

LEVEL: MASTER II (LINGUISTICS)

**CONTRASTIVE
ANALYSIS & ERROR
ANALYSIS COURSE
(Semestrial)**



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Course Description

The course consists of two parts. The first part is devoted to contrastive analysis, which introduces students to the concept of contrastive analysis, the fundamental principles for a contrastive analysis, and the steps of contrastive analysis and the strengths and weaknesses of contrastive analysis. The second part concerns error analysis, its definition, the theoretical underpinnings underlying this field, the steps that an error analyst should go through while conducting error analysis. Finally, the criticism and the implications are set forth.

Course Objectives

At the end of the course, students are expected to discuss the significance of contrastive analysis in relation to languages in general. They are also expected to comprehend concepts such as language transfer, interlanguage, interference...etc. Furthermore, they should know of the role of contrastive analysis in linguistic studies. Also, they are assumed to be able to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of contrastive analysis. In addition, they should be aware of the importance of errors in language learning, and know how these errors should be treated systematically and make of them profitable in course and syllabus design. Finally, students should be able to carry out a contrastive analysis of two or more languages and error analysis as well.

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PART I: Contrastive Analysis

1. Contrastive analysis definition

It is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. Contrastive Analysis was extensively used in the 1960s and early 1970s as a method of explaining why some features of a Target Language were more difficult to acquire than others. According to the behaviourist theories, language learning was a question of habit formation, and this could be reinforced by existing habits. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language depended on the difference between the learners' mother language and the language they were trying to learn.

2. Historical overview

The main idea of contrastive analysis, as propounded by Robert Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957), was that it is possible to identify the areas of difficulty a particular foreign language will present for native speakers of another language by systematically comparing the two languages and cultures. Where the two languages and cultures are similar, learning difficulties will not be expected, where they are different, then learning difficulties are to be expected, and the greater the difference, the greater the degree of expected difficulty. On the basis of such analysis, it was believed, teaching materials could be tailored to the needs of learners of a specific first language. Lado himself was an English and Spanish bilingual, who was born in America of Spanish parents, grew up in Spain and then went to college in the USA. He was all too aware of the importance of cultural difference in mastering a foreign language. However, his appeal to compare cultures was not taken up, and in practice contrastive analysis focused on a surface comparison of languages, starting with the sounds, then the grammar and finally - and only selectively - the vocabulary. This emphasis reflected the focus of American linguistics at the time, which was still very much under the influence of structuralism as espoused by the great American structuralist Bloomfield in *Language* (1933). Structural linguistics

viewed language as a rule-governed system which could be separated into hierarchically arranged sub-systems, each of which had its own internal patterns and structure. The lowest level in the hierarchy was phonology, then morphology, then syntax. The lexicon received scant attention from structuralists and the discourse level of language was quite ignored. In fact, structural linguistics coped best with closed or finite linguistic systems, and, for this reason, deliberately excluded semantics from its description. Bloomfield's (1933: 140) conclusion that "the statement of meanings is therefore the weak point in language study, and will remain so until human knowledge advances very far beyond its present state" is often quoted. In the period immediately after World War II there was renewed interest in language learning and language teaching in the United States, and efforts were made at the University of Michigan to apply the ideas of structural linguistics to language teaching, perhaps most influentially by Charles Fries (1945). The approach to language teaching advocated by the Michigan School laid great emphasis on the principled selection and grading of linguistic items for instruction. It was essentially an analytic, atomistic approach, which took a language apart in order to then put the parts back together again in their logical order during the teaching process, and in this sense it claimed to be scientific. Lado himself actually studied at the University of Michigan with Fries, and contrastive analysis became the basis for the strict selection and grading of material for teaching which was characteristic of language courses at the time. Fries advocated a bottom-up approach to language learning from phonology to morphology to syntax with vocabulary being held to a minimum: [...] the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system[...]second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language. (Fries 1945: 3) This structuralist emphasis of the Michigan School found its expression in audio-lingual language teaching, which sought to drill structural patterns, proceeding from the simple to the complex, while filling the slots in the patterns with a limited number of lexical items and insisting on correct pronunciation (e.g. I brush my teeth with a tooth-brush, I brush my shoes with a shoe-brush, I brush my hair with a hair-

brush). Contrastive analysis became associated with behaviorist psychology, which was another separate influence on language teaching, particularly on audiolingual language teaching, and especially in the United States. Behaviorism was a general theory of learning. It viewed learning as habit formation brought about by repeated patterns of stimulus, response and reinforcement. For language teaching this fitted in nicely with the pedagogue's piece of folk wisdom that "practice makes perfect". In other words, learners should be provided with a linguistic stimulus (for example a question to answer, a sentence to put into the negative form, a word to put into the plural form) and be told whether their answer was right (positive reinforcement) or wrong (negative reinforcement). They should be encouraged to repeat correct forms, and, by careful selection and grading of material, possible mistakes should be minimised by the course designer. If mistakes did occur, they were to be immediately corrected by the teacher so that bad habits were not formed. Particular emphasis was placed on the idea that error was to be avoided at all costs, and the idea that one can learn from one's mistakes found no place in language teaching theory and practice at this time.

3. Contrastive analysis Assumptions

- a). The theoretical foundations for what became known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis were formulated in Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957). In this book, Lado claimed that "*those elements which are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult*".
- b). CA is founded on the assumption that second/foreign language (L2) learners tend to transfer into the target language features found in their native (L1) language.
- c). Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture (Lado: 1957).

d). The transfer may be positive or negative. Transfer is said to be positive when a familiar skill facilitates the learning of a new structure. When the patterns are similar, the acquisition of the new pattern is facilitated, but when there are differences in patterns, these differences hinder the learning of the foreign language.

e). James (1980) states that contrastive studies have four main applications: predicting errors in L2, error diagnosis, testing the learners, and in course design, i.e. what to teach (selection) and when to teach it (grading). If such decisions were to be based solely on teacher's experience, they would lose their objectivity. Linguistic analysis constitutes much more reliable ground for generalizations.

4. Language Transfer

The notion of "transfer" has created some difficulties itself since it is a controversial notion. It was defined differently by different people. Lado (1957) and Fries (1945) defined transfer as the imposition of native language information on a second language utterance or sentence, but for Odlin (1989) it refers to cross-linguistic influence. Schachter (1983, 1992) has considered the fact that learners may have imperfect knowledge of the second language and she even proposed that transfer is not a process at all, but rather a constraint on the acquisition process. Odlin (1989, p.27) has brought some observations about what transfer is not and concluded that "Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired". And then he stresses that it is only a working definition. Even recently, Pavlenko and Scott (2002) as cited in Ahmadvand (2008) argued that transfer is not unidirectional but bidirectional and simultaneous that is shown by paradigmatic and syntagmatic categories. All this indicates the degree of the complexity of the notion of transfer without any consensus.

4.1. Types of Transfer

Language transfer is generally divided into two main categories: **positive** or **negative**. According to Gass and Larry (2001), positive transfer results in correct utterances and facilitates language learning. Basically, the learner's L1 might facilitate L2 learning. Lado (1957, 158) asserts that "The basic premise of CA hypothesis is that language learning can be more successful when the two languages – the native and the foreign – are similar". Nevertheless, negative transfer results with incorrect outcomes. It results in deviations from the TL. Al-khresheh (2013) points out that there are four types of divergences that are caused by differences between NL and TL. They can be summarised as follows:

a) Overproduction

Learners produce a given L2 structure with much greater occurrence than natives of L2 do. They can often be as a result of underproduction. Instead, learners make extreme use of what they supposed to be correct and acceptable; consequently, resulting in overuse of certain words or structures.

b) Underproduction (or avoidance)

Learners produce hardly any or no examples of L2 structure. They can often be caused by conscious avoidance of complex L2 structures.

✓ Misinterpretation

This type of errors occurs when L1 structures influence the interpretation of L2 messages.

✓ Production

This type of errors can be classified into six categories: *substitutions* (i.e. think is pronounced as /fink/ in Poland and /sink/ in Egypt, people as /beoble/ in Arabic, love as /laugh/ in Saudi Arabia, fish as /fis/ in Malaysia, and thirty as /dirty/ in India), *calques*, *under-differentiation*, *over-differentiation*, *hypercorrection and alterations of structures*. According to Odlin (2003, 37), calques, substitutions and alterations of structures compose most forms of production errors.

5. CAH Versions

In view of predictability, CAH is classified into strong and weak versions.

i. The strong version of CAH

Wardhaugh (1970) classified the strong version of CAH as the version that claims ability to predict difficulty through contrastive analysis. The assumption is that the two languages can be compared a priori.

ii. The weak version of CAH

Here, the emphasis shifts from the predictive power to the relative difficulty to the explanatory power of observable errors. The weak version focuses not on the a priori prediction of linguistic difficulties, but on the a posteriori explanation of the sources of errors in language learning.

