and triphthong created real problems for Arab learners who were studying English. Thus, the subject was thought to resort to his/her MT phonological system to pick up a close short or long vowel instead of the diphthong or triphthong. In our case, the subject selected the short vowel /e/ for the diphthong /eɪ/. Mitchell (2004) stated that "the diphthongal feature is absent from the Arabic speech sound system" (as cited in Ali, 2011, p. 3). In colloquial Arabic, /e/ was recognised as a condensed shape of /eɪ/, whilst (o) was a shortened shape of /aʊ/ and often realised as /ʊ/. (Munro, 1993)

In the production of English vowels, Arab learners of English showed an exaggeration of duration differences between short (lax) and long (tense) vowels (Munro, 1993). Moreover, it was viewed that Arab learners uttered the native-like ordering of vowel duration for front vowels, but the order concerning the back vowels was different due to MT transfer (Mitleb, 1981). English /e/ was diphthongal in stressed positions. An Arab speaker is likely not to hear

the [-j] off-glide. This is why he/she may confuse the diphthong in bait with the shorter vowel in bet. In our sample here, the Arab subject did not utter the /i/ off-glide. This matter would explain why he confused the diphthong /eɪ/ with the shorter vowel /ɪ/ (Catford, Palmer, McCarus, Moray and Snider, 1974:21).

According to Kopczynski and Meliani (1993), the distinctive feature between the Arabic short and long vowels was quality and here it was length. Thus, "all other features such as tenseness and laxness, more or less peripheral articulation, roundness versus unroundness can be taken redundant" (p.188). However, English had a series of similar, proportional oppositions, which were taken in terms of quality rather than quantity. They concluded that Arab speakers would perceive and produce the English oppositions in terms of length.

This notion was advocated by Makarova (2010) who stated that:

The L1 system is seen as exerting a powerful influence on the way that L2 category is processed. In particular, the degree of similarity between the L2 and the closest L1 phonetic category is seen as directly responsible for the success of the L2 speaker in being able to perceive and produce the non-native sounds more accurately. (p.37)

This error might also be attributed to lack of sufficient knowledge of the TL phonological system. Thus, in the recommendation section of this research, there are some recommendations, so that teachers of English would enhance their students' English phonological capacities.

6.2.1.3.3 Sample no.3

The third sample of this category is: 'I am a professor in microbiology /disi:s/'. The correct version of this sentence is: 'I am a professor in microbiology disease'. This subject committed an error of pronouncing the final phoneme /z/ as /s/ without realising the specific phonetic rule of pronouncing it. Here, the final phoneme /z/ of the word 'disease' was pronounced by the subject as the phoneme /s/. The phoneme /s/ was characterised as 'a voiceless alveolar fricative', whereas the second one /z/ was 'a voiced alveolar fricative'. Thus, the only difference between the two phonemes was the strength of air pressure as in /s/ and the weakness of the other one, which was /z/. This error was attributed to the fact that this subject relied on his MT phonetic rules of pronouncing a consonant. In Arabic, any consonant was pronounced as it was written, whereas consonants in English were pronounced according to their position at the onset, middle, or end of a word and their phonetic rules that governed their methods of pronunciation. Thus, applying MT rules of pronunciation in addition to lack of phonetic knowledge that would govern such English phonetic rules could be the reasons behind committing such an error.

6.2.1.3.4 Sample no.4

The fourth sample of this category is: * "It's *amportant* /əmpɔ:tənt/ for me". The correct version of this sentence is: "It's important /Impɔ:tənt to me". In this error, the subject pronounced the close, front, short vowel /ɪ/ as the open, back short vowel /a/. She changed the vowel quality as had been mentioned above. According to El-Hassan (1991), this phonological modification was due to interference from the established habits of Arabic pronunciation.

6.2.2 Linguistic Analysis of the UI Students' Interviews Results

At this stage, there will be a presentation of various samples, but their interpretation is almost similar to those in the previous sections. Thus, the researcher is not going to repeat the same interpretation. There will be a reference to the interpretation for each sample if it is identically related to a similar one.

6.2.2.1 Syntactic Errors

6.2.2.1.1 Sample no.1

The first sample of syntactic errors is: 'I think the teachers not good'. The correct version of this sentence is 'I think the teachers are not good'. For the interpretation of this error, please see (6.2.1.1.1).

6.2.2.1.2 Sample no.2

The second sample focuses upon misuse of the determiner as in the following three samples:

1. I changed into **really** bad student.
2. It's **American** style of questions.
3. Each story has **unexpected** ending.

In these samples, the subjects committed three types of errors in the erroneous use of determiners. These sentences shared what was called "determiner omission". They were classified as syntactic interlingual errors.

The correct versions of these sentences are as follows:

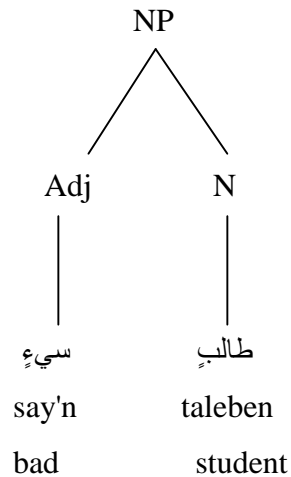
1. I changed into a bad student.
2. It's the American style of questions.
3. Each story has an unexpected ending.

In these samples, the subjects committed three types of errors in the erroneous use of determiners. These sentences shared what was called "determiner omission". This error was due to the fact that the definite article "the" and the indefinite article "a/an" created difficulties because of the absence of obvious indefinite article in Arabic and the different use of the definite article 'ال' /al/ (the) in Arabic from its use in English. In Arabic, the indefinite noun was marked by having the noun without any visible article, especially when one wrote in Arabic alphabet, but there was a small modification, however, attached at the end of the word, called nunation (adding the suffix "un") as in 'a house = bait +un = baitun بيتٌ'. An indefinite article was generally translated into English using the article 'a'. In other words, Arabic has no separate visible article equivalent to 'a/an'. To make these nouns definite, the tanwīn was removed and the particle /al/ was added which was referred to as al al-taʿryf (instrument of definiteness) to the beginning of the word. This was generally translated using the word 'the'. The first erroneous sentence has an Arabic equivalent as follows:

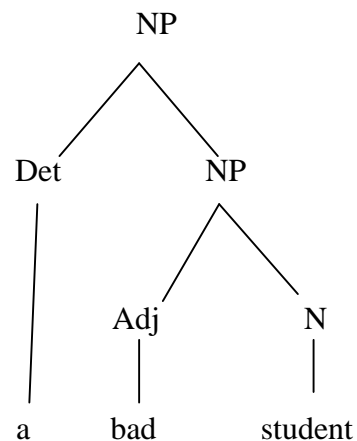
I	changed	into	bad	student
أنا	تحولت	إلى	سيء	طالب
ana	tahawwalto	ela	say'n	taleben

The correct version of that erroneous sentence is: "I changed into a bad student". The absence of an article in the Arabic equivalent of sentence no.1 was an indicator that 'student' was indefinite. Therefore, although such definite and indefinite articles errors were generally classified as intralingual errors, here this error was attributed to L1 transfer into FL. Moreover, definiteness and indefiniteness had different distribution in the two languages, for example, a noun used with a definite article in Arabic might be indefinite in English.

The erroneous sentence in English and its equivalent in Arabic have the same representation using the tree diagram as:



Nevertheless, the correct version of the erroneous sentence in English "a bad student" is going to be represented as follows:



6.2.2.1.3 Sample no.3

The third sample of syntactic interlingual errors is: 'The major reason is the bad investment **to** our resources'. The correct version of this sentence is 'The major reason is the bad investment **of** our resources'. The subject here committed an error in the translation of the

preposition from Arabic into English without taking into consideration the exact rule that controlled the appropriate use of prepositions in English. The translation of the preposition 'to' was 'ل' /li/. So, in order to comprehend fully this error, an analysis of the erroneous sentence, its Arabic equivalent and the correct version are going to be presented as follows:

The major reason is the bad investment **to** our resources

الرئيسي السبب هو السيئ الاستثمار ل مواردنا

السبب الرئيسي هو الاستثمار السيئ ل مواردنا

Alsababø alræeysyu hwa alestethmarø alsayāu li mawaredena

The major reason is the bad investment of our resources

This type of errors was considered as interlingual syntactic errors. The reason of this error was the exact translation of the preposition from Arabic into English. Al-Haidari (1984) and Meziani (1984) found that English prepositions of recipient/target, time, destination and cause/purpose were, respectively, the most problematic for the Arabic speaking learners.

6.2.2.2 Lexical Errors

6.2.2.2.1 Sample no.1

The first sample here is: منشأة [Mønshaet] (institution) Al-Assad Project...'. The correct version of this sentence is 'the institution of Al-Assad Project...'. The subject here made a repeated and common error by any FLL, which was the use of a word of his/her MT in the context of speaking in the language that he/she was learning. This error was considered an interlingual lexical error. This phenomenon was due to the desire of the subject to compensate for his/her lack of knowledge of the meaning of that word. This phenomenon was known as 'borrowing'. Borrowing was considered as a lexical error from L1 into FL. Interference at a

lexical level is the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another (Nayak, 2009).

6.2.2.2.2 Sample no.2

The second sample in this category is: 'My marks did not *allow* me to...'. The correct version of this sentence is 'My marks did not permit me to...'. This error was classified as a 'translation' lexical interlingual error. In this sentence, the subject's choice of 'allow' instead of "permit" was due to the fact that the student was mentally formulating his sentence in Arabic and translating it into English. He was thinking of the word /tasmaḥ/ which was normally used to convey the meaning in this context when talking about giving permission; however, he ignored the sociolinguistic aspect of the word 'permit' which was used "to give someone an official permission to do something" (Czech, 2000) and in this specific context, it was to have the permission to enrol into the college.

6.2.2.2.3 Sample no.3

The third sample in this category is: 'I am studying now in the fourth year in the Arabic *culture*'. The correct version of this erroneous sentence is 'I am studying now in the fourth year in the Arabic Literature'. This error was classified as a lexical interlingual error under the category of 'assumed synonyms'. In this sentence, the subject made an error in placing a lexical item for another. Thus, she placed 'culture' instead of 'literature'. The reason behind making such an error could be attributed to the interference of the MT. This was interpreted on the ground that this subject did not know the meaning of the word 'literature' in English or she knew it, but she could not recall it. However, it was supposed that she knew a word that was similar to that word in meaning and pronunciation of the final part of the word, which was 'culture'. In this context, the subject connected two concepts that are 'literature' and

'culture' in Arabic. These concepts were interrelated under the category of 'forms of civilisation'. Since she knew the meaning of the word 'culture', she supposed that using this word would convey the message that she wanted instead of the word 'literature'. An FL user escaped to her/his native language when he/she failed to find the appropriate lexeme in her/his interlanguage lexical repertoire, thus he/she searched for a form that was equal or nearly so to his/her conceptual translation of the target element, which might turn out to be deviant from the FL norms.

6.2.2.3 Phonological Errors

The erroneous samples here are various and are supposed to be attributed to the difference in the English and Arabic phonological system.

6.2.2.3.1 Sample no.1

The first sample of this category is: 'Now *beeble* /bi:bl/ usually have...may be a wrong image'. The correct version of this phonological error is: 'Now people usually have...may be a wrong image'. In this type of errors, the subject used a phoneme /b/ instead of another one /p/. This subject committed a repeated error that was made by Arab learners of English. In this type of errors, the subject used the phoneme /b/ instead of /p/. The first phoneme was characterised as 'a bilabial voiced plosive phoneme', whereas the second as 'a bilabial voiceless plosive phoneme'.

Many interpretations were behind such an error. According to (Flege and Port, 1981), the initial /p/ in our sample here might have often been heard as [b] both because its "VOT was very short and because glottal pulsing frequently occurred during the closure interval" (p.142). This error was attributed to many factors. Many researchers explained that /p/ and /b/ did not constitute separate phonemes in Arabic. (Catford, et al., 1974) showed that: "the

voiceless stop [p] occurs only as an allophonic variant of the voiced /b/ (p.14). The error here was attributed to the difficulty of distinguishing /p/ and /b/ as separate phonemes and in learning proper pronunciation of /p/. Moreover, in the exact case of this sample, the voiceless stop /p/ came at the initial position of the word, which constituted a real problem for Arab learners of English: "Arabs often muffle the distinction between /p/ and /b/ at this position, thus they appear to have the same initial articulation" (Catford, et al., 1974, p.14). Here, /b/ was phonemic in English, that was distinctive because it affected meaning, but the difference in Arabic was phonological, "that is non-phonemic, non-functional, or non-distinctive because it does not affect meaning" (Alkhuli, 1997, p. 4).

It was found that the more advanced students did not commit such an error. However, they were still unable to produce /p/ in a native-like voice onset time (VOT). This notion was explained that Arabic speakers produced /p/ with longer stop closure duration than they did for /b/. This was analogous to the timing contrast that existed in Arabic between voiced and voiceless stop consonants. Native Arabic production of /t/ and /k/ had longer closure durations than those of /d/ and /g/. Native Arab speakers seemed to comprehend that /p/ was analogous to /b/ in the same way that /t/ was to /d/, thus producing the /p/ with glottal pulsing (Flege and Port, 1981). This was advocated by Flege (1980) who claimed that speakers of languages as Arabic with short-lag voiceless stops had problems in learning the long-lag voiceless stops of English; typically they were found to utter the English stops with VOTs that were too short, under influence of their L1 voiceless stops.

6.2.2.3.2 Sample no.2

The second sample here is: 'In the fifth /græd/'. The correct version here is: "In the fifth grade'. In this sentence, the subject uttered the diphthong /eɪ/ as the short vowel /æ/. This

error was attributed to the interference of the phonological system of Arabic into English. For the interpretation of this error, please see (6.2.1.3.2).

6.2.2.3.3 Sample no.3

The third sample of this category is: 'I first want to go to improve my myself /maiseiv/'. The correct version of this sentence is: 'I first want to go to improve my myself'. This subject committed an error of pronouncing a phoneme as it was without realising the specific phonological rule of pronouncing it. Here, the final phoneme /f/ of the word 'myself' was pronounced as the phoneme /v/. The alveolar /v/ does not exist in Arabic, therefore, the learner here experienced difficulty in pronouncing it as a separate phoneme from /f/.