6. Steps for Contrastive Analysis

As mentioned earlier, CA can be used to understand the differences as well as the similarities between the learner's NL and the TL. Knowledge of the similarities and differences can be of great help in understanding L2 errors. Therefore, following the CA gives a great systemic description to the both languages (L1 & L2). CA can be broken down to a set of component procedures. The five steps for making a systematic comparison and contrast of any two languages are: Selection - description - comparison - prediction - verification.

a) Selection

The first step is to select or take the two languages, L1 and L2, and writing formal descriptions of them (or choosing descriptions of them). Writing a formal description needs choosing a special theoretical model which can be traditional, structural or transformational. In this step, there is a need to decide what is to be contrasted/compared with what. That is because it is quite difficult to compare everything (sound, word, structure...etc) so the analysis should be limited to a specific category. Once the selection is done, the selected linguistic units/structures can be described.

b. Description

This step is called 'description'. The two languages should be linguistically described within the same theory which is CA. The main focus should be on the differences. Third, having described the linguistic-selected units, it is crucial to compare the structures with each other. This step is called 'comparison'.

c. Comparison

In this step, the differences and similarities can be compared in form or meaning. Here, the term 'form' refers to any linguistic unit of any size. It is impossible to clearly compare the two languages without giving a full description.

d. Prediction

It is about making a prediction of difficulty through the contrast. The CA can noticeably predict for the similarities and differences of the two compared languages. Based on the researcher's knowledge, he/she can judge if the differences and similarities are problematic or not.

e. Verification

Here, the researcher should find out whether the predictions given in the previous step (prediction) are true or not.

7. Arabic & English contrast

a. English Letters and Sounds

According to Pronunciation tips from bbclearningenglish.com

- There are 26 letters in the English alphabet but there are over 40 sounds in the English language. This means that the number of sounds in a word is not always the same as the number of letters. For example: The word '**CAT**' has three letters and three sounds but the word '**CATCH**' has five letters but still only three sounds. If we write these words using phonemic symbols, we can see exactly how many sounds they have. *CAT* is written /k æ t/, *CATCH* is written /k æ tʃ/ In '**CATCH**' the three letters TCH are one sound represented by one phonemic symbol /tʃ/.
- English letters are divided to **21 consonants** letters and **5 vowels**.

- There are **5 vowel** letters “a, e, I, o, u”, but there are **20 sounds** for these vowels, short vowels, long vowels and diphthongs. (Appendix3).
- English letters can come initially, in the middle or finally in words.
- The English Alphabet has 26 letters. In alphabetical order, they are: a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

According to ([English Alphabet English Club](#)) , Five of these letters are "vowels". Twenty one are "consonants":

| | | | | | |
|---------------|-------|-------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| 5 vowels | a | e | i | o | u |
| 21 consonants | b c d | f g h | j k l m n | p q r s t | v w x y z |

Each letter may be written as a "large letter" (capital) or "small letter".

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Capital letters | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R | S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z |
| Small letters | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h | i | j | k | l | m | n | o | p | q | r | s | t | u | v | w | x | y | z |

b. Arabic Letters and Sounds

1- There are 29 Arabic letters in the Arabic alphabet each letter has three sound according to the mood () ة ة (there are three sounds for the letters (ة) according to the mood.

to the mood.

2- Arabic letters are divided to:

- **Sun letters**, these letters are 14 letters (ص - ط - ظ - ض - ص - س - ر - د - ث - د - ن) these letters cause not to pronounce the (ل) in ال () when it is written; the (ل); is silent when it precedes them.
- **Moon letters**, these letters are 14 letters (ق - ف - غ - ع - خ - ح - د - ة - ا) (ي - و - ه - و - ك) these letters cause to pronounce the (ل) in ال () when it is written preceding them.

3- Arabic letters can come initially, in the middle or finally in words.

c. Comparison between English and Arabic in Phonology.

Arabic language is a consonant language, but vowels letters are more in English language.

➤ Plosive Consonants

According to Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic

| English Letter sound | Transcription | Arabic Letter sound |
|---------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| P (pen) | /p/ | پ |
| b (boy) | /b/ | ب |
| t (tea) | /t/ | ت |
| d (door) | /d/ | د |
| k (king) | /k/ | ك |
| g (goat) (general) | /dz/ | ----- |

Notes:

I. The sound of /g/ is not found in classical Arabic, but we find it standard Arabic such as جمال .

II. /t/ is alveolar but /ت/ is dental.

III. /t/ has different sounds sometimes is voiced when it comes:

a- Between two vowels e.g. (butter).

b- Between/n/ & /y/ e.g. (twenty).

c- Between two voiced vowels (at another).

d- Before syllabic /l/ e.g. (settle).

e- Before stressed vowel and preceded by /l/ e.g. (malted).

But /ذ/ in Arabic has the same sound.

➤ Fricative Consonants

According Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic

| English Letter sound | Transcription | Arabic Letter sound |
|---|---------------|---------------------|
| f (for) , ff (off), gh (cough), ph (philosophy) | /f/ | ف |
| v (van) | /v/ | ----- |
| th (the) | /ð/ | ذ |
| s (see) | /s/ | س |
| s (son) | /s/ | ص |
| z (zoo) | /z/ | ز |
| sh (wash) | /ʃ/ | ش |
| ʒ (measure) | /dʒ/ | ----- |
| r (road) | /r/ | ر |
| h (hot) | /h/ | هـ |

Notes:

I. /ʒ/ sound is taken from French and it is not found in classical Arabic but at the end of some words in standard Arabic.

II. /f/ & /v/ sounds have only one phoneme in Arabic /ف/ not like English.

III. /ð/sound stand for /ر/ & /θ/sound stand for /ث/, if not taught at schools, there will be a blinder between these two sounds and the sound /ð/ may stand for /ر/ or /ص/, and /θ/ may stand for /ث/ or /ط/.

IV. /s/sound can stand for /ط/ as in (sun); /s/ can stand for /ص/ as in son.

➤ Nasal Consonants

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic identified

| English Letter sound | Transcription | Arabic Letter sound |
|----------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| m (man) | /m/ | م |
| N (near) | /n/ | ن |
| Ng (bring) | /ŋ/ | ----- |
| | | |

Note:

ŋ sound is not found in Arabic

➤ **Lateral Consonants**

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic postulates

| English Letter sound | Transcription | Arabic Letter sound |
|--------------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| Clear “l” (clear, leave) | /l/ | ل |
| Dark “l” (feel, people) | /l/ | ل |

- I. Clear “l” before vowel such as in (live) & (leave) and before j (jelly).
- II. Dark “l” is only used before all consonants such as (cold) in (and finally such as (vessel).
- III. Both clear “l” and dark “l” stand for the Arabic letter “ل”.

➤ **Semi Vowel**

Daniel (1996) (in Arabic) claimed

| English Letter sound | Transcription | Arabic Letter sound |
|----------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| “w” ” | /w/ | و |
| “y” ” | /y/ | ي |

Notes:

- 1- “W” seems bilabial when make our lips round but it is velar sound.
 - 2- We call them semi vowels because they behave as vowels.
- e.g. a- go /gou/, /gow/ b- day /dei/, /dey/

➤ **Vowels**

Daniel (1996) and Aiman (2012) in Arabic claimed

English Language vowels & sounds vs. Arabic Language vowels and sounds.

English main vowels are: “a” “e” “o” “I” “u” but Arabic vowels are:

”ا” ”ا” ”و” ”ي” .

- 1- Some English vowel sounds are exchanged by mood in Arabic such as: / /, / // /.
- 2- /i/ such as in **bit**, it is difficult in Arabic.
- 3- /i:/ such as in **beat**, in Arabic it is higher sound.

- /ɛ/ **not** found in Arabic but it can be compared to ” ”.
- 4- /e/ it is found in Arabic / bed/.
- 5- /e/, /e:/, /æ/ are various in English phoneme (separate phoneme) not like Arabic same Phoneme /ə/ .
- 6- /ʌ/ **such** as in “**cut**”, it looks like “ ” in Arabic.
- 7- /u/ stand for “ ”in Arabic.
- 8- /u:/ stand for " و" in Arabic.
- 9- It is difficult for students to differentiate between /u/ like in “**book**” and /u: / like in “**spoon**”.
- 10- /ɔ/ such as in “**hot**” not found in Arabic.
- 11- /ɔ:/ such as in “**tall**” not found in Arabic.
- 12- /ə/ most common sound in English but not found in Arabic.
- /ə:/ not found in Arabic, instead mood is used in Arabic such as /a/ /u/ /i/
- 13- Stress is used in English language such as in ”**seat**” but in Arabic there is gimation , //

| English Language Writing System | Arabic Language Writing System |
|--|---|
| <p>1- Writing from left to write.</p> <p>2- There are capital and small letters.</p> <p>3- There is italic in writing.</p> <p>4- There is a different between typing and writing.</p> <p>5- There are no identical letters</p> <p>6- Most of the letters are written above the lines.</p> <p>7- There is a difference between pronouncing and writing.</p> | <p>1- Writing from right to left.</p> <p>2- One form and no capitalization.</p> <p>3- No italic in writing.</p> <p>4- There is no different between typing and Writing.</p> <p>5- There are identical letters in forms but the different in dotes such as: ب، ج، ح، خ and ت، ث .</p> <p>6- Some letters are written below the line.</p> <p>7- There is no difference between pronouncing and writing.</p> |

8. Branches Involved in Contrastive Analysis

The branches which contrastive analysis is involved are **Translation, Teaching, Linguistics, Textbook Writing, and Error Analysis**. These are discussed in details as follows:

✓ **Translation**

As regard to translation as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

- a. As a translator, she/he should be faithful to the text, so she/he should know the exact equivalents in two languages (Source Language (SL) and target Language (TL)).
- b. A translator understands that most of the differences in two languages are not semantically but culturally.
- c. She/he understands that most of these differences comes from:
 - i. Different beliefs;
 - ii. Different values; and
 - iii. Different patterns of thought.

✓ **Teaching**

Learning the second language is different from acquiring the first language. A child acquiring English as a native language makes perceptual differences about different languages, he acquires language system. But an Arabic child who is learning English as his / her second language does not have this perception about different situations, he / she just learns the language. e.g.: the concept of the word "cousin" for an English child is completely different from that of an Arabic child.