6.3 Interpretation of PI and UI Students' Interviews Results

In (Table 5.4), there is a difference in the *Ms* between PI and UI. This hypothesis is verified and confirmed. In this perspective, it is found that UI students committed less errors than PI ones. According to the types of errors, it is obvious that interference does exist in both PI and UI levels. It is also obvious that the percentage of syntactic, lexical and phonological errors is almost the same in both levels. However, when a comparison is made among the particular types of these errors as past, plural...etc, it is found that there is a significant difference in these errors between PI and UI students.

6.3.1 Interpretation of the Syntactic Errors

The syntactic errors comparison between PI and UI is as follows:

As indicated in (Table 5.2) concerning syntactic interlingual errors, the percentage of "Arabic structure with English lexicon" was the highest for PI students with 31 % (f=43)

which was decreased to 24 % (f=25) for UI students. "Omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference" also decreased from 20% (f=28) for PI students to 15% (f=16) for UI students. "Adjectives used after noun" was the same 18% (f=26) for PI students and 18% (f=19) for UI students. In "misuse of prepositions" there was no change 12% (f=17) for PI students and 12% (f=13) for UI students. "Omission of 'a' or 'the' due to L1 interference" increased from 6% (f=9) for PI students to 14% (f=15) for UI students. "Omission of subject" decreased from 4% (f=5) for PI students to 2% (f=2) for UI students. The following types of errors decreased from 1% (f=1/2) for PI students to 0% (f=0) for UI students: "Using resumptive (returning) pronouns in relative clauses", "misplacing adverbs of frequency in case of modal verbs", "omission of dummy 'it' ", "omission of relative pronoun", "double negative" and "misuse of reciprocal verbs", "Addition of "the" because of Arabic interference". In the category "misuse of 'a' or 'the' due to L1 interference" there was an increase from 2% (f=3) for PI students to 7% (f=7) for UI students. The percentage distribution of interlingual errors for PI and UI students was 57% (f=141) for PI students and 43% (f=105) for UI students.

(Table 5.3) suggested that some intralingual errors increased despite the advanced level of UI students in comparison to PI students. This notion will be further explained later. "Use of wrong tense" decreased from 32% (f=39) for PI students to 30% (f=21) for UI students. "Misusing parts of speech" increased from 20% (f=24) for PI students to 27% (f=19) for UI students. "Failure to attach plural 's' " increased from 15% (f=18) for PI students to 27% (f=19) for UI students. "Failure to attach 3rd person 's' " decreased from 3% (f=4) for PI students to 0% (f=0) for UI students. "Disagreement of subject and number" increased from 7% (f=9) for PI students to 8% (f=11) for UI students. "Omitting 'to' " decreased from 7% (f=8) for PI students to 3% (f=2) for UI students. "Misusing adverbs of quantity", "use of to be verb + simple form of verb" and "to before object" decreased from 3% (f=3), 3% (f=3) and 3% (f=4) respectively for PI students to 1% (f=1), 0% (f=0) and 0% (f=0) respectively for UI

students. "A for an", "use of do and does before main verb", "Use of personal pronoun 'who' instead of impersonal pronoun 'which' ", "another for other" and "irregular plurals" also decreased from 1% (f=1), 2% (f=3) and 1% (f=1), 1% (f=1) and 2% (f=3) respectively for PI students to 0% (f=0) for UI students. The percentage distribution of intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 63% (f=121) for PI students and 37% (f=71) for UI students.

The percentage distribution of interlingual and intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 60% (f=262) for interlingual errors and 40% (f=176) for intralingual errors.

As the analyses of errors suggested both in the PI and UI students, the percentage of interlingual errors was higher 60% (f=262) for interlingual errors and 40% (f=176) for intralingual errors. Therefore, 60% of all errors rooted from the interference of the MT. However, the percentage distribution of interlingual errors for PI and UI students was 57% (f=141) for PI students and 43% (f=105) for UI students. The percentage distribution of intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 63% (f=121) for PI students and 37% (f=71) for UI students. The advance of language level was less effective for interlingual than for intralingual errors; interlingual errors decreased by only 14% while intralingual errors by 26%).

For interlingual errors, based on the data, the frequency of "Arabic structure with English lexicon", "omission of subject" and "omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference" decreased rapidly from PI to UI students due to the students' mental comprehension of the differences between their MT and the FL. UI students' language was developed and less interference was found. Nonetheless, the exceptions of this rule were "addition of 'the' because of L1 interference", "omission of 'a' or 'the' due to L1 interference" and "misuse of 'a' or 'the' due to L1 interference". These three types were under the general category of "determiners' errors". The interpretation of these errors are found in 6.2.2.1.2.

For intralingual errors, based on the data, the frequency of most of errors' types decreased for UI students due to their comprehension of the specific grammatical rules and their appropriate use. However, in "failure to attach plural 's' ", there was an increase in errors frequency for UI students.

The interpretation of these four exceptions was probably due to the type of interlanguage that each type of students uttered. The tape-recordings showed that the language that PI students used was different from that of UI students. The UI students' use of language was lengthy and confident. They used complex forms of clauses, auxiliaries and conjunctions. In contrast, PI students' language was short and it contained content words more than function words as determiners, conjunctions and auxiliaries. This kind of PI's language showed a kind of avoidance in using complex or lengthy forms of sentences in their discourse. The tree diagram representation of the syntactic erroneous utterances clearly showed that these errors were due to the fact that the subjects had used parameters in their FL similar to those of their MT.

6.3.2 Interpretation of the Lexical Errors

The quantitative comparison of lexical errors between PI and UI students is as follows:

As indicated in (Table 5.6), the percentage of "borrowing/code-switching" was the highest for PI students with 49% (f=86) which decreased to 42% (f=36) for UI students. "Confusion of binary terms" also decreased from 20% (f=34) for PI students to 0% (f=0) for UI students. "Assumed synonyms" decreased from 13% (f=22) for PI students to 12% (f=10) for UI students. The only exception was in the category "translation/wrong collocation" which had an increase from 18% (f=32) for PI students to 46% (f=40) for UI students. The

percentage distribution of interlingual errors for PI and UI students was 67% (f=174) for PI students and 33% (f=86) for UI students.

(Table 5.7) suggested that despite the advanced level of UI students in comparison to PI students, some intralingual errors increased. "Phonic/graphic resemblance" increased from 57% (f=8) for PI students to 71% (f=10) for UI students. "Overgeneralisation" decreased from 43% (f=6) for PI students to 29% (f=4) for UI students. The percentage distribution of intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 50% (f=14) for PI students and 50% (f=14) for UI students.

As the analyses of errors suggested both in the PI and UI students, the percentage of interlingual errors was higher 90% (f=260) for interlingual errors and 10% (f=28) for intralingual errors. Therefore 90% of all errors rooted from the interference of the MT. Nevertheless, the advance of language level was less effective for intralingual than for interlingual errors.

For interlingual lexical errors, the reasons behind the large number of translation/wrong collocations for UI students 46% in comparison to PI students 18% might be due to the fact that UI learners had a relatively large stock of TL vocabulary. Hence, they might think it would be easy for them to find equivalents to their MT collocations. The reduction of other lexical interlingual types of errors between PI and UI as "assumed synonyms", "confusion of binary terms", "borrowing/code-switching" was expected because of the linguistic development of the UI students and less interference was found. It was an indication that UI students started to use the TL lexical items more than those of the MT and that their lexical inventory was more developed than those of PI students. This reduction also showed that UI students were more aware of the appropriate inflection of the parts of speech as nouns, adjectives and verbs and their appropriate position within the sentence. It was not surprising that PI students who had limited experience in English might face difficulties

expanding and using vocabulary appropriately in different contexts.

The interpretation of the huge number of interlingual errors might be due to the notion of transfer from Arabic into English because of "the numerous incongruities between the semantic networks" (Cha, 2009, p.67) of Arabic and English and the learners who relied heavily on their MT to generate English constructions did not know these semantic differences. This was not surprising in the sense that the language to be learned was always seen through the filter of the acquired rule system of the MT. PI students' language showed a kind of avoidance in using complex lexical items or lengthy forms of sentences in their discourse because of their lack of knowledge for such lexical items.

Intralingual errors were very few; they formed only 10% of the total number of lexical errors. The equal results of both PI and UI students showed that these students followed the same learning strategies that they employed to speak English and their competence at a particular stage of language learning.

6.3.3 Interpretation of the Phonological Errors

The comparison between PI and UI students in their phonological errors showed that they were almost the same. This notion indicates that students in both levels were not developing their TL phonological system appropriately. Therefore, interference of the MT was so common concerning the unfamiliar or non-existing phonological forms. In such a case, according to Al-Jarf (2007), the interpretation of this phenomenon was attributed to the transfer of the Arabic spelling system to English, which was due to the difference in orthographic complexity between English and Arabic. Arabic spelling is mainly phonetic and there is a close relationship between spoken phonemes and written graphemes. There is a one-to-one correspondence between phonemes (spoken sounds) and graphemes (written symbols). Each consonant and each vowel has only one sound. Freshmen students in general and poor

spellers in particular pronounced English words with a non-phonetic spelling the way those words were pronounced. Insufficient exposure to the English phonetic system and unfamiliarity with the differences between the English and Arabic phonetic systems might add up to the FL pronunciation difficulty especially for PI students.

6.4 Linguistic Analysis of the PI and UI Language Proficiency

Test Results

The general view of the specific types of errors and their distribution between PI and UI students denoted that these errors were similar somehow and that there was no real development from PI level into UI one. The results of the errors showed that there was a higher development in the UI students in comparison to PI students. In this section, the researcher linguistically analyses the three most recurring errors of the PI and UI students in the Language Proficiency Test that would be attributed to L1 interference. There will be a presentation of two samples of each language level, so the total number of the analysed samples will be four.

As has been shown in (Table 5.20), the most three recurring errors among PI students are perfect, determiners and plural-uncountable nouns. Whereas, the most three recurring errors among UI students are determiners, perfect and passive. Following are the four samples respectively:

6.4.1 Sample One

* "A computer is essentially as efficient means of processing (informations, an information, information)". This answer of the student is erroneous and the correct version is

"A computer is essentially an efficient means of processing (informations, an information, information)". This error was attributed to the interference of the MT. In English, there were special nouns that were not normally countable in other languages (and are, therefore, used in the singular and plural in those languages) but were usually uncountable in English (and, therefore, not normally used with a/an or in the plural). The word 'information' belonged to this noun category. In Arabic, the word 'information' was translated as "معلومات" /ma`lumat/ (informations). Hence, the subject selected the word 'informations' due to the contrast between English and Arabic in this point. This error could also be attributed to over-generalisation of the plural –s rule because the learner depends on her linguistic information that a noun needs an –s to be pluralised, thus, applying this general rule to the word 'information' ignoring the specific case of this uncountable noun.

6.4.2 Sample Two

* 'Since then it (is, was, has been) a regular bestseller'. This answer of the student is erroneous and the correct version is: 'Since then it (is, was, has been) a regular bestseller'. This error was attributed to the interference of the MT in the case of using 'the simple past tense' instead of the 'perfect tense'. This error was found regularly among Arab learners of the English language. This was because Arabic does not make the distinction between actions completed in the past with and without a connection to the present. The present tense in Arabic could function as the present, present continuous, present perfect and future tenses in English. This could carry over into English, causing serious interference errors: *Abdul eats dinner now. *We learn English for six months already. *When you come back, tomorrow? This matter led to failure to use the present perfect tense as in the current sample.

6.4.3 Sample Three

* "For thousands of years (a man, man, the man) has been using different types of instruments". This answer of the student was erroneous, and the correct version is: "For thousands of years (a man, man, the man) has been using different types of instruments". This error could be attributed to the interference of the MT. Here, the problem was in the determiner choice. This choice was comprehended on the basis that the cases in which English omitted the article, for example in bed, at dawn, on Thursday, for breakfast and so forth, usually took the definite article in Arabic. That was applied to the case of our sample here. The translation of this erroneous sentence was:

*For thousand of years **the** man has been using different types of...

لآلاف السنين ال إنسان فلقد استخدم أنواعاً مختلفة من...

Lialafi alsenyn **al**-insano falakad istakhdama anwa'an mukhtalifa min

لآلاف السنين فلقد استخدم الانسان أنواعاً مختلفة من ...

As had been shown above, the erroneous sentence represented a true manifestation of the syntactic/grammatical interference of the MT in the case of the determiner 'the' in English and/ 'ال' al/ (the) in Arabic.

6.4.4 Sample Four

*"Machines for calculating (have been, were, has been) developed not until early in the 19th century".

This answer of the student is erroneous and the correct version is:

"Machines for calculating (have been, were, has been) developed not until early in the 19th century".

This error was attributed to the interference of the MT. Here, the problem was in the

'passive voice' choice. This choice was comprehended on the basis that "the co-occurrence of a passive verb with an agent is highly avoided in Arabic as opposed to English" (Al-Raba'a, 2013: 205). The passive in Arabic occurs much less frequently than it does in English partly because Arabic is generally unable to express the agent in passive constructions. Besides, the verb *tamma* (to take place or to be achieved) can be used to paraphrase the passive (Buckley, 2004:610).

In this sentence, the subject committed an error in choosing the present perfect tense instead of the passive voice. This error showed that the subject comprehended the subject-tense agreement rule that connected between 'machines' as a plural noun and that of 'have been' as an auxiliary perfect indicator. However, this is due to the fact that in Arabic there are various types of passive voice resembling their active counterparts. The only contrast between the active and passive voice sentences is the pronunciation of the (unwritten) short vowels. Therefore, although the subject might comprehend that the present sentence contained a passive voice concept, he could not fulfil the requirement of the passive voice rule form in English. Therefore, it was found that the structure and usage of the passive voice in English posed a potential difficulty for Arabic-speaking learners.

6.5 Linguistic Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Listening Test

In this listening test, the learners constructed their answers on the basis of 'bottom-up' processes when they used linguistic knowledge to understand the meaning of a sentence. They built meaning from lower level sounds to words to grammatical relationships to lexical meanings in order to arrive at the final message. In this context, they were not formulating their answers because of the integration between the 'bottom-up' processes and 'top-down' processes. By 'top-down' processes, it is meant that learners used prior knowledge to understand the meaning of a message (Canning, 2004). The nature of this test did not contain

the prior knowledge of the text because each sentence was unrelated to the others.

The general view of the specific types of phonological errors and their distribution between PI and UI students denoted that the types of these errors were similar with real development from PI level into UI one. However, this view lacked the actual presentation of PI and UI students' errors. The errors' results showed that there was a higher development in the UI students in comparison to PI students. In this section, the researcher linguistically analyses the two most recurring errors of the PI and UI students in the Listening Test that show interference of the MT. There will be a presentation of two samples of each language level, which show interference of L1. So, the total number of the analysed samples will be four.

The interpretation of the decreased number of errors of UI students in comparison to PI students in this listening test is due to the assumption that the process of word recognition was fully automatised in one's MT but not in a second language. However, intensive training could cause the word recognition processes to become more automatised (Segalowitz & Segalowitz, 1993). Thus, the more advanced learners were better than the less advanced ones in word or phoneme recognition.

The two interference cases among PI students are /tʃ/ versus /ʃ/ and /ə/ versus /u:/. Whereas, the two interference errors among UI students are /ʒ:/ versus /ɔ:/ and /p/ versus /b/. following are the four samples for both PI and UI students respectively.

6.5.1 Linguistic Analysis of the PI Listening Test Results

6.5.1.1 Sample One

* "She fell and hurt her (chin, shin)". This answer of the student is erroneous and its correct version is: "She fell and hurt her (chin, shin)". This error was attributed to the

interference of the MT. The subject erroneously selected the phoneme '/ʃ/' as being the one that he heard; however, the correct phoneme is '/tʃ/'. This erroneous comprehension error was interpreted based on the MT interference in the FL acoustic system. This subject's MT did not contain the phoneme /tʃ/; thus, the subject resorted to the closest resembling phoneme, which was '/ʃ/'. According to Smith (1987), Arab speakers had difficulty with the discrimination of /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ consonant pronunciation contrasts in English. This was interpreted on the basis that languages differed widely in the number and type of phonemes and in the precise division of the multi-dimensional phonetic space over the sound categories that existed in the language.

6.5.1.2 *Sample Two*

"He put all the things (into, in two) bags". After listening to the tape-recording, the subject chose the word (into) instead of (in two) though (in two) was the one that was uttered. The potential reason behind committing this error was that the subject did not differentiate between the two sounds /ə/ versus /u:/. Therefore, the subject chose 'into' thinking that the sound /u:/ was the equivalent of the vowel 'o' in that word, not knowing that the vowel /u/ was pronounced as the sound /ə/ at this particular case at the end of the word 'two'. This error might be interpreted on two bases: 1. lack of enough exposure to FL, and 2. the sound /ə/ did not exist in the sound system of the subject's MT, so he resorted to the closest one that he heard in his MT, which is /u:/. This was because English has 22 vowels and diphthongs to 24 consonants, whereas Arabic had only eight vowels and diphthongs to 32 consonants. Swan and Bernard (2002) found out that in Arabic "diphthongs /e/ and /u:/ are usually pronounced rather short and are confused with /e/ and /U/: red for raid; hop for hope" (p. 196).

6.5.2 Linguistic Analysis of the UI Listening Test Results

6.5.2.1 Sample One

*"Sorry, John's not at home. He's out (walking, working) at the moment". This answer of the student was erroneous and its correct version is: "Sorry, John's not at home. He's out (walking, working) at the moment". The subject erroneously chose the sound /3:/ instead of /ɔ:/. The subject heard the sound /ɔ:/. and because of her lack of knowledge of the specific rules that govern the pronunciation of English words, she supposed that the correct equivalent for this sound are the letters {or} which showed her lack of knowledge about the English phonetic rules. The interference of the MT in this example sprang from the fact that Arabic spelling within its own system was simple and virtually phonetic. Arabic speakers tended, therefore, to attempt to pronounce English words phonetically. Accordingly, any consonant was pronounced as it was written except for the 'l' letter of the definite article (al-altaareef). In Arabic, consonants were divided into two groups, called the **sun letters** or **solar letters** (Arabic: حروف شمسية *hurūf shamsiyyah*) and **moon letters** or **lunar letters** (حروف قمرية *hurūf qamariyyah*), based on whether or not they assimilated the *lām* (ل) of a preceding definite article *al-* (ال). These names came from the fact that the word for "the sun", *aš-šams*, assimilated the *lām*, while the word for "the moon", *al-qamar*, did not (Abboud, 1983). On the contrary, consonants in English were pronounced according to their position at the onset, middle or end of a word and the existence of a vowel before or after them. As a result, the subject applied this rule to the sentence in question, which created the error here.

6.5.2.2 Sample Two

* "If you are looking for Andy, he's out on the (pier, beer). This answer of the student is erroneous and its correct version is: "If you are looking for Andy, he's out on the (pier, beer). In this sentence, the subject erroneously chose the consonant /b/ instead of /p/. The

reason for committing this error could be traced in the interference of the subject's MT. Further explanation of this error is found in **5.3.2.3.1**.

6.6 Linguistic Analysis of the PI and UI Students' Free Composition Test

In the free composition test, the subjects wrote essays that reflected their ideas and points of views regarding the topics in question. The idea of interference here sprang from the fact that these learners resorted to their MT when their lexicons failed to conduct the idea in English. This was found when they constructed sentences that resembled their MT structure or when they used expressions as those found in their MT everyday situations. On one hand, it was a sign of competence when learners who wrote essays could use collocations in the TL as those of native speakers. On the other hand, wrong collocations motivated by L1 could be considered as the reflection of the MT interference, which was the main focus here. Duskova (1969) maintained that lexical errors form less homogeneous material for study than errors in grammar and established a typology of lexical errors, derived from formal similarity, relatedness of meaning, assumed equivalent and distortions.

The general view at the specific types of errors in the composition tests and their distribution between PI and UI students denoted that although these errors were similar somehow, there was a high development from PI level into UI one. PI students committed 171 errors, whereas UI students committed 91 errors. However, this was expected because writing ability was obstructed by EFL learners' limited vocabulary (Al- Kufaishi, 1988). In this section, the researcher linguistically analysed the two most recurring errors of the PI and UI students in the composition test that showed interference of the MT. The researcher presents two samples of each language level, so the total number of the analysed samples is four. Following are the four samples for PI and UI students respectively.

6.6.1 Linguistic Analysis of the PI Composition Test Errors

6.6.1.1 Sample One

* 'My brother's he like watch TV'. This written sentence of the student is erroneous and its correct version is 'My brother likes watching TV'. This error was attributed to the interference of the MT. Hence, the subject committed specific types of errors as if he were speaking in Arabic. This was manifested when he used the subject 'brother' and 'he' twice and also when he did not write 'to' after the verb 'like'. This issue denoted that the subject was using the TL as a means for translating his MT thoughts and sequence of sentence arrangement. Concerning the first type of errors, in Arabic it was erroneous to use two subjects to refer to the same doer of the action. However, this case was excluded in the case of speaking with the existence of pauses. The error here showed that the subject's mind acted as a sponge of Arabic rules and a translator of these rules into English. Here, the subject applied this rule to the English language.

This sentence is incorrect because the verb 'like' does not follow the subject-verb agreement under the syntactic intralingual category of 'failure to attach 3rd person -s '. This subject has committed an error that is regularly found among EFL/ESL learners. The subject has committed an error when he does not add the suffix '-s' to the verb 'like'. He shows lack of knowledge about the grammatical rule in the concord between the third person singular 'My brother' and the main verb 'like' in the Simple Present Tense.

The above-mentioned error is attributed to many interpretations. In the present sample, the committed error is an over-use one. The 'over-use' or 'over-indulgence' (Levenston, 1971) of certain grammatical forms in FL/L2 learning can occur as a result of intralingual processes such as overgeneralisation (Ellis, 1994). The subject commits the error of "over-use" where he overuses the rule which states that main verbs in the Simple Present Tense are left infinitive. However, the previously mentioned rule has exceptions that there must be a concord between

the third person singular (the subject) and the main verb by adding the suffix '-s' to the main verb. The subject tries to avoid learning the specific cases of adding the '-s' to verbs in cases of 'he, she and it'. In this case, he commits an overt error according to Corder (1971) who sees that overt errors are easy to identify because there is a clear deviation in form.

The notion of "adding a suffix '-s' to the main verb in the Simple Present Tense in case there is one of the pronouns 'he, she and it' ", is not found in Arabic. Therefore, the subject tends to rely on the general rule of forming the Simple Present Tense. This general rule indicates that the verb should be left in its infinitive form if its present form in the Simple Present Tense is wanted. Nevertheless, there is an exception to this rule found in a special type of verbs known as "verb-subject agreement". This error here according to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) is called omission, which is the absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance.

6.6.1.2 Sample Two

*'I like chemistry for many things'. This expression of the student was lexically erroneous and its correct version is 'I like chemistry for many reasons'. Here, there was a lexical interference error due to lack of knowledge. It was called 'word for word substitution'. The subject here used the lexical item 'things' instead of 'reasons'. This error was due to the interference of the MT. This was interpreted on the ground that this subject did not know the meaning of the word 'reasons' in English, or he knew it, but he could not recall it. It was thought that he knew a word that was similar to it in meaning i.e. 'things'. It was noted that many students, when they did not know the meaning of some nouns, used the word 'thing' which denoted their lack of knowledge of the meaning of these words. Moreover, it is also noted that this phenomenon tended to decrease as long as this student was moving forward in his interlanguage continuum.

6.6.2 Linguistic Analysis of the UI Composition Test Errors

6.6.2.1 Sample One

* 'Now I'm student at IT'. This answer of the student was erroneous, and its correct version is: 'Now I'm a student in IT'. This error was attributed to the interference of the MT. In this sentence, the student omitted the indefinite article 'a' when it was needed. This omission was due to the difference in the grammar between Arabic and English in the article usage. In Arabic, there is no obvious indefinite article determining the indefiniteness, whereas it is 'a' in English. For further analysis of this error, please see 6.2.2.1.2.

6.6.2.2 Sample Two

* 'I hope to reach to my dream'. This answer of the student was erroneous and its correct version is: 'I hope to reach my dream'. In this sentence, the subject erroneously used the preposition 'to' after the verb 'reach'. This error was attributed to the interference of the subject's MT into the TL. In Arabic, the verb 'reach' was a transitive verb that required the preposition 'to', whereas in English it did not need a preposition. Therefore, this error was attributed to the grammatical differences between the two languages.

6.7 Relation of the Results of this Study to other Studies

6.7.1 Syntactic Errors

The results of this study showed that most syntactic errors 60%, that PI and UI students made, belonged to interlingual errors, whereas intralingual errors were 40%. These results were in line with many previous studies. Al-Jarf (2000) claimed that Arab EFL learners committed interlingual errors more than intralingual ones. With regard to Jordanian EFL learners, Al-Naimi (1989) pointed out that the majority of all types of errors committed by Jordanian EFL learners could be attributed to negative transfer from Arabic. Research on

students' errors suggested that they committed severe errors with regard to syntactic structure errors including coordination, noun phrase, verb phrase, copula and others (Rababah, 2003, Abbad, 1988; and Zughoul, 1983). Hashim (1996) revised most of the studies investigating the syntactic errors made by Arabic – speaking students in learning English. His findings revealed that the influence of the MT was the most common source of such syntactic errors, please see 3.3.

The results of this study confirmed that 'articles definiteness' was somehow a problem for Arab learners of English especially for UI students. Results showed that some articles problem remained for some UI students even with the development of the language level. It was one of the most recurring errors in this study. As a result, the interpretation of this error created a conflict among FLL and SLA researchers. Richards' (1974) study suggested that the articles' errors were independent of L1 transfer while Thompson (1995) and Mizuno and Harumitsu (1991) attributed them to L1 transfer. In the present study, it appears that the students have used the strategy of 'avoidance' in using particular linguistic forms. Brown (1994) pointed out, "EA fails to account for the strategy of avoidance. The absence of certain errors does not necessarily reflect that learners do not have difficulty with the errors, but shows that learner may avoid the use of certain L2 structures that are difficult for them" (p. 207). For more information about the notion of avoidance, please see p.22. Because the errors seemed unsystematic, some students showed a good command while others consciously or unconsciously, either omitted the articles or misused them. In this research, it was noticed that the range of determiners' errors varied significantly from one subject to another. Definiteness versus indefiniteness was a universal feature in linguistics (Zughoul, 2002). Nevertheless, languages expressed these concepts differently. Willcott (1972) concluded that definiteness problems were far more frequent than any other problem in English syntax faced by Arab students. Zaghoul (2002) found out that the most frequent noun phrase errors were in the use

of articles, particularly the omission of the indefinite article in obligatory contexts, the use of "the" redundantly, omission of the article "the," and redundant use of the articles "a" and "an". Abu-Jarad's (2008) findings showed that there was an increasing weakness in the use of articles among level 2, level 3 and level 4 students. This weakness indicated that the grammar teachers did not review what the students learned before in grammar courses. His analysis of the data showed that errors got less frequent as students moved to upper levels. The statistical analysis revealed that the students had good command over the use of the reported speech, present perfect and prepositions. The students' weakest control was over the articles and irregular comparatives.

This study showed that "omitting 'to be verb' due to L1 interference" constituted 20% of the syntactic interlingual PI errors and 15% of the syntactic interlingual UI errors. It shows that despite the advanced level of the subjects under study, they still commit the 'copula' error. They need constant revision of this particular rule, so they can overcome such a problem. Many studies showed that this type of errors was considered one of the most recurring errors for Arab speakers learning English (Abu Ghararah, 1989; Al-Muarik, 1982; El-Badarin, 1982). Al-Hazaymeh (1994) conducted a study to investigate the foreign secondary students' errors in learning English verb tenses. He attributed the errors made by the students in his study to: MT interference, overgeneralisation, the complexity of the structures of the English verb tenses, a strategy of parallel structure and ignorance of grammatical rules. Al-Khresheh (2010) in Jordan, found out, firstly, that his subjects committed a total of (1266) interlingual errors with respect to simple sentence structure word order. The errors committed because of transfer from standard Arabic (SA) were higher than those committed as a result of transfer from non-standard Arabic (NSA). Secondly, the findings also revealed that interlingual errors committed by the same subjects were due to differences between the subjects' L1 and FL as well as transfer from two different varieties of Arabic.

This study showed that both PI and UI students had committed the type of errors of "adjectives used after noun" in a rate of 18% for both levels. This matter showed despite the advanced level of UI students, they still committed this error in the same rate as those of PI students. This result was in line with previous studies. In this respect, Al-Naimi (1989), for example, conducted a study concerned with the errors committed by Arab EFL learners of Adjectives in English. It was found that interference accounts for the wide range of errors in adjective formation, selection and comparison.