The Contrastive Analysis can help teachers to do the following:

- To design teaching and learning materials (methodology);
- To engage learner in activities to be a good user of target language.(classroom activities);
- To evaluate text books;
- To pay attention to the structure of the texts beyond sentence level;
- To pay attention to conversation in its regular pattern in different situations;
- To pay attention to complex areas like intonation; and
- To pay attention to different underlying rules those differ from culture to culture.

The Contrastive Analysis does not suggest a method or a teaching technique but it helps methodologists to pay attention to the **Whats** of teaching and **Hows** of teaching.

✓ **Linguistics**

As regard to linguistics as a branch involved in the Contrastive Analysis, there are the following points to be taken into consideration:

- The Contrastive Analysis pays attention to different languages at the lexical, phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantic levels; and
- The Contrastive studies find similarities and differences between languages in:
 - i. Grammatical structures (pronouns, articles, verbs, consonants and vowels)
 - ii. b) Sentences and constructions (interrogatives, relatives, negatives, normal phrases, syllables, diphthongs...)
 - iii. c) Rules of the compared languages (interrogative, passivization ... etc.)

According to Richards (1971), researches show that contrastive analysis may be most predictive at the level of phonology and least predictive at the syntactic level, for this, many of the common mistakes are syntactic errors in written work.

✓ **Textbook Writing**

As regard to Textbook Writing as a branch involved in Contrastive analysis, there is what is called the “*Principle Programming for Writing a Textbook*” as well as there are the following two points that should be taken into consideration:

- a) The Contrastive analysis helps a textbook writer avoid using the material with a high degree of difficulty and high degree of occurrence in a same text (which makes the text more difficult); and
- b) The writer should balance among the most difficult items and the least difficult items throughout the text.

9. Criticism of CA

- ✓ The process of L2 acquisition is not sufficiently described by the characterization of errors

- ✓ Errors in L2 acquisition do not only arise from interference
- ✓ The structural differences between two languages are not sufficient to predict the occurrence of errors in L2 acquisition.
- ✓ In its strongest formulation, the CAH claimed that all the errors made in learning L2 could be attributed to 'interference' by the L1. However, this claim could not be continued by empirical evidence that was accumulated in the mid- and late 1970s. It was soon pointed out that many errors predicted by CA were inexplicably not observed in learners' language.
- ✓ Even more confusingly, some uniform errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1. It thus became clear that CA could not predict learning difficulties, and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of errors. These developments, along with the decline of the behaviorist and structuralist paradigms considerably weakened the appeal of CA.
- ✓ James (1980) states that contrastive studies have four main applications: predicting errors in L2, error diagnosis, testing the learners, and in course design, i.e. what to teach (selection) and when to teach it (grading). If such decisions were to be based solely on teacher's experience, they would lose their objectivity. Linguistic analysis constitutes much more reliable ground for generalizations.

Part II: ERROR ANALYSIS

1. Error Analysis Definition

Error Analysis has been defined by James (1998:1) as "*the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language*". Schaumann and Stenson (1976, p. 4) state that "*the task of EA is to explain and analyze why one aspect of the target grammar has not been adequately acquired whilst a second is learnt without difficulty*". The systematic analysis of errors made by FL/L2 learners makes determining areas which need reinforcement in teaching possible (Corder, 1974). EA has mainly focused on the actual committed errors by FL/L2 learners and became very popular in the field of applied linguistics.

2. Theoretical Foundations

CA was an effective theory and famous for its ability to compare between the structures of two languages (L1 & TL) in order to identify the areas of similarities and differences between them (Al-khresheh, 2013). Similar structures might be easy for FL learners to master, but the different ones might be difficult, and consequently, might lead to different types of errors. Its main objective was to predict the areas of differences between the L1 and the L2. Consequently, and for a decade, EFL teachers were optimistic about the

predictive ability of the CA approach. However, like any other theory, the CA had some theoretical limitations. Generally, the main criticism was that:

- Not all the similarities between the L1 and the TL were easy to be mastered, nor were all the differences complicated or different (Schachter, 1992). Furthermore,
- CA was also criticized as being insufficient for describing L2 errors by comparing structural differences between L1 and L2.
- Interference from L1 is not the only reason for the occurrence of errors in SLA. Therefore, there was a need to employ another approach in order to clearly describe EFL learners' errors.

EA can provide a good methodology for investigating L2 learners' errors because it plays a fundamental role in *investigating, analysing, and categorising* errors made by L2 learners.

In the field of SLA, EA was first established by Stephen Pit Corder and his colleagues in the late of 1970s and became a very popular approach for describing L2 errors. Corder is the father of this theory. He first indicated it in his article "**The significance of learner errors**" in 1967 when he mentioned that L2 errors are interesting because they can reflect some of the underlying linguistic rules. His theory came as a reaction or a result of the severe criticisms which CA received. Hence, a shift of focus from potential errors to the actual committed ones is needed.

3. Error Analysis Assumptions

As mentioned previously, EA involves a systematic description and classification of L2 errors contained in a sample of learner's speech or writing. EA has challenged the CA on the assumption that FL/L2 learners' errors cannot only be caused by interlingual interference from the L1, but they might also be caused due to intralingual interference from the TL itself. In simple words, EA acknowledges interference from L1 as one of the sources of L2 errors, which makes it to some extent related to the CA.

According to EA, a great number of errors made by FL learners are similar regardless of their MT. Such errors are caused due to intralingual interference or transfer. James (1998) claims that such a type of interference from the structures of the TL itself is the main cause of intralingual errors. These errors can be created without referring to L1 features.

4. Error Analysis Objectives

According to Corder (1973), there are two main objectives of EA: one theoretical and the other being known applied.

- 1) The theoretical objective: It checks the validity of the theories such as the theory of transfer. In other words, this objective can help in understanding **how** and **what** a FL learner learns whilst studying a FL.
- 2) The applied objective: This objective enables learners of L2 to learn their TL more efficiently and effectively by using the previous knowledge of their dialects for pedagogical purposes. Once L2 errors are analyzed, the nature of problems and difficulties encountered by language learners will be identified. Identifying such difficulties can therefore help EFL/ESL teachers pinpoint their students' weaknesses and hence revise their teaching methods and learning materials accordingly (Alkhresheh, 2011).

5. Inter-language

The term 'interlanguage' was firstly used by John Reinecke in 1935. He always used 'interlanguage' to refer to a non-standard variety of a first or second language. It is defined by Larsen, et. al. (1992: 60) as " a continuum between the first language and the target language along which all learners traverse (Larsen, et. al., 1992: 60). By this definition, scholars reject the view of learner language as merely an imperfect version of the target language. Ellis (1994: 351) quoted Selinker's idea about the characteristics of interlanguage as follows:

- (1) Language transfer (some, but certainly not all, items, rules, and subsystems of a learner's interlanguage may be transferred from the first language)

- (2) Transfer of training (some interlanguage elements may derive from the way in which the learners were taught)
- (3) Strategies of second language learning (Selinker talks about an ‘identifiable approach by the learner to the material to be learned’)
- (4) Strategies of second language communication (an identifiable approach by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language)
- (5) Overgeneralization of the target language material (some interlanguage elements are the result of a ‘clear overgeneralization’ of target language rules and semantic features)

6. Investigating L2 Errors

EA is different from CA in the way it *looks, investigates, describes and analyses* learners' errors in general. As stated earlier, CA explains errors committed by L2 learners by comparing between the two systems of the TL and native language of the learners. Negative interference from learners' L1 is not the only source of errors in SLA. L2 errors cannot be only committed because of the influence of their MT. There are certainly some other causes of L2 errors which need to be addressed.

However, such other causes can be clearly explained through the EA approach. According to EA, L2 learners' errors can be attributed to two main different sources:

- 1) **Interlingual** and
- 2) **Intralingual** interference (the effect of the TL itself).

Exploring different sources of L2 errors is needed for the sake of understanding the nature of the language being learnt. EA can help in exploring, investigating and analysing such errors. EA was lately revitalized following important works in the framework by Selinker (1972), Brown (2000). Those researchers have proved the validity of the EA theory in explaining different

types of FL learners' errors such as syntactic, grammatical and phonological errors.

7. Steps for Error Analysis

EA is carried out in four consecutive stages as stated by Ellis (1994, p. 48).

These stages are as:

- (1) Collection of a sample of learner language,
- (2) Identification of errors,
- (3) Description of errors, and
- (4) Explanation of errors". These stages are summarized and discussed in the following subsections.

7.1. Collection of a Sample of Learner Language

Researchers are different from each other in their choice of data collection methods. According to this stage, learners' errors are influenced by a group of important factors. Ellis (1994, p. 49) asserts that these factors are significant in "collecting a well-defined sample of learner language so that clear statements can be made regarding what kinds of errors the learners produce and under what conditions". The factors are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Factors to Consider when Collecting Samples of Learner Language (Ellis, 1994, p. 49).

| Factors | Description |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| A. Language | |
| <i>Medium</i> | Learner production can be oral or written |
| <i>Genre</i> | Learner production may take the form of a conversation, a lecture, an essay, a letter, etc. |
| <i>Content</i> | The topic the learner is communicating about |
| B. Learner | |
| <i>Level</i> | Elementary, intermediate, or advanced |
| <i>Mother tongue</i> | The learner's L1 |
| <i>Language learning experience</i> | This may be classroom or naturalistic or a mixture of the two |

7.2. Identification of Errors

a) Distinguishing between an error and a mistake: There are certain ways to distinguish between an error and a mistake.