This study showed that both PI and UI students had committed the same type of errors "misuse of preposition" of 12% for both levels. This study was in line with previous studies concerning the error type, but the findings contradicted with previous findings concerning the frequency and rate of this type of errors. Tahineh (2010) investigated the kind of errors that the Jordanian university students made in the use of English prepositions. Findings revealed that the MT interference is the major source of EFL learners' errors (58%=1323). However, transfer strategies of the TL itself were also detected and constituted a major part of the errors too (42%=967). He concluded that the improper use of prepositions is prominent among EFL Arab learners even at advanced stages of their learning. Al-Haq (1982) investigated the syntactical errors in compositions written by 96 secondary cycle male and female students in urban and rural schools. He ascribed these errors to MT interference, overgeneralisation, performance, ignorance of rules usage, restriction, formation and developmental errors, please see 3.3.1.

On the other hand, many studies attributed most of students' errors to intralingual/developmental reasons. For example, Abisamra (2003) in her error analyses study of Arab English learners found that 35.9% of errors were of transfer/interlingual errors, while 64.1% were developmental/intralingual. She found that the highest percentage of transfer errors was in semantics and lexis and as for the highest percentage of developmental

errors, it was, by far, in substance (mainly spelling). Other studies by George (1972), Brudhiprabha (1972) and Richards (1971) also found that only one-third of the FL learners' errors could be attributed to native language transfer that is 35% of the committed errors were categorised as interlingual ones and 65% of them were classified as developmental and intralingual. Most of the errors were caused by an overapplication of L2.

6.7.2 Lexical Errors

This study showed the type and frequency of lexical errors of the subjects under study. The percentage distribution of interlingual errors was higher 90% (f=260) for interlingual errors and 10% (f=28) for intralingual errors. These results were in line with many previous researchers' findings that showed that interlingual errors were the most frequent errors that Arab students made in comparison to intralingual errors. Azevedo (1980) noted that the interlanguage of his subjects displayed gaps in morphology, syntax, semantics and style. Such gaps were filled by rules of their own MT. Hamdan (1984) analysis of the data showed that 63.85% of the subjects' responses were erroneous or inappropriate. The major error types that occurred in the data were: lexical substitution, paraphrase, the use of negative forms, coinage and translation. Besides, it was found that 48.2% of the overall number of errors were caused by L1, whereas 14.6% were induced by FL. Hamdan's (1994) analysis showed that 32% of the subjects' responses to the controlled task were incorrect. The major error types found are synonymy, literal translation, similar forms and collocation. Concerning the intuitive lexical judgment task, 34.2% of the subjects' responses were incorrect. Woodall's (2002) results suggested that less proficient FL learners switched to their L1 more frequently than more advanced learners. Mahmoud (2002) investigated the interlingual transfer of idioms by Arab learners of English. A total of 124 idioms (excluding phrasal verbs and binomials) was found in 3220 pieces written by 230 students. Out of the 124 idioms detected,

25 (that is 20%) were grammatically, lexically and contextually correct. Upon close scrutiny, over two thirds (18 idioms) of these correctly used idioms were found to have Arabic equivalents. They were contextually, formally and semantically equivalent to the corresponding Arabic idioms. The remaining seven idioms out of the 25 correct idioms had no grammatical and/or lexical Arabic equivalents. The remaining 99 (that is 80%) idioms were all used in the right context. However, 78 of them contained grammatical or lexical errors and the rest (21) were Arabic-specific, as in *He paid *in spite of his nose* and *It was clear and *no dust on it*.

This study showed the great decrease of the frequency and rate of lexical errors between PI and UI students. The percentage distribution of lexical errors for PI and UI students was 65% (f=188) for PI students and 35% (f=100) for UI students. Agustín (2009) examined the influence of the MT in vocabulary use in FL writing over four years. She found out that lexicon was considered one of the language aspects that revealed itself as a prominent compensatory learning strategy. However, previous studies found that the influence of L1 in lexis decreased as grade and proficiency of learners increased (Celaya, 2007; Naves et al. 2005). Moreover, these studies also put forward that 'borrowings' were characteristics of the learners' production at the early stages of acquisition/learning, whereas calques were the most common type of lexical transfer by more proficient learners. This contrast seemed reasonable because advanced learners in grade 8, for instance, had a higher degree of mastery of the FL vocabulary and knew more words in FL. Thus, they had the capacity of using FL words to translate L1 structures and they were not in need to borrow vocabulary directly from L1. This result was consistent with other findings that calques were normal to be found in the compositions of the more advanced learners (Agustín, 2007). Consequently, they were able to use FL words to translate L1 structures and did not need to borrow words directly from L1. This result was consistent with the observation that calques were typical of the discourse of

more highly elaborated FL written compositions (Agustín , 2007a). Lexical inventions based on L1 knowledge such as coinages and in particular calques implied higher proficiency in the target language. It is because they were derived from the application of target language phonographic rules to L1 words as in the case of coinages and of literal translation and semantic extension of L1 to FL words as in the case of calques. Previous studies (Palapanidi, 2009; Gabrys-Barker, 2006; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Ringbom, 2001; Dewaele, 1998, 2001) showed that as proficiency increased, meaning related transfer became more common and borrowings decreased.

6.7.3 Phonological Errors

This study showed the type and frequency of phonological errors of the subjects under study. These results were in line with many previous results that had shown similar types of errors committed by other Arab learners. For example, the phonology of L1 might cause learners to filter out FL sounds differences that were not phonemically relevant in L1. Thus, errors that were characterised in non-native speech might be due to incorrect representations of FL sounds (Rochet, 1995). The most commonly discussed cases of L1 interference in interlanguage phonology were at the segmental level, but interference could also affect other aspects of phonology, including phonological rules and processes, syllable structure, phonotactics, stress patterns and intonation (Tarone, 1987; Ellis, 1994).

The notion of perceived similarity between L1 and FL sounds was crucial in the development of current theories of FL category formation. Rochet (1995) found out that learners were language-specific perceivers and that previous linguistic experience determined the way FL sounds were perceived and categorised. He found that native Portuguese subjects tended to misidentify French /y/ tokens as /i/, whereas native English subjects tended to misidentify the same vowel tokens as /u/. Further, in a repetition task, native Portuguese subjects produced /i/-

quality vowels when they heard French /y/ tokens, whereas native English subjects tended to produce /u/.

Ramussen (2007) investigated the intelligibility of native and Arabic-accented speech for native English and native Arabic listeners in order to understand better the factors that were related to differential intelligibility effects in literature. The phonemic contrast between /b/ and /p/, which existed in English but not in Arabic, was considered. The native Arabic talkers showed an overlap of the two categories.

In this study, there was a presentation of various erroneous phonological samples as in the use of sibilant /z/ instead of the interdental fricative /ð/. This error was attributed to the MT interference. Schmidt (1987) conducted a study in order to find out if a careful CA could indeed predict some facts about interlanguage phonology. He examined the substitution of /s, z/ for English /θ, ð/ by native speakers of Egyptian Arabic. His results confirmed that native speakers of Egyptian Arabic frequently substituted sibilants in English *th*- words, regardless of whether or not they have been exposed to classical Arabic. He also found out that Egyptians do not substitute stops in English *th*- word as in *zis instead of this and *sree instead of three.

The results of this research provide answers to the questions of the study. It is concluded that there is a negative effect of Arabic into English. It is also concluded that despite the existence of Arabic interference, English language develops with the advancement of the students' language level. It is also conclude that syntactic, lexical and phonological linguistic systems are transferred from Arabic to English for both PI and UI students. It is also concluded that both interlingual and intralingual errors decrease with the improvement of learners' FL proficiency, as has been mentioned earlier. It is also found that Arabic language is not that grave factor for the learners' final attainment of English, since the rate and frequency of interlingual errors is decreased with the development of language level.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter proposed the two major types of errors, namely; interlingual and intralingual/developmental errors. It highlighted the essential role that the MT interference played in the process of FL learning for Syrian university students by presenting samples of students who were learning English as an FL. The results of these students showed various degrees of proficiency at various language aspects of the two levels and of the same level, too. The comparison between the two different levels did not aim at proposing that the UI students were proficient English learners whereas the PI ones were not. The researcher intentionally made this comparison to show how L1 interference acted within less developed and more developed linguistic capacities and investigated its effects on the FL output in both cases. The three research hypotheses were verified; the first and second hypotheses were confirmed, whereas the third hypothesis was refuted.

Chapter VII

Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 Summary

This research consisted of six chapters. In the first chapter, the research basic ideas were introduced concisely besides the research hypotheses as well as the problem, the purpose and the significance of the study. The second chapter highlighted the most important theories, hypotheses and viewpoints of famous linguists about the notion of EA and interference. In the third chapter, there was a review of the most current studies in the fields of syntactic, lexical and phonological errors for English learners in general and Arab learners in particular.

After identifying the basic outline and points of this study in the literature review, the fourth chapter demonstrated the methodology of this research with its instruments as well as the procedures of data collection. In this descriptive study, the researcher applied four major instruments: interviews, free composition, a questionnaire and tests. Interviews and free compositions showed production errors in the form of oral discourse in interviews and written discourse in free compositions. On the other hand, Language Proficiency Test in its grammar and listening tests showed recognition errors. The Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire represented the linguistic background information of the subjects under study.

The present study has the following results:

1- In the interviews, the frequency of syntactic interlingual errors was decreased for PI into UI students; it decreased from 141 to 105. The percentage distribution of syntactic

interlingual errors for PI and UI students was 57% (f=141) for PI students and 43% (f=105) for UI students. The percentage distribution of syntactic intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 63% (f=121) for PI students and 37% (f=71) for UI students. The percentage distribution of interlingual and intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 60% (f=262) for interlingual errors and 40% (f=176) for intralingual errors.

In the interviews, the percentage distribution of lexical interlingual errors for PI and UI students was 67% for PI students and 33% for UI students. The percentage distribution of lexical intralingual errors for PI and UI students was 50% (f=14) and 50% (f=14) respectively. The percentage distribution of interlingual and intralingual lexical errors was 90% (f=260) for interlingual errors and 10% (f=28) for intralingual errors. The percentage distribution of lexical errors for PI and UI students was 65% (f=188) and 35% (f=100) respectively.

In the interviews, the percentage distribution of phonological errors showed that PI students made 56% of the phonological errors, whereas the UI students made 44% of them. The tree diagram representation of the syntactic erroneous utterances clearly shows that these errors were due to the fact that the subjects have used parameters in their FL similar to those of the MT.

2-In the Grammar Test, the 1st research hypothesis of this research, which stated that "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Grammar Test was different", was confirmed. The 2nd hypothesis, which stated that "some grammatical errors persisted throughout the two language levels" was also confirmed. However, the 3rd hypothesis which

stated that "there were no statistically significant differences in the types of Grammar Test errors that the students at the two language levels committed" was discarded.

3- In the Listening Test, the 1st research hypothesis of this research, which stated that "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Listening Test was different" was confirmed. The 2nd hypothesis, which stated that "some phonological errors persisted throughout the two language levels" was also confirmed. The 3rd hypothesis, which stated that "there were no statistically significant differences in the types of Listening Test phonological errors that the students at the two language levels committed" was discarded.

4- In the Free Composition Test, the 1st research hypothesis of this research, which stated that, "the performance of the PI and UI students at the Composition Test was different" was confirmed. The 2nd hypothesis, which stated that, "some linguistic errors in the Composition Test persisted throughout the two language levels" was also confirmed. The 3rd hypothesis, which stated that, "there were no statistically significant differences in the types of linguistic errors at the Composition Test that the students at the two language levels committed" was discarded.

5- This research shows that interference from Arabic into English plays a major role in the types and frequency of the errors committed by the subjects of the study. It is negative in nature because of the structural discrepancy of the two languages. Nevertheless, it is also found that intralingual and developmental errors, which are the results of natural linguistic development and false learning conceptions, constitute a high share of the committed errors.

7.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, it is found out that interlanguage was a process that was influenced by many factors especially at the early stages of learning English. This study focused mainly upon the interference from Arabic into English with some reference to the other type of errors as intralingual/developmental errors. Although it was expected that interference occurred at the early stages of learning English as in the PI stage, it was also found that in more advanced stages as UI stages, interference did continue to occur. However, knowing the strategies of learning an FL, the reasons of making errors and their types would give the teachers clues about how to help their students realise these errors and avoid making them in their language performance and, consequently, achieve success in their general English interaction.

EA aids researchers to have a better comprehension of the linguistic and cognitive developments of FL learners. The general comparison between PI and UI students showed a reduction in the frequency and percentage of errors in favour of UI students. This finding was expected and in line with many previous studies, however, the continuity of interference from the MT (Arabic) into the TL (English) remained very strong even with higher language levels of students. This notion was evident in the rate and frequency of interference errors for UI students.

To sum up, the results of this study showed that the participants made a variety of errors in using their English language due to many potential factors:

The first factor for interlingual errors was that the effect of the MT, Arabic, because of the negative transfer out of major differences between Arabic and English at the syntactic, lexical and phonological aspects.

The second factor of the intralingual and developmental errors was the insufficient exposure to the TL environment outside the English course hours. This matter led to lack of practising general English language activities that comprised social interacting with others,

speaking, listening and watching movies with or without the aid of translation in addition to reading and writing.

The third factor of the intralingual and developmental errors was the inadequate language skills that these students might come across because of the improper interaction among students themselves that belonged to the same language level, which might become so difficult to overcome.

A careful look at the categorisation of syntactic, lexical and phonological errors in English revealed that there had been two types of errors:

Interlingual and intralingual/developmental errors. Both of these types of errors constituted the major types of errors that the students of Aleppo University of PI and UI language levels committed. The first type was interlingual errors, which were attributed to the MT interference due to the mismatch between the two languages, English and Arabic. The second one got fewer roles in the majority of these errors. Intralingual and developmental errors were mainly attributed to the natural order of learning in addition to lack of training.

7.3 Recommendations

1. These results make it clear that PI and UI students need to improve their language by speaking more frequently, trying to correct their errors by reviewing them with their teachers or through consulting grammar books and through immersing more and more in the other target situations by, for example, listening to radio or watching movies in English. For interlingual errors, it is important for the teachers to mention the error in a contrastive mode, so that students reckon upon the potential differences between the MT and FL. Intralingual errors require a more complex explanation and more exercises due to their complexity and abstractness. It also shows that these linguistic categories should be taught in a longer period of time and are less treatable.