- **Error:** It is associated with checking the consistency of the L2 learner's performance.

if he/she always uses it wrongly, then it is an error.

- **Mistake:** If a learner sometimes uses the correct form of a certain structure or rule and later on uses the wrong one and can be self-corrected.

b) The second way is associated with asking an L2 learner to correct his/her deviant utterance. In case that he/she is unable to, the deviations are errors, and where he/she is successful, they are definitely mistakes. Identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is.

c) Corder's model: because Identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is, Corder (1980) has provided a common model for identifying errors in the utterances of L2/FL learners. According to his model "every sentence is to be regarded as **idiosyncratic** until shown to be otherwise" (p.21). His model provides a good distinction:

1) *Overt errors*

2) *Covert errors.*

If a sentence is ill-formed in terms of TL rules, it has been regarded as '*overtly idiosyncratic*' whilst the sentence that is superficially well-formed but does not mean what the learner intends to mean has been regarded as '*covertly idiosyncratic*'.

d) **Interpretation of learners' utterances.** Such an interpretation might reveal the main differences between '*what a learner wants to say*' and '*what a learner has said*'. Corder's model shows that literal translation can be a probable indicator of the FL learners' errors which might be attributed to interference from their own MT.

7.3. Description of Errors

This stage of EA takes place after the identification step. No description can be made without identifying the errors. Such a description of FL learners' errors is a prerequisite for a good explanation of errors. Particularly, description of errors helps in serving three major purposes. These purposes can be summarized as follows:

- Initially, would be to instinctively expound all that is unstated, so as to substantiate an individual's instinct.
- The second purpose can be as a prerequisite for counting learners' errors.
- A third purpose is to create categories and subcategories for errors which can help in the process of developing a comprehensive taxonomy of L2 errors.

7.3.1. Errors types

Corder (1973) classifies FL learners' errors in terms of the differences between their utterance and the reconstructed version. Based on that, the errors can be described in the following three dimensions: **a)- Types of Errors b)- Levels of Errors, and c)- Stages of Errors.**

a) Types of Errors

1- Addition:

- . *Does can he go to college?
- . *He will to go home.

2. Omission / Deletion:

1. *I went to # movie. (the)
2. * My father is # doctor. (a)

3. Ordering / Reordering:

- * I to the cinema went. (I went to the cinema.)
- * We last night went to the cinema. (We went to the cinema last night.)

4. Substitution:

- *I lost my road. (way)
- *I goed home. (went)

b) Levels of Error

a. Phonology (Orthography) Error:

- *I went to skuul. (I went to school.)
- * he is happyer than Maryam. (He is happier than Maryam.)

b. Grammar (Syntax) Error

* I to the cinema went. (Level: Grammar.- type: ordering)

c. Lexicon (Vocabulary) Error:

i. *I lost my road. (Level: Lexicon- type: substitution)

iii. *I enjoyed from the film. (Level: Lexicon- type: addition)

d. Discourse Error: it is beyond sentence level.

A: How are you?

B: The crops were destroyed by the rain! (No cohesion and coherence)

c) Stages of Errors

1. Pre-systematic Stage:

a. Random Errors:

The learner has no any definite rule in his mind. He can't explain his error and naturally cannot correct it. He she doesn't know where he should use the rules and how. He has no any system in mind.

i. *Hassan cans sing. (Hassan can sing.)

ii. *Hassan can to sing. (Hassan can sing. Or (Hassan has to sing.))

b- Emergent Errors:

In these kinds of errors, the learner tries to make a rule and internalize a system in his mind. These rules may not be correct but they are legitimate in the mind of the learner. Again in this stage the learner cannot correct the errors and even after correcting the native speaker he doesn't understand his errors.

Avoidance of structures and topics can be seen here. .e.g.:

Learner: I go to New York.

Native-Speaker: You are going to New York?

Learner: (doesn't understand) what?

Native-Speaker: You will go to New York?

Learner: Yes

Native-Speaker: when?

Learner: 1999

Native-Speaker: Oh, you went to New York in 1999.

Learner: Yes, I go 1999. (Again he doesn't understand the correction of the Native speaker.)

2- Systematic stage:

In this stage the learner is more mastered on language and he has some rules in his mind although these rules may not be well-formed. The system in his/her mind is very near to the native speaker's. In this stage the learner is able to correct his/her errors whenever a native speaker mentions them. She/he tries to convey his idea through paraphrasing. (Changing words to convey the message)

Learner: Many fish are in the lake. These fish are serving in the restaurants near the lake.

Native speaker: (laughing) the fish are serving?

Learner: (laughing) Oh, no, the fish are served in the restaurant.

Learner: I lost my road.

Native speaker: What?

Learner: I got lost. (Paraphrasing and avoiding the use of structure)

3- Post-systematic Errors: (Stabilization)

In this stage the learner has a few errors and has mastered the system. The learner is self-controlled on his/her errors without waiting for feedbacks from someone else.

Learner- *I lost my road; I mean I lost my way.

3.1. Fossilization

If the learner in this stage makes some errors it means his errors have been fossilized and correcting these kinds of errors will be very difficult, these errors are permanent.

7.4. Explanation of Errors

The ultimate objective of EA theory is explanation of errors. Hence, this stage is considered the most important for EA research. In order to reach to some effective remedial measures, Corder (1973) claims that the analyst should be aware of the mechanism that triggers each type of error.

Explaining the nature of errors is a fundamental issue in SLA. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005.p,62) declare that "explaining errors involves determining their sources in order to account for why they were made".

8. Source of Errors

d. Inter-lingual Transfer

Inter-lingual errors result from the transfer of the elements of the learner's mother tongue to the learning of the target language.

a) Transfer of Phonological Elements of the Mother Tongue:

* /sukuul / instead of /skuul/

b) Transfer of Morphological Elements:

* Three clever student instead of three clever students

c) Transfer of Grammatical Elements

* I am going to university at 8 o'clock every day.

In Arabic: Simple Present Tense = Present Progressive

d) Transfer of Lexicosemantic Elements:

Two different concepts in Arabic are used with the same word which makes interference in English:

1. *I can't study in the dormitory because some students open their radios loudly.
2. *He had a quarrel with his woman.
3. *My father bought a new machine last week.
4. *He smokes a lot of cigar.
5. *It was my chance to be in your class.

e) Transfer of Stylistic and Cultural Elements:

* Mr. Hassan are a good teacher. /al-,ustaath hasan mudarris-un gayid/

8.2. Intra-lingual Transfer

The learner applies one rule in the Native Language for other structures in the Target Language inappropriately.

a) Overgeneralization

I always try to study.

We always go to cinema on Saturdays.

Maryam and Hassan always play the chess-set every night.

* He always try to help me.

* I don't know how did they find my address. (Subject –Verb inversion)

b) Ignorance of Rule Restriction

The Arabic learner doesn't know the restriction and exceptions of a general rule in English.

*There are many fishes in the lake.

*Teachers always give us good advices.

c) False Analogy

It refers to the use of certain elements in inappropriate contexts through analogy.

*I think she should remain home and grow up her child.

d) Language - Learning Strategies

It refers to strategies used by the learners in dealing with the target language:

a) Overgeneralization

b) Transfer of rules from the mother tongue

c) Simplification: (we discuss in here) in this strategy learner tries to simplify the rules of target language form himself:

* I am student English language.

* I begin my work afternoon usually.

• Communication Strategy

It is used when the learner is forced to express himself with the limited linguistic resources.

• Paraphrase

"Pipe" (انٲ ب) 'unbuub/ instead of "the water pipe" (انٲ ب اءاء) 'unbuub al-maa'

"

Air-ball" (which the learner makes it himself) instead of "balloon"

• Borrowing

* Don't be tired. Instead of don't work hard. (The learner translates word for word from the native language.)

- **Appeal for Assistance:**

*What is this? What called? (The learner asks for the correct term)

- **Mime**

Clapping his hands instead of applause (Using nonverbal action in place of lexical items)

- **Avoidance**

i. Lexical Avoidance:

I lost my road.

You lost your road?

Uh...I lost. I lost. I got lost.

(The learner tries to avoid the lexical item 'road', not being able to come up with the word ' way' at that point)

2. Syntactic Avoidance:

He finished his homework; he went to bed. (Instead of "Having finished his homework, he went to bed.))

- **Prefabricated Patterns**

The learner memorizes certain stock phrases or sentences:

- Where is the toilet?
- How much does it cost?
- Where is this address?

- **Language Switch:**

Finally, when all the strategies fail, learners may resort to language switch. That is, they may simply use their native language whether the hearer knows it or not.

- **Context of Learning**

The source of error here is teacher or text book. For example wrong or unsuitable usage of a rule by teacher or using dialogues in a text book without mentioning the formality or informality of occurrences may cause some errors for learning.

- **Nonlinguistic Errors: (Idiosyncratic Errors)**

These kinds of errors are specialized to individuals or a small group of learners who had the same teacher, used the same textbook, shared identical learning strategies, but the learners do not have a specific methodology for learning and cannot make a generalization for designing a textbook or give the students a specific learning activity.

9. Criticism of EA

There are three points to consider as to criticism of errors according to Schachter and Celce-Murcia (1977):

1. Focused only on errors
2. Did not deal with avoidance (relative clauses: Chinese and Japanese vs. Spanish and Farsi English passive avoidance by Arabic speakers phrasal verbs by Hebrew speakers)
3. In short, EA did not deal with what the students were doing that caused them to succeed, that is, it did not deal with what led to learning.

10. Conclusion

Error analysis was criticized for misdiagnosing student learning problems due to their "avoidance" of certain difficult L2 elements. The result today is that both contrastive analysis and error analysis are rarely used in identifying L2 learner problem areas. The debate over contrastive analysis and error analysis has virtually disappeared in the last ten years. Most researchers agree that contrastive analysis and error analysis alone can't predict or account for the myriad errors encountered in learning English (Schackne, 2002).

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Appendix (A)

Appendix A

Appendix I. The nominal phrases with the article *the*

| English function | Nominal phrases in English | line | Arabic translation | Line |
|--|----------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Direct Anaphoric reference | <i>the asses</i> | 7, 9, 10, 35 | الممتلكات | 6, 7, 9, 27, |
| | <i>the servant</i> | 8,13, | الخدّام | 5, 10 |
| | <i>the seer</i> | 16, 17, 22, 25, | العِراف | 12, 13, 17, 19, |
| | <i>the maidens</i> | 20 | الصبايا | 15 |
| | <i>the rock</i> | 22 | الصخرة | 17 |
| | <i>the king</i> | 34 | المك | 25 |
| | <i>the old woman</i> | 37, 179 | المرأة العجوز | 27, 133 |
| | <i>the child</i> | 46 | الطفل | 34 |
| | <i>the room</i> | 122, 131 | الغرفة | 92, 98 |
| | <i>the prophet</i> | 129, 155/15 6, 172 | النبي | 96, 116, 128 |
| | <i>the bed clothes</i> | 147 | الأغطية | 109 |
| | <i>the old man</i> | 149 | الرجل العجوز | 112 |
| | <i>the sound</i> | 200 | الصوت | 148 |
| <i>the scribes</i> | 209 | الكتبة | 154 | |
| 2. Indirect Anaphoric Reference | <i>the bottle</i> | 12 | الزجاجة | 10 |
| | <i>the city</i> | 17 | المدينة | 13 |
| | <i>the old woman</i> | 31 | المرأة العجوز | 24 |
| | <i>the boy's weight</i> | 38 | وزن الصبي | 29 |
| | <i>The child</i> | 39 | الطفل | 30 |
| | <i>the door</i> | 52 | الباب | 38 |
| | <i>the threshold</i> | 53 | العتبة | 39 |

Appendix II. The nominal phrases with the article *a/an*

| Functions in English | The nominal phrases with <i>a/an</i> | Line no. | Arabic translation | Line no. |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. First introduction | <i>a great seer</i> | 9 | عرافاً ماهراً | 8 |
| | <i>an old man</i> | 75 | رجل عجوز | 56 |
| | <i>a voice</i> | 142 | صوتاً | 106 |
| | <i>a sound he had never ...</i> | 199 | بصوت | 147 |
| | <i>a third</i> | 224 | ثالث | 165 |
| 2. Descriptive function | <i>a summer evening</i> | 1 | أمسية صيفية | 1 |
| | <i>a prophet</i> | 40, 54, 63, 77, 78, 84, 109/110, 118, 41 | نبياً | 31, 40, 47, 58, 58, 64, 83, 89, 31 |
| | <i>A prophet</i> | 49 | | 36 |
| | <i>a king</i> | 41 | ملكاً | 31 |
| | <i>A resentful good-night</i> | 57/58 | ليلة سعيدة قالها بامتعاض | 44 |
| | <i>a remark that annoyed...</i> | 60 | ملاحظة | 45 |
| | <i>a long way</i> | 63 | لا يزال هناك وقت | 47 |
| | <i>a beard</i> | 65, 66, 66 | لحية | 49, 49, 50 |
| | <i>a white one</i> | 66 | لحية بيضاء | 50 |
| | <i>a long time</i> | 69 | فترة طويلة | 52 |
| | <i>a good boy</i> | 82 | الولد الشاطر | 61 |
| | <i>A most extraordinary dream</i> | 112 | حلم غير عادي للغاية | 85 |
| | <i>a sacred room</i> | 131 | غرفة مقدسة | 98/99 |
| | <i>a repetition</i> | 162 | تكرار | 121 |

| English function | Nominal phrases with <i>zero article</i> | Line No. | Arabic translation | Line No. |
|---------------------------------|--|---------------------|----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Categorical function | kings | 43 | ملوكاً | 33 |
| | feelings | 51 | مشاعر | 38 |
| | salt fish | 56 | الأسماك المالحة | 42 |
| | old men | 65 | كبار السن من الرجال | 48 |
| | cries | 88 | صرخات | 66, |
| | dreams | 100 | الأحلام التي قد تحققت | 76, |
| | intention | 104 | أي نية لخداعه | 79 |
| | great importance | 126 | أن شيئاً ذا أهمية كبيرة | 94 |
| | questions | 130, 145, 145 | ل طرح الأسئلة بضع أسئلة | 97, 108 |
| | glow-worms | 138 | سراج الليل | 103 |
| | crumbs | 164 | الفتات | 123 |
| gentle appearance and demeanour | 216 | لطيف المظهر والسلوك | 160 | |
| 2. Sporadic reference | payment | 14 | كدفعة | 11 |
| | sacrifice | 18, 29, | تضحية | 14, 22, |
| | | 34 | التضحية | 26 |
| | foresight | 25 | بصيرة | 19 |
| | overnight | 26 | الليلة الفائتة | 19/20, |
| | anointment | 28, 33, | للتنصيب | 21, 25, |
| | beforetimes | 32 | منذ القدم | 24 |
| | eyes | 33 | نظره | 25 |
| | bedtime | 42 | وقت النوم | 32 |
| | bed | 44 | السرير | 33 |
| | sleep | 54, 82, 152 | بالنوم / النوم | 41, 61, 114 |

| | | | | |
|-------------------|--|---------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| | <i>a great trouble</i> | 171 | مصدر متاعب كبيرة | 127/128 |
| | <i>a story</i> | 182 | قصة | 135 |
| | <i>an explanation</i> | 166 | تفسير | 124 |
| | <i>a long day spent in the ...</i> | 183 | يوم طويل | 136 |
| | <i>a thin, wan little face</i> | 191/192 | وجه صغير شاحب | 142 |
| | <i>a hill village</i> | 193 | قرية على تلة | 143/144 |
| | <i>A prophecy</i> | 197 | نبوءة | 147 |
| | <i>a shepherd's pipe</i> | 201 | مزمار راع | 148/149 |
| | <i>A discussion</i> | 206 | نقاش | 152 |
| | <i>a Greek scholar</i> | 210 | متقف يوناني | 155 |
| | <i>a great Hebrew scholar</i> | 214 | متقف عبري كبير | 158 |
| | <i>a great scholar</i> | 215 | متقفاً كبيراً | 159 |
| | <i>a convenient bough</i> | 219 | غصن مريح | 161/162 |
| | <i>a bench</i> | 220 | مقعد | 162 |
| | <i>a younger man</i> | 223 | رجل أصغر سناً | 164 |
| | <i>an idle boy</i> | 230/231 | صبي متبطل | 168 |
| | <i>an old man</i> | 81, 81, 90 | رجلاً عجوزاً رجلٌ عجوزٌ | 60, 60, 68/69 |
| | <i>a mocking stock</i> | 220/221 | تشهير ساخر | 162 |
| | <i>a face that a spirit might wear</i> | 137 | وجه عائد لروح | 102 |
| | <i>a young man</i> | 26 | شاب يافع | 20 |
| 3. Meaning any | <i>a reason</i> | 64 | سبباً | 48 |
| | <i>an answer</i> | 119 | إجابة | 90 |
| | <i>a flame for work</i> | 217 | لهب العمل | 160 |
| | <i>a man he doesn't like</i> | 231/232 | رجل لا يحبه | 167 |
| | <i>a thought</i> | 172 | لأي تفكير | 128 |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---------|-------------------|--------|
| 4. Meaning one | <i>a shekel</i> | 13 | شيكل | 11 |
| | <i>an old man</i> | 21 | رجل عجوز | 16 |
| | <i>An excuse</i> | 59 | ذريعة | 44 |
| | <i>a memory of his dream</i> | 86 | ذكرى | 65 |
| | <i>an answer</i> | 120 | إجابة | 90 |
| | <i>a reasonable thing to suppose</i> | 156 | شيئاً معقولاً | 117 |
| | <i>a little phrase</i> | 162 | عبارة قصيرة | 121 |
| | <i>a dream</i> | 121 | حلم | 91 |
| 5. Generic reference | <i>a spirit might wear</i> | 137 | روح | 103 |
| | <i>a child of that age</i> | 189 | طفل في تلك السن | 140 |
| 6. Unique Role | <i>an instructor</i> | 232 | كمدرّس له | 169 |
| 7. Classifier | <i>A King</i> | 36 | ملكاً | 28 |
| 8. With quantifiers | <i>a little</i> | 12, 122 | بعض الشيء، قليلاً | 10, 92 |
| | <i>half a</i> | 12 | نصف | 9 |
| | <i>a quarter</i> | 13 | ربع | 10 |
| | <i>a thousand years</i> | 77 | ألف سنة | 57 |
| | <i>an excess</i> | 144 | إثر خوفه الشديد | 108 |
| 9. Miscellaneous | <i>a mind (idiomatic)=inclination or desire</i> | 8 | ظنّ | 6 |