2. Teachers should also encourage their students to speak out more and feel relaxed while interacting with others. They should also improve the peer-work interaction within their class in order to reduce any atmosphere of threats within the classroom environment. Students can be advised to use self-assessment checklists to guide them through the process. Teachers should draw directly and indirectly the attention of their students to their errors by tape-recording them and showing them their actual oral production and delivering that to them, so they can realise their own errors and relate them to their L1 interference if it is needed. Teachers have to determine what errors to correct and how to correct them. According to Brown (1980:185), three criteria control the type of errors that need to be corrected: Firstly, how serious that error is in relation to communication success: If an error affects communication, it needs to be corrected. If it does not, there is no need for its correction. Secondly, how far this error from grammatical rules is: If an expression is generally understood, but it fails to follow the general grammatical rules, it needs to be corrected for the sake of asserting the rule itself. Thirdly, the main theme of the lesson: If a student commits an error in the grammatical rule that is being taught, this errors needs to be corrected so that the rule is best comprehended.

7.4 Implication for Further Research

This study is considered a preliminary one that just gives "insights" into those students' sources of errors. It should set the pace for other studies which would be much more comprehensive in the sense of conducting longitudinal studies. Having the same subjects for a longer period of time helps in measuring their language development. Those studies can best show the development of students' interlanguage and the reduction of transfer errors with the advancement of language level. They can show the exact interlingual errors that are reduced

and those which still exist. Similar studies could be conducted not only with different samples of adult Arab learners of EFL but also with learners of EFL from different MT backgrounds. This matter can pave the way for having clear classifications of interlingual and intralingual errors without having the potential overlap of these categories.

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APPENDIX-A

Test of Grammatical Structures

Time- 40 Min

Look at these examples. The correct answer is underlined:

- a. In warm climates people (like, likes, are liking) sitting outside in the sun.
- b. If it is very hot they sit (at, in, under) the shade.

Now the test will begin. Underline the correct answers:

1. Today (they are, there are, it is) many millions of people learning English.
2. Some people (study, studies, is studying) English for a special reason.
3. They may need English for (the job, job, their job).
4. Some of them (need, need to, are needing) speak to English people
5. The majority of learners of English (has, are having, have) other needs.
6. Most users of English use it (for talk, that they can talk, to talk) to people who aren't English.
7. (It is, There is, There are) hardly any parts of the world where English is never spoken.
8. (Most of, The most, Most) people have heard some English at some time.
9. Very few people haven't heard (some, the, any) English spoken at all.
10. English is undoubtedly (the most, the more, a most) widely-used language in the world.
11. For many years the Guinness Book of Records has been one of the most popular books (of, in, under) the United Kingdom.
12. It (has been, was, is) first published in 1955.
13. Since then it (is, was, has been) a regular bestseller.

14. Most of the records in it (are changing, have changed, changed) many times in recent years.

In 1954, the year the first Guinness Book of Records was being compiled,

15. the world mile record (could be, was being, was) broken more than once.

The year before that, in 1953, it

16. (had stood, used to stand, still was standing) at over four minutes.

17. But in 1954 the four-minute barrier (could, was to, should) be broken several times.

18. Roger Bannister's famous run was the first time anyone (has, had, would) even run so fast.

19. If Dr. Bannister (had not been, would not have been, would not be) the first to run the mile in under four minutes he would not be so well known.

20. The record has been held by a great (number, deal, many) of runners since then.

21. This history of (computer, the computer, a computer) is really

22. (a quite, quite, quite a) long one. A computer is essentially an

23. efficient means of processing (informations, an information, information) .

24. For thousands of years (a man, man, the man) has been using different types of instrument to overcome the problems caused by unwieldy number systems.

25. Early mathematicians had (difficulty to use, difficulties to use, difficulty in using) the number systems of their societies but succeeded

26. (to develop, in developing, into developing) personal number

27. systems in (what, where, which) to carry out their calculations.

The decimal number system, which we

28. (are used to working, used to work, have been used to working)

29. with (for, since, during) a long time now, and which is

30. (such, such a, so) common basis of calculation today, has not

31. (ever, still, always) been as widely used

32. (like, that, as) it is now.

33. Both number systems dependent (from, of, on) the notion

of zero were developed in some ancient societies in parallel with

mechanical aids to calculation. As long ago as 500 B.C. * in other words

34. (for some 25 centuries, some 25 centuries earlier, some 25 centuries ago)

35. --the abacus (were being, was being, has been used) in China.

This aid to calculation, and the counting tables used by the Babylonians and the Greeks,

were the real forerunners of the 'mainframes' and 'micros' that are so

36. familiar today, of (what, which, these) we call a 'computer'.

Over the centuries between the invention of the abacus and the production of the first

electronic digital computer in 1943 a vast number of different tools

37. and machines for calculating (have been, were, has been)

developed. Logarithms and 'bones' were both invented in the 17th century.

Before that, mathematicians and inventors

38. (could develop, have developed, had developed) many other

39. types of aid but with much (fewer, little, less) success. The

first slide rule was produced in 1621 and the first mass-produced multiplying

40. aid (that same, this same, the next) century, just

41. (few, a few, not many) years later. In 1642 the French

philosopher, Pascal, produced a mechanical calculator which could do all

42. (what, which, that) basic adding machines do today, but he

43. could not (have, make, let) it manufactured accurately enough

44. to make it reliable. It was (a long time, long time, long) before

- manufacturing techniques improved and not until early in the 19th century
45. (came the Arithmometer, the Arithmometer came, did the Arithmometer come)
46. on the scene (like, as, for) the first commercially successful
47. calculator. Its producers (could, should, couldn't) hardly have
imagined that by the 1980s technology
48. (had advanced, will advance, would have advanced) so far that
an instrument the size of a wristwatch would be many times more powerful.
49. True computers (are only existing since, have only existed for, have only been existing
for)
forty years but the 1980s have seen a computer explosion. By the time we
50. (will reach, will have reached, reach) the end of the decade, all
our lives will be directly affected by computers.

APPENDIX-B

Test of Listening Skills

Time- 6:40 Min

Look at the example below. Listen to the tape. You will hear the example once only.

Decide which word you hear, 'soap', or 'soup':

a. Will you get me some (soap, soup) at the supermarket ?

The word was 'soup', so 'soup' is underlined. Now look at these examples and listen to the tape again. This time, you underline the words you hear. For example, if you hear 'shorts' underline 'shorts':

b. The team need new (shirts, shorts).

c. They've recently developed a new kind of (vine, wine) around here.

The words on the tape were 'shorts' and 'vine', so the correct answers look like this:

b. The team need new (shirts, shorts).

c. They've recently developed a new kind of (vine, wine) around here.

Now the test will begin. Listen to the tape and underline the words you hear: (Later, the correct answer is put in bold).

1. Who's (paying, **playing**) tonight ?

2. She fell and hurt her (chin, **shin**).

3. Mr. Foot's speech paid particular attention to the mounting (crisis, **prices**) we are now facing.
4. The appointment is almost certain to be (vetted, **vetoed**) by the government.
5. Can you (**sew up**, soak) the bottom of my jeans for me? They're in an awful mess.
6. For the third time this year Wembley has been filled with (**Tottenham**, tartan) scarves.
7. There's a (Paul, **call**) for you on line one.
8. During the last couple of years there have been (**marked**, market) variations throughout Europe.
9. Sorry, John's not at home. He's out (**walking**, working) at the moment.
10. She got it for (her, **a**) friend.
11. He put all the things (into, **in two**) bags.
12. He's been having a lot of trouble with his (ankle, **uncle**) recently.
13. I hear you're going to (**Turkey**, Torquay) for your holidays.
14. (**Simon's**, Someone's) on the phone for you.
15. As with many poorer countries, it's largely a problem of the distribution of (welfare, **wealth there**).
16. If you're looking for Andy, he's out on the (pier, beer).
17. I must say I wouldn't have thought he'd have taken it (to heart, **too hard**).
18. Has his (**chess**, chest) improved at all recently?
19. Because of his previous record he was given a (light, **life**) sentence.
20. Don't tell anybody but (I, **I'd**) do it for nothing.
21. I love the smell of (all spice, **old spice**) but my wife can't stand it.
22. Would you like another (**coffee**, copy)?
23. Let Susie play with it for (now, **an hour**). You've had a go.
24. Do you really think this (**action**, section) is necessary?

25. Are you going to (Seapalling, **see Pauline**) today?
26. Many of the passengers received (**fatal**, facial) injuries.
27. He's responsible for (collating, **collecting**) information on market trends.
28. When I was at Cambridge the place was full of (hearty, **arty**) people.
29. Unemployment on (Teesside, **Deeside**) is running at over twenty per cent.
30. I hear that Connors has lost (a game, **again**).
31. Can you pick that (**pen**, pin) up for me, please?
32. I understand you're very critical of the (**offer**, author).
33. Shares usually rise on the (**first day**, Thursday) of budget week.
34. Despite what you say it's (**really**, rarely) a problem.
35. Though the scores were level the Welsh were right on top in terms of (position, **possession**).
36. I gather you rang (confirming, **concerning**) my flight to Athens.
37. If that's so it's more (than likely, **unlikely**) he'll have to leave.
38. She (**gratefully**, gracefully) accepted their applause.
39. On one level the film can be seen as a savage (betrayal, **portrayal**) of his working-class background.
40. The country is now suffering from a shortage of (**farriers**, harriers).
41. Hoddle looks likely to win his third (**cup**, cap) this year.
42. What's that you've got on your (list, **wrist**).
43. (**Sunflowers**, Some flowers) grow very tall in this part of East Anglia.
44. How soon will they be able to let us have a (**reply**, replay)? By the end of next week?
45. The government reported that the remainder of the (Asians, **agents**) had been deported.

46. He was late because he went the (long, **wrong**) way.
47. I could manage a (**wee**, weak) cup of coffee.
48. Do you know where ('Classics', **Class six**) is today?
49. I'm surprised they didn't have any (**rum**, room) at the pub.
50. The government insisted on (preconditions, **three conditions**)
for the sovereignty negotiations.
51. When I told him he just said, ('**Oh, good!**', 'Oh, God!').
52. I just didn't think he'd be (armed, **harmed**).
53. If you're looking for the sherry it's (**in the decanter**, under the counter).
54. There's no need for him to be so (**big-headed**, pig-headed) about it.
55. She goes out at (**nine**, night) to her job at the factory.
56. Do you think she was responsible for (enticing, **inciting**) him to do it?
57. As I entered the house there was a lovely smell of (bacon, **baking**).
58. Can you let me have a (**black**, blank) one?
59. The new test material will probably be for the (**adopted**, adapted).
teacher's courses.
60. Do you know if it's (**been**, being) done?
61. There are many countries nowadays where private phone calls can be (tapped, **taped**).
62. We've gone through (today's, **two days**) money in less than an hour.
63. It wasn't until some time after the accident that we found out he wasn't (**injured**, insured).
64. If you do get her a racket for her birthday, get her a (good, **wood**) one.
65. (**I'll**, I've) put the call through to him.
66. I much prefer squid when it's fried in (butter, **batter**).
67. Martina lives in a great big (freezing, **Friesian**) barn.
68. Your (**sister**, solicitor) has just been on the phone.

69. The president (omitted, **admitted**) the fact that unemployment was still rising.
70. We'll have to see if we can present the information on a (**new**, news) sheet.
71. It's very difficult not to lose (face, **faith**) in a situation like that.
72. There isn't a lot of (Joyce, **choice**) on this year's syllabus.
73. Many of us have been (heartened, **hardened**) by recent events.
74. I like it (well-prepared unsalted, **well peppered salted**) and medium rare.
75. The criticisms were apparently (unanimous, **anonymous**).
76. I should imagine that the castle was quite (**unassailable**, unsaleable).
77. Are you going (**off to**, after) the conference on Saturday?
78. Are you intending to go to the (Hull, **whole**) seminar?
79. I believe they (**set**, sat) that particular paper in June.
80. He appeared to be absolutely (**naked**, knackered).
81. In the last couple of years he's been on all the Norfolk (**marshes**, marches).
82. I gather her husband (roped, **wrote**) her into the play.
83. You have to go to the (**left**, lift) first to get to Room 415.
84. He said we'd be (**fine**, fined) with six in the car.
85. I'm not sure how the money is to be paid. Do you want (**a cheque**, to check)?
86. Do you know the riddle about the (thirty sick, **thirty-six**) sheep?
87. My son's German pen-friend doesn't know what he means when he says, ('**Wanna bet?**', 'Wanna bat?').
88. I'm afraid onion rings cooked in (butter, **batter**) don't agree with me.
89. There's a lovely little takeaway round the corner where they do (salami on rye, **salami and rice**) specials.
90. If you have any problems, please contact the British (Council, **Consul**) immediately.
91. It's (steep, **deep**) , isn't it?

92. I'm very glad (**you**, Hugh) can come tonight.
93. I've got to go and (**lock**, unlock) the car.
94. (Watch, **What's**) the time, love ! / ?
95. My daughter's just got some (Bally, **ballet**) shoes.
96. Have you got (**a ticket**, to take it) to Cambridge?
97. There's a (**chapel on**, chap along) our road might be able to help you.
98. If you're asking if I want to go out with you, the answer is (I don't, no, **I don't know**).
99. The local (**garage is dirt-cheap**, garages do it cheap).
100. (Forfar 4 East Fife 5, **Forfar 5 East Fife 4**) was the highest score of the day.

APPENDIX-C

Free Composition Test

Time- 1 Hour

Write a composition of approximately 250 words in three paragraphs on any one of the following topics:

- a. Your future plans.
- b. Family life.
- c. Your hobbies.

APPENDIX-D

Interviews

Time- 25 Min

Each student was asked to talk about the following topics:

- a. Pollution.
- b. Your study at university.

APPENDIX-E**Motivation and Attitude Questionnaire**

This questionnaire is part of a research project on L1 interference upon FL. Your answers will be very confidential and no one, except the researcher, will view them.