Appendix III. The nominal phrases with the *zero article*

| English function | Nominal phrases with <i>zero article</i> | Line No. | Arabic translation | Line No. |
|-------------------------|--|------------------|----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Categorical function | kings | 43 | ملوكاً | 33 |
| | feelings | 51 | مشاعر | 38 |
| | salt fish | 56 | الأسماك المالحة | 42 |
| | old men | 65 | كبار السن من الرجال | 48 |
| | cries | 88 | صرخات | 66, |
| | dreams | 100 | الأحلام التي قد تحققت | 76, |
| | intention | 104 | أي نية لخداعه | 79 |
| | great importance | 126 | أن شيئاً ذا أهمية كبيرة | 94 |
| | questions | 130, 145, 145 | ل طرح الأسئلة بضع أسئلة | 97, 108 |
| | glow-worms | 138 | سراج الليل | 103 |
| | crumbs | 164 | الفتات | 123 |
| | gentle appearance and demeanour | 216 | لطيف المظهر والسلوك | 160 |
| 2. Sporadic reference | payment | 14 | كدفعة | 11 |
| | sacrifice | 18, 29, | تضحية | 14, 22, |
| | | 34 | التضحية | 26 |
| | foresight | 25 | بصيرة | 19 |
| | overnight | 26 | الليلة الفائتة | 19/20, |
| | anointment | 28, 33, | للتنصيب | 21, 25, |
| | beforetimes | 32 | منذ القدم | 24 |
| | eyes | 33 | نظره | 25 |
| | bedtime | 42 | وقت النوم | 32 |
| | bed | 44 | السريير | 33 |
| | sleep | 54, 82, 152 | بالنوم / النوم | 41, 61, 114 |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| | | 60 | بنوم شديد | 45 |
| | good-night | 57 | ليلة سعيدة | 43 |
| | upstairs | 61 | الطابق العلوي | 45 |
| | morning | 63 | للصباح | 47 |
| | time | 65 | في الوقت المناسب | 49 |
| | sleeping | 82 | بين النوم | 61 |
| | waking | 82 | واليقظة | 61 |
| | breakfast | 88 | وجبة الإفطار | 66 |
| | last night | 89 | ليلة امس | 67 |
| | incredulity | 95 | فكرة ذات موضع شك | 73 |
| | courtesy | 128 | الكياسة | 97 |
| | in mind | 133 | ذاكرته | 99 |
| | flesh | 138 | اللحم | 103 |
| | fright | 141 | مرتعباً من الخوف | 105 |
| | fear | 144, 153 | إثر خوفه الشديد شعور الخوف يملؤه | 108, 115 |
| | night after night | 148 | ليلة بعد ليلة | 111 |
| | bed | 163 | السريير | 123 |
| | little by little | 165 | وشيئاً فشيئاً | 123/124 |
| | home | 182 | البيت | 135 |
| | work | 217 | يثر لهب العمل | 160 |
| 3. Generic reference | silver | 14, | الفضة | 11 |
| | water | 17 | الماء | 13 |
| | seers | 25 | العرافون | 19, |
| | anger | 51 | الغضب | 38 |
| | shame | 51 | الخزي | 38 |
| | women | 61 | النساء | 45 |
| | things | 61 | عن أشياء لا يفهمونها | 46 |
| | prophets | 64 | الأنبياء | 48 |

| | | | | |
|---------------------|---------------|--|--------------|--|
| | dreams | 96 | الأحلام | 74 |
| | devices | 161 | الخطط | 121 |
| | hope | 165 | الأمل | 124 |
| | change of air | 187 | تغيير جو | 139 |
| | books | 188 | كتباً | 139 |
| | cruelties | 221 | الإفتراء | 163 |
| 4. Definite Meaning | Joseph | 2, 41, 42, 88, 91, 91, 98, 100, 106, 106, 114, 121, 122, 136, 184, 151, 181, 185, 193, 195, 198, 207, 213, 215, 217, 223, 224, 226, 229, 230 | يوسف | 1, 31, 32, 67, 70, 70, 75, 77, 80, 81, 86, 91, 92, 102, 113, 135, 137, 138, 143, 145, 147, 153, 157, 159, 160, 164, 165, 167, 167, 168 |
| | Kish | 2, 8, | كيش | 2, 6, |
| | Saul | 3, 5, 12, 14, 24, 27, 33, 35, 128, 131, 170, | شاوول | 3, 5, 9, 11, 18, 20, 25, 27, 98, 127 |
| | Shalisha | 4 | شاليشا | 3 |
| | Son | 5, 25, 31, 80, 180, | يا بني | 4, 19, 23, 60, 133 |
| | Zulp | 5 | زلب | |
| | young Saul | 9 | لشاوول الفتى | 7, |
| | Arimathea | 15 | الرامة | 11 |
| | Samuel | 32, 36, 78, 85, 86, 109, 114, 131, 133, 134, 145, 150, 153, 165, 167, 171, 173, 177, | صموئيل | 24, 27, 59, 63, 83, 86, 98, 100, 101, 108, 112, 115, 124, 125, 128, 129, 132, 144 |

Appendix (B)

Appendix B

A Contrastive Analysis between French Vs English

1. A Contrastive Analysis to the languages French Vs English

The following section contains tables which present the differences between the French and English languages. The differences are made in order to help English learners whose native language is French avoid any interference when using the English language.

| Phonology | |
|--|--|
| French | English |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">*Information /ɛ̃fɔ̃masjɔ̃/*Gouvernement /guvɛ̃nəmɑ̃/*Mesure /mɛzʁ/ | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Information /ɪnfə'meɪʃən/* Government/gʌvnmənt/* Measure /meɪʒə/ |

Table 01 : Phonological Differences between French and English

Regarding the phonological aspect, there are different endings which are pronounced in different ways in the French and English languages. Examples of such differences include phonological endings like « tion », « ment », and « sure ». In the French language the final suffixes :

- « tion » is pronounced /tjɔ̃/ while in English, it is pronounced /ʃən/
- « ment » is pronounced /ɑ̃/ while in English, it is pronounced /ənt/
- « sur » is pronounced /z/ while in English, it is pronounced /ʒ/

Hence, when English students whose native language is French start using words with these endings such as *government*, *information*, and *measure*, they automatically pronounce the three phonological endings (*tion / ment / sur*) in the French way. In other words, they try to apply the same French pronunciation rules to the English context.

| Syntax | | |
|---------------------|--|--|
| | French | English |
| Object Pronouns | Le chat boit le lait (-) interference: le chat boit le (+) le chat le boit | The cat drinks the milk (+)The cat drinks it |
| Possessive Pronouns | Ma mère (féminine) Mon père (masculin) | My mother (feminine) My father (masculine) |
| Conjugation | different for each grammatical person | different only for third-person singular |

Table 02 : Syntactic differences of French and English

Like the phonological aspect, the French and English languages have some differences in the aspect of syntax. The first element which usually results an interference is the placement of the object pronoun. In the French language, the object pronoun is always occurred before the main verb. While in the English language, this type of pronoun comes after the verb directly. An example of such interference is illustrated as « *le chat boit **le lait**//////////The cat drinks **the milk*** ». When using the object pronoun, the sentences become « *Le chat **le** boit ///// the cat drink **it*** ». Students whose native language is

French can make this interference « the cat it drink » simply because they think that object pronouns are also replaced before verbs in the English language.

Another syntactic difference refers to the possessive pronouns where the English language focuses on the possession of the subject pronoun whether « my, your, his, her, their, and its » without paying attention to the gender of the object possessed (either it is a male or a female). However, in the French language, if the object being possessed is a male, it should be used with possessive pronoun « mon », and if it is a female, it is used with a possessive pronoun like « ma ». For example, in the English language, speakers can say « my father or my mother ». Despite that the two words being possessed « father and mother » are different in gender, but they are used with the same possessive pronoun « my ». On the other hand, the French language differs in this rule. Language users need to use « mon » with male (mon père) and « ma » with female (ma mère). As a result of such difference, English students whose native language is French feel afraid when it comes to using the possessive pronouns in the English language.

One last difference related to syntax is the way verbs are conjugated. In the French language, all verbs seem to have different forms of conjugation with each personal pronoun. In contrary, the English verbs are not conjugated differently with each personal pronoun. That is, a verb in English conjugation has two main forms. The first form concerns the personal pronouns « I / you / they / we » and the second form incorporates personal pronouns such as « she / he / it ».

| Morphology | | |
|-------------------|--|---|
| | French | English |
| Plural form | Informations <i>le bateau=les bate<u>aux</u></i> <i>le genou = les gen<u>oux</u></i> Œil === Yeux | information = information Boat = boat <u>s</u> Knee = Knee <u>s</u> Eye === Eye <u>s</u> |
| Prefixes | Réel == <u>irr</u> éel Juste == <u>in</u> juste | Real == <u>Un</u> real Fair == <u>un</u> fair |
| Suffixes | <i>Dépend<u>ant</u></i> <i>Le<u>çon</u></i> <i>qualit<u>é</u></i> | Depend <u>ent</u> Lesson Quality |

Table 03 : Morphological differences of French and English

Regarding the morphological aspect, both French and English languages have some differences. In order to compose the plural form of words in the French language, students are required to add suffixes such as « aux », « oux », and/ or « eux ». However, in the English language, plural words are generally formed by adding « s », « es », and /or « ies ». Hence, English students whose native language is French hesitate to make the plural form of English words simply because they expect to add different suffixes and change the word form itself.

Suffixes used to form adjectives and nouns of English language differ from the French language. Therefore, students usually make spelling mistakes when

writings these nouns and adjectives. For example, students whose native language is French write the adjective « dependent » with « **ant** » instead of « *ent* ». This is automatically attributed to applying the rule of the French language « *dependant* with **ant** » to the English language.