Please answer the following questions:

1. Name/Initials
2. Sex:
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
3. Age:
4. Country of origin:
5. Indicate at what age you began to learn English.
6. In what setting did you start learning your English language?
 - a. At home
 - b. Through private school
 - c. Through state school
 - d. Living abroad
7. Language (s) of parents:
8. Please rate your English language skills on a scale of 1 to 3:
1 = excellent, 2 = average, 3 = poor.

Understanding Speech	Speaking	Reading	Writing
<input style="width: 50px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	<input style="width: 50px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	<input style="width: 50px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>	<input style="width: 50px; height: 20px;" type="text"/>
9. When speaking with bilingual friends/family members, do you ever find yourself using both languages within the same conversation or even in the same sentence?
 - a. Yes, frequently
 - b. Yes, but only rarely
 - c. No, never
10. Tick what is appropriate to you. (You might tick more than one)
 - a. I use two languages only when talking to friends or family.
 - b. I use two languages in conversations with other bilinguals

because this enables me to express myself better.

- c. I try not to use two languages in the same conversation.
 d. Others (please specify...)

11. Do you agree with the following statements:

- a. When I was in high school, I only learned English grammar. Yes No
 b. My English teacher taught me a lot of grammar and little speaking and writing.
 Yes No
 c. I learned English very hard. Yes No

12. Do you prefer to have Arabic language sometimes as a means of instruction during English language classroom hours? Yes No

13. What is the difficult part of English language for you?

Please rate it as 1-2-3-4 from the hardest to the easiest

Speaking listening reading writing

14. Have you ever learnt English by listening to tape-recordings or CDs?

Yes No

15. What is your purpose of learning English? Please write T next to the correct option. (You might tick more than one)

- a. travelling abroad b. studying abroad
 c. getting a better job d. understanding movies and songs in English
 e. getting good marks in English subjects at the university
 f. Others (please specify...)

16. Do you feel comfortable when speaking English during classroom hours?

Yes No

17. Do you feel that you can write well in English?

Yes No

18. Do you feel that you can read well in English?

Yes No

19. Do you feel that you can listen well in English?

Yes No

20. Do you feel that you are active during your English classroom activities?

Yes No

APPENDIX-F**Transcriptional Features of Students' Interviews**

- (.) Brief pause length;
- (-) Unit pause length (equivalent to a pulse of a speaker);
- (- -) Double pause length;
- (- - -) Treble or longer pause length;
- () Uninterpretable speech (it may be phonemically transcribed, or its orthographic transcription indicates that the analyst is unsure of what is on the tape);
- ? Doubt about the transcriptional accuracy;
- * Overlap in the speech; and
- (()) A brief or incomplete utterance which does not interrupt the speaker's flow

Syntactic Errors: are in bold forms followed by their correct ones.

Phonological and Phonemic Errors: are in italics forms followed by their transcriptions (that is how they are pronounced) and then followed by their correct forms.

Lexical Errors: are in italics and bold forms followed by their correct form.

Code-Switching Errors: of Arabic language are underlined followed by their transliterations and then by their meanings in English.

APPENDIX-G**Transliteration of Arabic Alphabets into English Symbols**

The following table shows the system which is followed in transliterating the letters of the Arabic alphabet:

ا consonantal sound	a	ظ	z
ء consonantal sound	a	ع	ˁ
ا long vowel	ā	غ	g
ب	b	ف	f
ت	t	ق	q
ث	th	ك	k
ج	j	ل	l
ح	h	م	m
خ	kh	ن	n
د	d	هـ	h
ذ	ž	و consonant	w
ر	r	و long vowel	ø
ز	s	و diphthong	au
س	s	ي consonant	y
ش	sh	ي long vowel	ĩ
ص	ş	ي diphthong	ai
ض	dh		
ط	ţ		

APPENDIX-H

International Phonetic Alphabets

Vowel sounds

<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Examples</i>
/i:/	sleep m <u>e</u>
/ɪ/	happy r <u>e</u> cipe
/ɪ/	p <u>i</u> n d <u>i</u> nn <u>e</u> r
/ʊ/	f <u>oo</u> t c <u>ou</u> ld p <u>u</u> ll
/u:/	d <u>o</u> sh <u>oe</u> thr <u>ough</u>
/e/	r <u>e</u> d h <u>ea</u> d s <u>ai</u> d
/ə/	arr <u>i</u> ve f <u>a</u> th <u>e</u> r c <u>o</u> l <u>ou</u> r
/ɜ:/	t <u>u</u> rn b <u>ir</u> d w <u>or</u> k
/ɔ:/	s <u>or</u> t th <u>ough</u> t w <u>al</u> k
/æ/	c <u>a</u> t bl <u>ac</u> k
/ʌ/	s <u>u</u> n en <u>ough</u> w <u>on</u> der
/ɒ/	g <u>o</u> t w <u>at</u> ch s <u>oc</u> k
/ɑ:/	p <u>a</u> rt h <u>ea</u> rt l <u>au</u> gh
/eɪ/	n <u>a</u> me l <u>a</u> te <u>a</u> im
/aɪ/	m <u>y</u> <u>i</u> dea t <u>i</u> me
/ɔɪ/	b <u>oy</u> n <u>oi</u> se
/eə/	p <u>a</u> ir w <u>h</u> ere b <u>ea</u> r
/ɪə/	h <u>ea</u> r b <u>ea</u> r
/əʊ/	g <u>o</u> h <u>o</u> me sh <u>ow</u>
/aʊ/	o <u>ut</u> c <u>ow</u>
/ʊə/	p <u>ure</u> f <u>ew</u> er

Consonant sounds

<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Examples</i>
/p/	put
/b/	b <u>oo</u> k
/t/	t <u>a</u> ke
/d/	d <u>o</u> g
/k/	c <u>a</u> r k <u>i</u> ck
/g/	g <u>o</u> g <u>ua</u> rantee
/tʃ/	c <u>at</u> ch c <u>h</u> urch
/dʒ/	ag <u>e</u> l <u>ou</u> nge
/f/	f <u>o</u> r c <u>ough</u>
/v/	l <u>o</u> ve v <u>eh</u> icle
/θ/	th <u>i</u> ck p <u>a</u> th
/ð/	th <u>i</u> s m <u>oth</u> er
/s/	s <u>i</u> nce r <u>i</u> ce
/z/	z <u>oo</u> h <u>ou</u> ses
/ʃ/	sh <u>op</u> s <u>ug</u> ar m <u>a</u> chine
/ʒ/	pl <u>ea</u> sure u <u>s</u> ual v <u>i</u> sion
/h/	h <u>ea</u> r h <u>o</u> tel
/m/	m <u>a</u> ke
/n/	n <u>a</u> me n <u>ow</u>
/ŋ/	br <u>i</u> ng
/l/	l <u>oo</u> k w <u>h</u> ile
/r/	r <u>oa</u> d
/j/	y <u>ou</u> ng
/w/	w <u>ea</u> r

APPENDIX -I

List of Abbreviations

ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

CA: Contrastive Analysis

Df: Degrees of Freedom

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

F: Fischer Value

FH: Fluctuation Hypothesis.

FL: Foreign Language

FLL: Foreign Language Learning

HIL: Higher Institute of Languages

IL: Interlanguage

ISIB: Interlanguage Speech Intelligibility Benefit

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

M: Means

Mdn: Median

MT: Mother Tongue

NL: Native Language

NNS: Non-Native Speech

NS: Native Speech

NSA: Non-Standard Arabic.

OPT: Oxford Placement Tests

PI: Pre-Intermediate Students

Sig.: Significance of Errors

SD: Standard Deviation

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

TL: Target Language

UG: Universal Grammar

UI: Upper-Intermediate Students

VOT: Voice Onset Time

APPENDIX-J

A Sample of PI Students' Interview

Researcher: First of all, I would like to thank you for participating with me. (- -) I would like to thank you for coming and participating with me. (-) We are going to talk about your academic life. Ok! So, I want everyone to introduce him or herself and then we are going to talk about your academic life. So, would you please introduce yourself.

Participant: Ok, I'm studying (- -)

Researcher: What's your name?

Participant: Ok, Ner Makrodeeg. I study in **Economic** (Economics) Faculty, (- -) in

Researcher: Which year...

Ner: Last year, last year

Researcher: Last year, you what?

Ner: science, الاختصاص/alekhtesas/ (speciality)

Another participant: economic

Ner: economic

Researcher: you are in which year now?

Ner: Last year

Another participant: Fourth year, fourth year

Ner: **Four** (fourth) year

Researcher: Now, you are in your fourth year?

Ner: Yeah. Ok

Researcher: Excellent So now you are in your fourth year, you are in your final year.

Ner: Yes,

Researcher: Excellent, excellent. I'm going back to you.

What about you? What's your name?

Participant: My name is A'aref Na'asan. I'm, I'm from other **country** (province), I'm from Idleb. I...I'm studying Nursing College. I'm in the fourth year, and when I get in...in this college, I **feel** (felt) it's very...it's a bit difficult. But now, I **adip** /adip/ (adapt) with it...

Researcher: You

Another Participant: Adapt

A'aref: Adapt with it

Researcher: Ah, great

A'aref: Yes. I **don't** (didn't) want this college, it's a fact, but I like to it...to study.

Researcher: What do you like to study, if you have the chance

A'aref: Mathematics

Researcher: Mathematics!

A'aref: I wish I have a good luck

Researcher: I wish you also the same. What about you?

Participant: My name is Humam Ramadan. I'm in the third year of, third year Faculty of Faction...

Researcher: Faculty?

Humam: Faculty of Electrical and Electronic Engineering **Aleppo** (of Aleppo). I enjoy what I do and what I study

Researcher: You're in your fourth year

Humam: Third year

Researcher: Excellent. What about you?

Participant: My name is Dua'a Hemmamy, and I'm studying **Informatic** (Informatics) Technology Engineering. I like my study very much, yes, but it's very complex. It's hard

Researcher: Now, you are in which year?

Dua'a: I'm in...this is my second year.

Researcher: Second year

Dua'a: Yes, at the university

Researcher: Great.

Yes, what do you find interesting in your study at the faculty of economics?

Ner: What do you find?

Researcher: Interesting?

Ner: Interesting?

Researcher: Do you like your study?

Ner: Ah! Yes, of course

Researcher: Why

Ner: Mmm. Because (- -) I like **zis** /zis/ (this) kind... **zis** /zis/ (this), **zis** /zis/ (this) job and in the future, it's (- -). Economic is very very...**importing** (important)... exciting and مطلوبة

[maḥlobā] (required) يعني [ya`ny] (I mean)

Researcher: wanted

Ner: want

Researcher: And required

Ner: Yes

Researcher: Great, and what do you like...what do you like to do when you graduate? An accountant?

Ner: No, **I'm** (want to be) **science banker** (a banking scientist) and money **science** (scientist)

Researcher: Good, good, good. Yes, what about you? First, you found

A'aref: First

Researcher: Difficult, but now you find

A'aref: A bit difficult and I... if I have my college, **it's not** (It's) necessary to deal with people, with sick people. I'm...I'm happy...Yes. I like to help sick people very much.

Researcher: Great, great, so it's like a message

A'aref: Yes, it's like a message and I must do it. I hope, I want to continue. It is my **plane** /plein/ (plan). I want to...plan...I want to...I hope to continue my study *aport* /aport/ (abroad) and do **Master** (Master Degree).

Researcher: Do we have here Master Degree in your specialty?

A'aref: My college is **recently** (recently founded), it's a (Θ) new

Researcher: It's a new one, so there is no Mastery or Ph.D.

A'aref: I think that إن شاء الله [en sha'a Allah] (God Willing) I want to complete my study

Researcher: Great

A'aref: And do a **post-graduate** (studies) in other **country** (countries) may **be** (in) Egypt or German or U.S.A.

Researcher: Great

A'aref: **It's** (it) depends

Researcher: Yes

A'aref: **It's** (it) depends about (on) my B.A. yes about my *P.A.* (B.A.) degrees

Researcher: Now, now. What's your average at the university?

A'aref: I think seventy percent.

Researcher: Seventy percent. Great, so you have good chance.

A'aref: Allah Willing إن شاء الله [en sha'a Allah] (God Willing).

Researcher: Ok. What about you? Do you like your study?

Humam: Yes, of course. I like the practical sides of my study like *meking* /meking/ (making) projects and recently in last summer, **I start** (I started) to work in or to work with old engineers in projects like generators project (-s) that cope them system of generate or system of pumping water and **another** (other) liquids and it **need** (needs) man to think so much and **mistakes** (are) so **cost** (high).

Researcher: Yes

Humam (laughing): So *cost* (high), and when you *loss /los/* (lose) your focus or anything, may be you can be **danger** (dangerous).

Researcher: One mistake is going to lead to a disaster.

Humam: Of course, yes. Last summer, in August, last August, we **go** (went) to recess (a) company, **it** (it's) called Lavach. It's working concrete things like this and **we** (are) still working in what we called in like "safari" like "jungles", not jungle...

Researcher: Where?

Humam: In south of Syria (- -) north of Syria, north of Syria

Researcher: Yes.

Humam: North of Aleppo exactly and really we **still** (were working) about twelve hours like this...

Researcher: Oh, my God. A long time...

Humam: But we still focus.

Researcher: You should...

Humam: When we...when we stop and **back** (get back) to Aleppo, I sleep about fourteen hours, really!

Researcher: To compensate

Humam: Yes, but that, I like it in general

Researcher: Great, great, great. What about you? Do you like your study?

Dua'a: Sometimes I like it and sometimes I don't like it because there are teachers, a **lots** (lot) of **mathematic** (mathematics) in our university. It's a (Θ) hard يعني [ya^{ny}] (I mean). May be **computer** (the computer) **doesn't** (isn't) **related** (relate) to **mathematic** (mathematics) at all or sometimes...

Researcher: Although it is based on mathematics

Dua'a: Yes!

Researcher: like zero, digital, digit, zero, one,

Dua'a: Oh, yes!

Humam: Logic system

Researcher: Exactly

Dua'a: But they teach us a lot of **information** (about) mathematics. I think it's not necessary.

Sometimes, يعني [ya`ny] (I mean), they have to *tech* /tetsh/ (teach) us a **little of** (some)

mathematic (mathematics), not all this information

Researcher: May be because this is the basis for informatics

Dua'a: **In other hands** (On the other hand) , programming and networking **it's** (are) very fantastic

Researcher: Interesting

Dua'a: Yes, you have to...you are **enter** (entering) a new world when you are programming a program or...

Researcher: Have you made any program and put your name on it?

Dua'a: No, not yet

Researcher: Not yet

Dua'a: It's hard right now

Researcher: It's obvious

Dua'a: It's hard

Researcher: And what do you think of doing in the future?

Dua'a: I will be engineer and I (- -) may be I don't have a lot of **hobby** (aspirations) about يعني

[ya`ny] (I mean), or طموحات [tomouhat] (asprations)

Researcher: Aspirations

Dua'a: Because I am always afraid of being not **successfully** (successful)...not *sacccessful* (saksful/ (successful) engineer. I have to to learn a lot of...about computer. Computer is very very **very** (requiring a lot of) big...

Researcher: It's a very big area.

Dua'a: Yes, and I I (am) afraid of this.

Researcher: No, I want you to keep aspiring of becoming important and more intelligent because you are the one who makes your own future

Dua'a: Oh, yes.

Researcher: So, as long as you are working hard, you are going to achieve what you want.

Dua'a: Yes, I'm afraid if because I don't work very hard in my university. I just study...

Researcher: What's your average so far

Dua'a: About **eighteen** (eighty)

Researcher: Eighty...eighty

Dua'a: Eighty...eighty

Researcher: She is not very hard-working, but eighty (laughing). My God, eighty.

Dua'a: No, **it's** (It was) just my first year and this **is was** (was) very easy

Researcher: Easy

Dua'a: Yes, may be the second year will be harder.

Researcher: Now, you are in your second year, isn't it?

Dua'a: Yes

Researcher: Eighty is going to cover your faults in the future, so...

Dua'a: I have ترتيب [tartyb] (succession) on my كلية /kelleya/ (faculty).

Researcher: What's your succession?

Dua'a: I am twenty seven **in** (out of) three hundred

Researcher: Ah, so you are very advanced.

Dua'a: Oh, may be, but I'm still afraid.

Researcher: Yes, yes, but because if you don't feel afraid, you're not going to develop yourself. So, being afraid is the key into success. But, if you feel that you are relaxed, and there is... Yes. if you feel you are relaxed, you are not going to develop yourself.

Dua'a: May be. I always **be** (feel) afraid of exam and marks...

Researcher: Sorry

A'aref: I think that this is not a **good** (correct) idea. If you **just** (keep) thinking about *fell* /fel/ (failing), you...you **must to** (must) *fil* /fil/ (fail).

Researcher: No, I believe for me for instance when I entered...

A'aref: This is your opinion

Researcher: Yes, yes, I am going to inform you to tell you about this. When I entered into my college, my dream was to be a professor. From the very first day of my first year, and this keeps me thinking of how can I develop myself, how can I improve my language. Exactly, so if you feel relaxed

A'aref: If you feel obligation from you **not** (not to be) afraid from fall or...

Researcher: No, no, no. of course, this is something else, but you should be worried. If you feel relaxed and you are not going to fail, you are not going to develop. Because if you feel relaxed, you are going to stay at the same level. But if you feel the competition, but others, you are going to worry of this person or that. You should work harder than them, in order to become number one.

A'aref: I think if you *determain* /determain/ (determine) your *aymz* /aimz/ (aims) and do well to...

Researcher: How can you do well? If you are not pre-occupied, if you...if you...if you don't feel afraid of the future. If you don't feel afraid of the future, you are going to stay at the same level.

A'aref: I agree with you, but not exactly. (Being) **Afraid**, afraid...

Researcher: Not afraid, but...to have an ambition...

A'aref: (Feeling) **Afraid** is important sometimes, but not **all** (the) time

Researcher: Yes, of course. Because you should be confident sometimes and this confidence is...

A'aref: The half of **successful** (success is) confidence.

Researcher: Exactly, exactly, but I need to be pre-occupied. Pre-occupied is to think, keep thinking, not to relax. If you relax, you are going to be one among...

A'aref: A lazy man, you relax.

Researcher: Exactly, exactly. If you are pre-occupied with developing yourself, this is going to push you forward. What do you think about this idea?

Ner: I think (- -) in the future, I am, I am thinn... شو [sho] (what)

Researcher: Thinking

Ner: Thinking, they, they, they...**they** (the) the future because it's *amportant* /amportant/ (important) for me (- -) and *amportant* /amportant/ (important) to me, but always, I (- -) I think in the job (- -) in the my (- -) in my job (- -) in the (- -)

Researcher: So you are afraid of the future?

Ner: Yes, yes of course. We go back to you. Ok, let's talk about something else. (- -) I'd like to ask you about pollution...pollution. Do you think that we are threatened by pollution. Are we threatened? That there is a real fear on our mother land or what? Threatened i.e. مهدد /mohaddad/ (threatened).

A'aref: مهدد [mohaddad] (threatened), Ah. Yes, of course, the earth (- -) **it's** (is) very very **pollution** (polluted) because (- -)

Researcher: Why do you think we have pollution nowadays. Did we have pollution in the last twenty years?

A'aref: In Syria or...

Researcher: All around the world.

A'aref: () It's continuous from past to present to future. But there is a *solve* (solution) **about** (for) this problem...

Researcher: Let's talk about the cause now and then the cure. What do you think is the reason behind pollution?

A'aref: I think in my opinion the first reason is there is...there **is** (are) a lot of cars and *transporter* (transportation). Yes, (- -) traffic jam and, and we we don't care about this problem. It's a *bit* (small) problem we think, but in fact it's a large problem

Researcher: What do you think is the reason behind pollution?

Humam: According to me, the amount of pollution in the world **it's** (is), **it's** (is) the same because in *first class* (developed) countries like U.S.A., Japan, China, not china, like Canada...and so forth They projue, they projue...they make procedures to stop pollution, but it's in third *class* (world) countries like Africa, or another *planets* (country), they didn't do anything. And as a result the pollution that comes from first class countries, **it's** (it) stops. But, **in the other hand** (on the other hand), the pollution from **that** (those) places because like Africa or other place, **it's become** (it becomes) more and more like nuclear *westes* /westes/ (wastes) that they *thraw* /thraw/ (throw) in poor lands or...

Researcher: What do you think is the reason behind pollution?

Dua'a: Earth it's not in very **thirten** (threatened) **thirten** (threatened) كارثة [karetha] (disaster).

Researcher: Disaster

Dua'a: *desester* /desester/ (disaster) in pollution. May be if **human body** (beings) are being very being more careful about earth, that will **stop** (stop pollution) and earth will be very **fine** (good).

Researcher: Yes, yes, yes, but I ask you: "what are the reasons behind pollution?"

Dua'a: May be unrecycled **material** (materials) **is** (are) (the) **very** very main reason for this *resester* /resester/ (disaster) and in some countries *beeble* /bi:bl/ (people) don't care about **recycle** (recycling) and recycling materials...

Researcher: Would you please give me an example?

Dua'a: Like Syria in papers, aluminums, cans anything

Human: Nylon

Dua'a: Yes, nylon

Human: 'Cause nylon **last** (lasts) in the environment for three hundred years to **analyse** (be resolved) itself...

Researcher: To be resolved

Human: Resolved

Researcher: Yes, right. And what do you think? How can we improve our environment and reduce pollution? How...how do you think? (- -) Yes!

Ner: الحل /alhal/ (the solution) يعني [ya`ny] (I mean)

Researcher: Yes.

Ner: I think (- - -) وضع قوانين [wadhe` qawany] (issuing regulations).

Researcher: Having regulations...

Ner: Having regulations **from** (the) government or (- - -) normal (- -) إعلان [e`lan]

(advertisement) أو /aw/ (or) (-)

Researcher: advertisement

Ner: إعلان [e'lan] (advertisement) ممکن [momken] (may be) (-).

Researcher: Ok, ok. We are going back to you.

What do you think is the solution for pollution?

A'aref: I think *resailing* /resailing/ (recycling) as my *follow* /follow/ (fellow) said, but the *covernment* /koverment/ (government) can find people or who **has** (have) **a** (Θ) large money to *polding* /polding/ (build) *factor* /faktor/ (factories), to set recycling the plastic or aluminum or industry or our industry (- -) yes (- -) () I think this is the *call* /ku:l/ (core) of **solve** (solution).

Researcher: What do you think? Another plan

Humam: In my **point** (point of view), we have to use clean energy and re (-) re (-)

Researcher: Recycled.

Humam: Recycled energy like we have air energy. In Syria, in Homs that **call** (is called) فتحة حمص [fathet Homs] (The Opening of Homs) هيك بسموها [heek bsammouha] (they call it like this).

Researcher: Homs' Opening

Humam: Homs' Opening, and some, some energy we can *use* /ju:s/ (use) to provide electricity because generating electricity in the world causing (causes) about thirty percent of pollution by carbon dioxide in the world. We can use...

Researcher: Fuel

Humam: Fuel, yes fuel, we have so many, so many examples of countries that **didn't** (don't) depend of...depend...depend on fuel anymore like Iceland or Norway. (In **Norway**, **it** (they) **consume** (consumes)... استهلاك [estehlak] (consumption), استهلاك [estehlak] (consumption). It **consume** (consumes) about twenty percent of its...**produce** (production)...of its production of energy and eighty percent, it *seres* /seres/ (sends) it to Europe and **Soviet Union** (Previous

Soviet Union) and to *Rashia* /rashia/ (Russia) and other *people* (countries). They make a **completely** (complete) **project** (projects) that...that depends on sun and *air one* (air-based) **energy** (energies). When...we know... when sun is...in general when sun **is** (Θ) **exist** (exists), air didn't come so much or *floor* (ground) the floor. Air didn't come too much and when there is air at *clads* /klads/ (clouds), sun **didn't** (doesn't). We at that make equilibrium in each other and we have *steady* /sti:di/ (steady) energy of each **us** (one of us). And also we have recently researches about wave energy...wave energy on narrow (-)

Researcher: Tide

Humam: Tide, and the tide of...tide area...we can use it. In Scotland...

Researcher: So, so. You believe in the green energy?

Humam: Yes, yes, yes

Researcher: What about you? What will be your solution for pollution?

Dua'a: Green energy is very good. May be *beble* /bi:bl/ (people) have to stop **made** (making) (- -) يعني [ya`ny] (I mean) (- -)

Researcher: Stop what?

Dua'a: Using **car** (cars) and have to, to...and have to buy or to, to *joose* /gu:z/ (choose) bike or have to walk. May be, they have to stop using oil.

Researcher: So, we should change our life styles?

Dua'a: Yes, and our energy restores resource, we have to use *alternative* /alternative/ (alternative)... *alternative* /alternative/ (alternative) energy and just...

Researcher: Is it possible that we use this in Syria?

Dua'a: Yes, in Syria we have a **lots** (lot) of sun, about (- -) in **mosts** (most) days of year. We have (-) we have (-) we can use *weeding* /wi:din/ (wind)

Researcher: Yes, wind

Dua'a: Wind, wind power

Researcher: Wind farms

Dua'a: May be it's useful...we have to use sea power...

Researcher: Sea

Dua'a: *weevs* /wi:vz/ (waves) power. May be it's useful.

Researcher: Has anyone of you gone to any European country? European country? Have you gone to any European country?

A'aref: Wish, I wish

Researcher: Wish. What about you? Have you gone to any European country?

Dua'a: ما فهمت [ma fhemet] (I didn't understand)

Researcher: Have you gone to any European country?

Dua'a: Oh, no

Researcher: No

Humam: We didn't visit all cities of Syria!

Researcher: Have you visited any European country?

Ner: **Another** (other than) Syria. Yes, Lebanon

Researcher: No, I say European

Ner: No, no

Researcher: No. actually, I was in Netherlands, and Switzerland, France, Belgium and Portugal. So most of them use the windy type as energy. We are finished. Yes. I would like to thank you very much for your help.

APPENDIX-K

A Sample of UI Students' Interview

Researcher: First of all, I would like to say "Good Evening".

Participants: Good Evening.

Researcher: And I would like to thank you very much for your cooperation and assistance at this very critical time.

Participants (laughing): Most welcome.

Researcher: Thank you very much. So, I want you to introduce yourself and we are going to talk about your academic life. (- - -) So I want everyone to introduce himself or herself and to talk about their academic life. What's your name?

Participant: My name is Zein Al-Abdein Mansour and I am (- -)

Researcher: In English!

Zein: I'm (- -) (an) **agriculture** (agricultural) engineer.

Researcher: Yes

Zein: I'm trying to get my (- -) I'm preparing for my (- -) Master, Master Degree (- -).

Researcher: Ok, we are going to get back to you. Ok, what about you?

Participant: My name is Neeshan Manokian. (I am) **First** year in the Lattakian University, English Translation and **seven** (seventh) **degree** (level) in استشاري [Isteshari] (Consultation Center)

Researcher: Ok (laughing). What about you?

Participant: (I am) **Muhammad** Galal Hilaly. I'm a medical student at **six** (sixth) year.

Researcher: Ah, excellent, so you are going to graduate this year.

Muhammad: ان شاء الله [en sha'a Allah] (God Willing)

Researcher: ان شاء الله [en sha'a Allah] (God Willing) ok,

So, I want you to tell me about something special about your study in your academic life.

What do you remember that was special?

Zein: Actually, there's nothing special. I can't remember it now, but what do you need

Researcher: Tell me, tell me, tell me about your academic life. What do you remember.

Zein: It was regular. That was يعني [ya`ny] (I mean) (- -) you, you have to...to...*precise*

(specify) your question...

Researcher: For instance you remember a very special thing that happened. These days, you were used, for instance, to be kicked out the class because you were late for instance or (- -) an incident happened to you

Zein: May be in the third year, (- -) I couldn't (- - -) couldn't (- -) move to the next...

Researcher: Yes.

Zein: I **fail** (failed) in this year

Researcher: Yeah

Zein: Because I wasn't sure *apout /apaut/* (about) my special (-) special (- -) my **specialist** (specialty). In the third year, we have some kind of **special reservation** (specialty).

Researcher: Aha, Aha..., so you have to decide

Zein: So, you have to decide

Researcher: I see

Zein: I couldn't (- -) decide, then I failed in this year.

Researcher: I see, I see...

Zein: I have to repeat it.

Researcher: I see.

Zein: You know, this is something from the past.

Researcher: Ok, what about you?

Neeshan: It's my first year. (- - -) Sorry about that but it's my *fourt* /fourt/ (fourth, because he is Armenian) lecture (- -) till now.

Researcher: Yes

Neeshan: It's, it's the first year.