Appendix (C)

Appendix C

Contrastive Analysis Between English & Spanish

The Alphabet / el Alfabeto

Learning the Spanish alphabet requires only learning three more letters than are found in the English alphabet. These include ch (che), ll (elle) and ñ (eñe). They fit into the alphabet in an order that also makes sense, following the letter from the English alphabet that starts with the same similar letter. Here is the order they appear in:

a,b,c,ch,d,e,f,g,h,i,j,k,l,ll,

m,n,o,p,q,r,s,t,u,v,w,x,y,z.

English letters are not given names and neither are Spanish letters. However, when you say the letter it has a pronunciation all its own that could be thought of as its name. The following is the Spanish alphabet with a pronunciation guide. Remember, this is not a phonetic pronunciation, even though some of the English letters will have a similar sound. And of course, you need to take into account the Spanish accent.

A: a

B: be

C: ce

CH: che

D: de

E: e

F: efe

G: ge

H: hache

I: i

J: jota

K: ka

L: ele

LL: elle

M: eme

N: ene

Ñ: eñe

O: o

P: pe

Q: cu

R: ere

S: ese

T: te

U: u

V: ve

W: doble u

X: equis

Y: i griega

Z: zeta

Syntax : Sintaxis

Because Spanish and English are Indo-European languages, the two have a common origin from several thousand years ago from somewhere in Eurasia. They are alike in ways that go beyond their shared Latin-based vocabulary. The structure of Spanish isn't difficult for English speakers to understand. Both languages, for example,

use the parts of speech in basically the same way. Prepositions (preposiciones) are called that, for instance, because they are "pre-positioned" before an object. Some other languages have postpositions and circumpositions that are absent in Spanish and English.

□ Placement of Adjectives / Colocación de adjetivos

One of the first differences you're likely to notice is that Spanish descriptive adjectives (those that tell what a thing or being is like) typically come after the noun they modify, while English usually places them before. Thus we would say hotel comfortable for "comfortable hotel" and actor ansioso for "anxious actor."

Descriptive adjectives in Spanish can come before the noun—but that changes the meaning of the adjective slightly, usually by adding some emotion or subjectivity. For example, while an *hombre pobre* would be a poor man in the sense of one not having money, a *pobre hombre* would be a man who is poor in the sense of being pitiful. The two examples above could be restated as *confortable hotel* and *ansioso actor*, respectively, but the meaning might be changed in a way that isn't readily translated. The first might emphasize the luxurious nature of the hotel, while the second might suggest a more clinical type of anxiety rather than a simple case of nervousness—the exact differences will vary with the context.

The same rule applies in Spanish for adverbs; placing the adverb before the verb gives it a more emotional or subjective meaning. In English, adverbs can often go before or after the verb without affecting the meaning.

□ **Gender / Género**

The differences here are stark: Gender is a key feature of Spanish grammar, but only a few vestiges of gender remain in English. Basically, all Spanish nouns are masculine or feminine (there also is a less-used neuter gender used with a few pronouns), and adjectives or pronouns must match in gender the nouns they refer to. Even inanimate objects can be referred to as *ella* (she) or *él* (he). In English, only people, animals, and a few nouns, such as a ship that can be referred to as "she," have gender. Even in those cases, the gender matters only with pronoun use; we use the same adjectives to refer to men and women. (A possible exception is that some writers differentiate between "blond" and "blonde" based on gender.)

An abundance of Spanish nouns, especially those referring to occupations, also have masculine and feminine forms; for example, a male president is a *presidente*, while a female president is traditionally called a *presidenta*. English gendered equivalents are

limited to a few roles, such as "actor" and "actress." (Be aware that in modern usage, such gender distinctions are fading. Today, a female president might be called a *presidente*, just as "actor" is now often applied to women.)

□ **Conjugation / Conjugación**

English has a few changes in verb forms, adding "-s" or "-es" to indicate third-person singular forms in the present tense, adding "-ed" or sometimes just "-d" to indicate the simple past tense, and adding "ing" to indicate continuous or progressive verb forms. To further indicate tense, English adds auxiliary verbs such as "has," "have," "did," and "will" in front of the standard verb form.

But Spanish takes a different approach to conjugation: Although it also uses auxiliaries, it extensively modifies verb endings to indicate person, mood, and tense. Even without resorting to auxiliaries, which also are used, most verbs have more than 30 forms in contrast with the three of English. For example, among the forms of hablar (to speak) are hablo (I speak), hablan (they speak), hablarás (you will speak), hablarían (they would speak), and hables (subjunctive form of "you speak"). Mastering these conjugated forms—including irregular forms for most of the common verbs—is a key part of learning Spanish.

□ **Word Order / Orden de las palabras**

Both English and Spanish are SVO languages, those in which the typical statement begins with a subject, followed by a verb and, where applicable, an object of that verb. For example, in the sentence "The girl kicked the ball," (La niña pateó el balón), the subject is "the girl" (la niña), the verb is "kicked" (pateó), and the object is "the ball" (el balón). Clauses within sentences also usually follow this pattern.

In Spanish, it is normal for object pronouns (as opposed to nouns) to come before the verb. And sometimes Spanish speakers will even put the subject noun after the verb. We'd never say something like "The book wrote it," even in poetic usage, to refer to Cervantes writing a book but the Spanish equivalent is perfectly acceptable, especially in poetic writing: Lo escribió Cervantes. Such variations from the norm are quite common in longer sentences. For example, a construction such as "No recuerdo el momento en que salió Pablo" (in order, "I don't remember the moment in which left Pablo") is not unusual.

Spanish also allows and sometimes requires the use of double negatives, in which a negation must occur both before and after a verb, unlike in English.

□ **questions & negative statements / preguntas y declaraciones negativas**

Spanish does not use auxiliaries to create a question or a negative sentence. Therefore it is common for Spanish speakers to omit them in English.

While an English speaker may say:

Do you want to go out?

I don't like dogs!

A Spanish speaker learning English may well say:

* Want to go out?

* I no like dogs.

Again, simple explanations on sentence structure here is the best approach with plenty of practice using, for example, sentence transformation exercises and so on. On the subject of questions, note also that Spanish uses an inverted question mark at the beginning of a question:

¿Qué hora es?

Behaviors Commonly Observed in Children With Communication Disorders (adapted from [Roseberry-McKibbin, 1995](#), pp. 166–167).

1. Nonverbal communication is culturally inappropriate.
2. Basic needs are not adequately expressed.
3. Initiation of verbal interaction with peers is rare.
4. Responses to initiations from peers are sporadic.
5. Gesture is a frequent mode of communication.
6. Communication to peers is frequently misunderstood.
7. Inappropriate responses are frequent.
8. Difficulty conveying thoughts in an organized manner is evident.
9. Topic maintenance is poor.
10. Word-finding difficulties (caused by factors other than the child's limited experience in using the language) are apparent.
11. Failure to provide significant information to the listener is common.
12. Communicative turn-taking is inappropriate.
13. Conversational topics are perseverated.
14. Questions are inappropriately asked and answered.
15. Frequent repetition of verbal input is required for adequate comprehension.
16. Input is often imitated.
17. Linguistic disfluencies such as repetitions, hesitations, and reformulations are frequent.

¹SAE refers to the variety of English that tends to be the language of societal institutions such as government, business, and education in the United States. However, the use of the term “standard” in Standard American English is not intended to mean that the variety is more correct or more logical than those labeled as “nonstandard.”

Appendix (D)

Appendix D

Contrastive Analysis between French & English & Spanish & Arabic

Grammatical Structure:

Syntax is the order of words and phrases that create a sentence.

1) Spanish word order follows a Subject-Verb-Object (**SVO**) pattern.

Spanish word order is very similar to English word order.

2) English also follows SVO pattern. the negative is placed before the verb.

``While English typically adds an auxiliary verb (**A**), such as a conjugation of *to be or to do*, to a negation, Spanish does not.``

3) In French , the order is **sujet +verbr+ complement D'objet**.but it needs the two words(**ne and pas**).the two negative words are placed around (before and after) the conjugated verb.

4) In Arabic there are : **nominal sentences**< are those that starts with a **noun** .in this case the negative verb --ليس--is used .

However , with **Verbal sentences**, or one that starts with a **verb**, are negated by adding(لا)before the verb.

SVO Pattern Examples:

| English | Spanish | French | Arabic- verbal S | ARABIC – nominal s |
|--|---------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Maria reads the books. S V O | Maria lee los libros. S V O | Maria lit les livres | تقرأ ماريا الكتب | ماريا جميلة |

| English | Spanish | French | Verbal s | Nominal s |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|
| Maria does not eat meat. | Maria no come el carne. | Maria ne mange pas la viande. | ماريا ال تاكل اللحم | ماريا ليست جميلة |

Interrogatives:

Interrogatives are questions. In general, when asking questions in Spanish, the order of the subject and the verb are reversed. This is similar to English. Also, like English and French , a question in the four languages may include an interrogative word (**IN**), such as :

| | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|-------|--------|----------------|---------|
| من | ما | ماذا | لماذا | مى | اين | كم | كيف |
| Who | what | what | Why | when | where | How much_ many | how |
| Qui | Que | Quel_ quell | pour quoi | quand | ou | combien | comment |
| Quién | qué | qué | porqué | dónde | cuándo | cuánto | Cómo |
| English | Spanish | French | Arabic | | | | |
| When is maria coming to the party? IN V S PP p O | ¿Cuándo viene maria a la fiesta? IN V S p O | Quand maria vient –elle à la fête? IN S V p O | مىس تاتيم اريا للحنلة؟ IN V S p O | | | | |

Commands - :

Commands are sentences that tell others to do something.