Researcher: I see, I see. Ok, so what's your major now?

Neeshan: English translation.

Researcher: English translation, and do you like it.

Neeshan: Of course.

Researcher: Why?

Neeshan: 'Cause it's in English and I'm improving my English here and it's an English translation *lisens* /lisens/ (license) at the end, it's a **university's** (university) *lisens* /lisens/ (license).

Researcher: License, good, so you need the certificate!

Neeshan: Of course.

Researcher: What do you think of becoming in the future?

Neeshan: I don't know exactly till now.

Researcher: But what do you imagine?

Neeshan: (- - -) May be working in a big company or *koing broat* / koing broat/ (going abroad). I don't know

Researcher: Ok, I wish you all the best

Neeshan: Thank you

Researcher: What about you?

Muhammad: I don't have any special *sings* /sings/ (things) in my study

Researcher: Yes, ok, now what are you working in life other than...other than being a student. do you work.

Muhammad: A *doctor* (physician)

Researcher: Do you work? You are now in your sixth year, isn't it?

Muhammad: Yes

Researcher: Yes, do you work besides...?

Muhammad: No, No. I only study

Researcher: And what do you think about the future?

Muhammad: (- -) In the future, may be I (- -) study internal medicine or surgery. It's enough.

Researcher: Great, Great.

What about you? I want you to introduce yourself and tell us something about your academic life

Participant: My name's Amer Sokkary. I'm studying at (- -) Engineering Institute. Yes, I (- -).

Researcher: In which year are you now?

Amer: I am in second year

Researcher: Ah, so you are going to graduate

Amer: Yes.

Researcher: Excellent.

Amer: God Willing. Yes, I work with (- -) with my study. Not full time

Researcher: Where do you work?

Amer: It (- -) at (- -) it's in *libary* /laibari/ (library), working in *libary* /laibari/ (library) at *dipinting* /dipinting/ (printing) center. **It** (is) just for printing and layout (- - -) architecture things and...

Researcher: Excellent, so this is related to your study

Amer: To my study, yes.

Researcher: Great, and what do you think about the future?

Amer: I...I hope, and I wish to (-) to complete my study and you know it's diploma from the institute

Researcher: Yes.

Amer: I wish to continue and have a *lisens* /lisens/ (license) (- - -) an, another one

Researcher: Great.

Amer: but (- -) I **managed** (manage) to...to go abroad and stay abroad. I don't know if it, if **it** (is) possible, **just** (I) need time.

Researcher: Yes, yes, yes. Tell me about (- -) now we are going to move to something else.

Tell me about the issue of pollution. Pollution...do you find that it is critical nowadays?

Zein: You know there is a *tapoo* /tapu:/ (taboo) in this issue.

Researcher: Do you think now that it's a critical problem, (- -) pollution nowadays.

Zein: (-) About pollution, what what's **the your** (your) question again?

Researcher: Do you think that it's a critical problem, a dangerous...dangerous problem...pollution?

Zein: Pollution

Researcher: Yes, do you the meaning of pollution?

Zein: Pollution! Ah! Yes, yes. I know, **the** (Θ) pollution is (- -) something I deal with in **the** (Θ) daily life...in the daily life.

Researcher: Great

Zein: (Do) **You** know about the (- -) Kweek River. If we can call it a river.

Researcher: Yes! Now...nowadays, it is much better than it was in the past.

Zein: Yes, yes. We deal with **this** (these) issues. I'm, I'm (an) **employeer** (employee) in the General Organisation for Land Development and we have to...

Researcher: So, this is related. This question is related to your work directly.

Zein: Yes, yes

Researcher: Great

Zein: We have to **water** (irrigate) a lot of... a lot of *aires* /eri:z/ (areas). We were work...we were working in the Maskana...Maskana Garb Project and Maskana Shark Project and منشأة

[Monshaet] (institution) Al-Assad Project. We've got a lot of **project** (projects) to deal with...

Researcher: So, what do you think is the reason behind pollution?

Zein: Pollution... pollution (- -) pollution **it's** (is) (a) **general** word. If we (-) we can be more *sbecific* /sbesific/ (specific)

Researcher: Pollution in general...in the environment

Zein: Pollution

Researcher: What do you think is the reason behind this pollution?

Zein: The major *preason* /pri:son/ (reason) is the (- - -) *pad* /pad/ (bad) investment **to** (of) our **resource** (resources)... resources. (- -) By the...if we can...for example the water...when we (- -) when we **puts** (put) our **irrigation** (irrigated) water أو [aw] (or) irrigation...

Researcher: Yes, irrigation...

Zein: No, not irrigation الصرف [alṣarf] (drain)

Researcher: You mean "expelling" the rubbish or what do you mean?

Zein: Not rubbish (- -) **unusing** (unused)

Researcher: Unused water

Zein: Used water.

Researcher: Yes!

Participant: **Sewage water** (sewage)

Researcher: What

Participant: Sewage

Researcher: Yes, sewage

Zein: When we **let** (pour) it in the main (- -) water, it could...it had... it **change** (changes) **her** (its) property...her *properteez* /properti:z/ (properties); **physics** (physical) and chemical, physical properties.

Researcher: You're right...You're right.

What do you think...what are the reasons...other than the one that your friend has told us about?

Neeshan: The main reason is the people of course, but investment as he **saying** (said)

Researcher: So, people, investment, what else? (- -) Why do you think that people are responsible for this? Would you please give me an example?

Neeshan: (-) The rubbish, of course. (- - -) They are (-) trying to build buildings in wrong places, of course. **There's** (there are) many **reason** (reasons), but I can't remember **it** (them)

Researcher: Ok, ok. We are going...Yes. What do you think?

Muhammad: I *thing* /thing/ (think) the main reason is there **wasn't** (a) design in the *past* /past/ (past) for the future. (- -) And now we live in mistakes happened in the *past* /past/ (past) and we suffer from **it** (them).

Researcher: This is a good point. What else?

Muhammad: *Maany* /mani/ (many) cars, many...there **is** (are) **street** (streets)...crowded streets and **not wide** (narrow) aren't wide. This is (- -) all **this** (these) **is** (are) mistakes in the past.

Researcher: I see. What do you think?

Zein: The main reason...I think, **it's** (are) the authorities (- -). A lot of...there is (- -) I don't know what what it's named but it **meant** (means) about trees...

Researcher: If you like, you can say it...you can say it in Arabic... What is it?

Zein: إنو [innw] (I mean), إنو /innw/ (I mean) يعني في مناطق مشجرة [ya`ny fy manateq moshaggara] (I mean there are wooded areas). ازالة التشجير [izalet al-tashgeer] (gardening removal).

Researcher: Ah, ah. Ok, ok. And cutting trees.

Zein: This is إنو /innw/ (I mean) (- -) يعني [ya~ny] (I mean) **effect** (affecting) the the environment and the the the weather (- -) and there is a lot of things as he said "the people", "the daily life".

Researcher: Wrong habits.

Zein: Yes.

Researcher: Of daily life.

Zein: Yes.

Researcher: I want you to introduce yourself and tell me about what do you think about pollution nowadays?

Participant: My name is Sa'eyda Koro. Pollution **depend** (depends) **about** (on) our idea. We just *sink* /sink/ (think) we can clean **in** (Θ) our house. Just (-) we should clean my...I should clean my house...**everything** (that is) about...**happened** (happens) in front of my door **not** (isn't) my business. I don't care...

Researcher: That's great

Sa'eyda: I don't care. I just clean my things and everything **happened** (happens) about **society** (the society) is not my **care** (concern).

Researcher: Good, so we go back to the idea of "wrong habits of daily life".

Sa'eyda: Yeah, yeah.

Researcher: What else? What do you think is that our solution for this. Can we solve this problem?

Sa'eyda: Yeah, yeah.

Researcher: How

Sa'eyda: Yeah, yeah. I work in the sewage water *traitment* /traitmnt/ (treatment). (laughing)

Researcher: Oh, God. I'm very lucky...

Sa'eyda: We try to *trait* /trait/ (treat) the (- -) the water...sewage water and now we have **plant** (plants). We...now, we are going to تأهيل /ta'aheel/ (rehabilitate).

Researcher: Rehabilitation

Sa'eyda: Yes, and make it **more large** (larger) and we shall bring another technology to (- -) improve the way of *traitment* /traitment/ (treatment).

Researcher: Thank you very much. Thank you for...both of you.

Zein: We work for...in the same project.

Researcher: Aha, I see.

Sa'eyda: Yeah.

Researcher: Yeah, I see, I see. Because, this is what we want. So, what do you think is the solution for this problem...pollution in general, not only sewage water, ok?

Zein: Actually, the (- -) the solution, it's very complicated because (- -) the...the...the first...first of all...if we can add *thomsing* /thumsing/ (something) ... the rate of population. In Syria, in Syria, we've got 3.5 percent, that's **great** (large)...great number. (On the) **The** other hand, like in Germany, we've got minus point five six percent.

Researcher (laughing): Ok.

Zein: We've got three point...

Researcher: So the increase of population plays a role. What is the solution. You are telling me about the problem, what is your idea about the solution.

Zein: If we have to (- -) we have to face our problem, we have a bad education **in** (for) our people. We need to tell them how to deal with their daily life...daily life. (- -) We need to change their habits. We need to (- -) the (- -) the problem is very complicated and the solution we can't...we haven't (- -)

Researcher: Ok, thank you

Zein: **Effects** (an effective) one.

Researcher: Thank you. I want you to think of other resources for power, because we know that our power that we are using which is the petroleum plays a very and critical role in destroying our nature. So, what do you think of the other possibilities

Neeshan: We can use **the waves** (waves). (- -) We can use **the sunlight** (sunlight).

Researcher: Good

Neeshan: Because we can use the *metan* /metan/ (methane) gas (- - -)

Researcher: Is it usable?

Neeshan: Yes, of course

Researcher: (- -) So, why do people prefer petroleum?

Neeshan: Why do *beoble* /bi:bl/ (people)...?

Researcher: Prefer petroleum.

Neeshan: May be it's petrol...petroleum **give** (gives) more energy and fast energy than sun or wind (- -).

Researcher: Great, what do you think?

Muhammad: Yes, here, it's the **authorities** (that) may يعني [ya`ny] (I mean) give give give the solution.

Researcher: Hmm

Muhammad: They have to change the whole (- -) energy resource, so يعني [ya`ny] (I mean) it's difficult... difficult as he says

Researcher: Yes, yes

Zein: It's not easy.

Researcher: Yes, yes, (- -) What do you think?

Sa'eyda: I think we have **a great** (great) and a *maany* /many/ (many) *lawos* /lawz/ (laws) in Syria, but we don't يطبق [yoʔabbeq] (apply)

Researcher: Apply

Sa'eyda: We don't apply **it** (them). Everyone **have** (has) **explanation** (explanations) and...Ah, yeah, you can't say: " Don't put this here", but you can say to..."you can do that"

Researcher: I see...I see, that there are violations to the law.

Sa'eyda: Yeah, yeah.

Researcher: it's not strict

Sa'eyda: We know the law, but we don't use it

Researcher: Apply it. Yes

Zein: I see may be...I see the nuclear reactor that **try** (tries) to generate power...impro...prevent us from use it like nuclear reactor.

Researcher: Aha, Aha

Zein: Or...I...I suggest...I think it will be a great **resources** (resource) of energy especially with our situation

Researcher: Is it safe, what do you think? A nuclear...

Zein: It's safe and not safe.

Researcher: I see

Zein: it's safe when we can use it. But don't forget (-) **rubbish** (the rubbish) after...

Researcher: I see...I see...yes...yes.

(Phone rings)

Yes

Neeshan: About nuclear

Researcher: Yes

Neeshan: (- -) It's **benefit** (beneficial) may be because in that way we can *hit* /hit/ (heat) **waters** (water) for all cities and electricity. In Russia, I was **there** (for) two **year** (years) from...two...two years in...before two thousands. (- -) There **is** (was) nuclear station **to** (for;

of) energy. We in...we (- -) **to** (had) energy to all houses. Where I was **live** (living), there **is** (was) **a** (Θ) hot water and electricity and even شوفاج [shovag] (heat generator)

Researcher: Ah, I see

Neeshan: **heat** (heating) all the day

Researcher: Oh, my God. Excellent...excellent.

My friends thank you very much and sorry for interrupting you.

APPENDIX-L

A Sample of PI Students' Composition

APPENDIX-C

Free Composition Test Time- 30 minutes

Write a composition of approximately 250 words in three paragraphs on any one of the following topics: a. Your future plans. b. Family life. c. Your hobbies.

I Live in SyRia with my Family I have ^{two} Tow sisters
sister I Love Them we go at ^{weekends} weekend To
 Farm. we play Basketball, Swimming, reading
 and walking For a Long Time. we enjoy very much
 Then we ^{return home} rettern at home. my mother ^{looks} Look after us.
^{punctuation marks} and my sister ^{writes her} write homework and Study and
 I go To ^{work} The work. I work ^{at} in university. I Love
 my Family and my work very much. after That
 we go To The bed.

APPENDIX-M

A Sample of UI Students' Composition

APPENDIX-C

Free Composition Test Time- 30 minutes

Write a composition of approximately 250 words in three paragraphs on any one of the following topics: a. Your future plans. b. Family life. c. Your hobbies.

To speak about my hobbies is a big deal, ^{especially} specially here in Syria and in our Arabic ^{region} erigion. ~~because~~ This "Big deal" has a big problem with our youngs, then i'm going to speak about my experience ^{for} as an example about this issue. My hobby is playin guitar, I started it when i was ^{14 years old} 14, and i really liked it, ~~to~~ and i could improve so fast and my teachers who were teaching me were really surprised of me, They always said ^{that} that i'm so talented or i had a gift from ^{God} god ~~in the~~ in the way of how could i get on with the guitar. But after ^{one} gone year since i started to ^{playing} learn playing guitar, i had to stop it because of ^{studying} stud ~~because~~ because i had to do the 3rd ~~intermed~~ intermediate certificate. So after a year from stopping playing guitar my parents forgot about my talent, even my teachers of guitar who were surprised about my talent ^{didn't} did ask about me, ~~and~~ ^{so} ~~from~~ my talent had been buried, and some how it was killed. Then you see what happend with me, and unfortunately that what's happening with alot of youngs. So finally i hope a better future for those ^{who are} ~~like~~ like me, and i promise to ^{relieve} relieve my talent.