1) In the four languages , when using object pronouns with an affirmative command, always attach the pronouns to the end of the verb.

| English | Spanish | French | Arabic |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Talk to them. V p i | Hábleles. V i | Parlez leur. V i | تكلم معهم. V i |

Exclamation:

1) In French ,it is often starts with words like : que , quelle, quel , comme. like Spanish they use words such as: cuánto, *qué*, *Cómo*.

And for English , the exclamative sentence begins with (**what , how**)

In Arabic ,the exclamatory sentence starts with(ما), then it is following by ((الفاعل)the form of the adjective , and then object you complain about.

| English | French | Spanish | Arabic |
|------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|------------------|
| How big the house is ! | Quelle plus grande maison! | Que casa mas grande! | ما اكبر المنزل ! |

The Definite Articles:

When it comes to the similarities

They all have definite articles. **But**, there are a slight differences in the use and how much article they have. **That is;**

In English; there is only one definite article the, in Spanish you have to choose **between four definite articles; el, la, los and las** which one you use

depends on the noun which follows; **masculine**, **feminine** means their gender. And just as English case, they can also be either **singular** or **plural**.

el is used before masculine singular

el nino means the boy/ **el** periodico means news paper .

la is used before feminine singular pronouns

E.g : la nina/ la revista means magazine

los and las are used before plural nouns.

French language: It has four forms; **le**(m.s), **la**(f.s), followed by a vowel), **les**(plural).

For the arabic language:

We have **التعريفات**

It is always prefixed to another word and never stands alone. E.g:

الكتاب

Notice that: unlike other languages, **al-** does not inflect for gender, a number or grammatical case.

The sound of the final **-l** consonant, however, can vary; when followed by **a sun letters** such as t.d.r.s.n and few others, it assimilates to that sound, thus ⁵doubling it. For example, the word the Nile, one does not say al- Nile. But, an-Nile but when followed

A remark

⋮

The sound of the final –l consonant, however, can vary; when followed by a sun letters such as t.d.r.s.n and few others, it assimilates to that sound, thus doubling it. For example, the word the Nile, one does not say al- Nile.

The conditional form:

All of those languages; **Spanish, English, Arabic, and French** are a **bit similar** to each other when forming the structure of the sentence; there are two clauses or parts in conditional sentence and the particle for condition :

if for English,

si for French,

si for Spanish

law, ida, in for Arabic language.

Let's take the following example;

if I had a lot of time, I would learn Spanish conditionals perfectly.

If we translate this sentence **in Arabic, French and Spanish**, we will get a very similar sentences with two clauses.

French: si j'avais beaucoup de temps, j'apprendrais parfaitement les conditionnels espagnol.

Spanish: si tuviera mucho tiempo, aprendería los condicionales españoles perfectamente.

Arabic:

إذا كان لدي مزيد من الوقت. **نسوف** أنعلم الشرطية السببية بشكل مثالي

Some problems:

The Spanish conditional tense is formed in exactly the same way as the Spanish future simple tense.

E.g: starting with the English sentence

if we leave now, we will arrive early at time.

The temptation here is to translate the sentence to Spanish as follows: **si** salimos ahora, llegamos a tiempo.

Here the use of the conditional Spanish tense is **incorrect**, it is never ✓ used with present conditional sentence, it is better to translate this sentence this sentences using **the spanish future simple tense.**

Si salimos ahora, llegamos **os** a tiempo.

Preposition

Preposition is a word that Links a noun ,pronoun or noun phrase to some other part of the sentence. It is used to show direction, location or time or to introduce an object.

These four languages (English, Arabic, and Spanish and French) all have many prepositions but they are differ from language to another language in meaning and position of uses. This is what makes learning languages difficult

Some examples :

English préposition « On » :

- Used to express surface of something *Engex :The paper is on my desk. Fr : le papier est sur mon bureau. SP : El papelesta en mi escritorio. Ar : الورقة على المكتب*

● *used to express time* **Eng example** : *She was born on the 8th day of november.*

Fr : *Elle est née le 8 novembre.*

Sp : *Ella nació el 8 de noviembre* *Ar* : *ولدت ني الثامن من نوفمبر*

English preposition « In » :

● *Used to express time* **English example**: *The new semester will start in march.*

Fr : *le nouveau semestre débuta en mars.* *Sp*: *El nuevo semestre comenzará en marzo.* *Ar* : *السداسي الدراسي الجديد سيبدأ في مارس*

● *Used to express location or place* **English example** : *She looked directly in my eyes.*

Fr : *Elle a regardé directement dans mes yeux.* *Sp* : *Ella*

miró directamente a mis ojos. *Ar* : *نظرت مباشرة إلى عيني / نظرت مباشرة في عيني*

Part 1: analysis of English language

1-article agreement :

The agreement of the English article with substantives is not shown since only one form of the definite article « the » and two for the indefinite article « a/an » exist.

2-adjective:

The agreement is not shown between adjective and substantive because the adjectif is uninflected in English.

3-adverbs:

Adverbs are invariable except for the formation of the comparative and superlative degrees.

4-pronouns:

Pronouns agree in person, number, and gender with the nouns for which they stand. **5-noun:**

In English, the noun agrees with a verb in person and number.

6-verb:

Verbs agree with the subject in person and number . If the verb is used with a compound subject, it would be used in the plural number.

If a verb is used with a collective noun as subject, it would be used in the singular number. When two or more pronouns are used as subject of one verb, it requires the plural form.

7-past participle and present participle:

Both of the past participle and the present participle are invariable.

Chapter 2: analysis of French

1-articles:

There are three types of articles : direct , indirect, and partitive.

In French, the article must agree with its substantive in number and gender. It must be repeated before each noun unless the nouns which have collective meaning.

2- adjective :

An adjective, is used attributively or predictively, must agree in gender and number with the substantive which it modifies. When one adjectif is modifying two nouns of the same gender, it will be used in the same gender as the noun. Whereas when it is modifying two nouns of unlike gender, it will be used in the masculine plural form. When the compound adjectives are coordinate , they inflect both parts, otherwise the subordinate part remains invariable. Possessive adjective agree with their nouns as any adjective

3-adverbs:

Adverbs are invariable as to agreement being inflected only to form the superlative and comparative degrees

4-pronouns:

All pronouns must agree with the noun , pronouns for which they stand in person, number, and gender. In case of compound pronoun subjects of different persons , we take the verb in the first person plural if one of the pronouns is of the first person, other wise the verb will be in the second person plural.

5-nouns:

The noun must agree with the verb in person and number. The compound subject composed of nouns takes third person plural of the verb. In case of collective noun preceded by “le” or “la” takes a singular verb. Whereas; collective noun preceded by “un” or “une” plus”de” and a plural noun it takes a plural verb.

6-verbs:

The verb must agree in person and number with its subject. After “ce” the verb is used in the singular, unless the predicate contains a plural pronoun in the third person.”il” (impersonal) always takes a singular verb; a verb is governing a pronoun and a relative agrees with the pronoun, and the one which is governing a subject is followed by “avec” agrees with first subject.

7-past participle:

In perfect tenses; “avoir” does not agree with both the subject and with the preceding direct objects as any adjective. Whereas; “être” agrees with subject in gender and number. The past participle is used as adjectives agree as any adjective.

8-present participle:

Present participle agrees as any adjective, otherwise it is invariable but after “en” it is invariable.

Part 2 : Grammatical differences and similarities

Sentence structure

Similarities:

Both languages have the same following sentence structure:

1. Simple Sentence (S +V+ the rest of sentence)

-He has a book.

-IL a un livre.

2. Complex sentence (S+V+the rest of clause, conjunction + S+V+the rest of clause)

-It is the book which I bought yesterday.

-C'est le livre qui j'ai acheté hier.

3. Compound sentence (S+V+the rest of clause),coordinating conjunction +S+V+The rest of clause)

-He has a book and she has a pen .

-IL a un livre et elle a une plume.

4. Questions

4.1. V+S+the rest of question

Have you the book?

Parlez-vous français?

4.2. Interrogative pronoun +V+ the rest of question

who has the book?

Qui est la?

Differences

Questions

English

1.Auxillary +S+V+ The rest of question

- -Do you have the book?

2. The use of tag question

- He is here ,isn't he?

French

1.N+V+Pronouns+rest of question

- L'homme est -il la ?

2.The use of Est-ce-que?

- Est-ce-que vous êtes bien?

Imperative

English

V+Obj+rest of sentence

Tell me what he said.

French

V+Subject+rest of sentence

Dis –moi ce qu'il a dit.

Articles

Similarities:

In both languages, There are definite articles and indefinite articles .

Differences

English:

It has only three articles: Definite article: **The** (invariable), Indefinite articles : **a, an** (varies only if following word beginning with a vowel).

French

There are different types of articles. **Definite articles** : Masculine singular(Le, l'),Feminine singular(La , l'),Masculine plural(Les),Feminine plural(Les).**Indefinite articles** : Masculine singular(un),Feminine singular(une),Masculine plural(Des),Feminine plural(Des). **Pertitive articles:** Masculine singular (Du),Feminine singular(De la),Masculine plural(Des),Feminine plural(Des).

Pronouns

Similarities:

Both languages have different sorts of pronouns:

- Personal pronouns;
- Demonstrative pronouns;
- Interrogative pronouns;

- Relative pronouns;
- Possessive pronouns;
- Reflexive pronouns;
- Reciprocal pronouns.

Differences

Demonstrative and possessive pronouns

English

In English , they inflected only in number

e.g.

- You, Yours
- This ,these

French

Possessive and demonstrative pronouns have full inflection for gender and number in French e.g.

- Le mien , La mienne, les miens, les miennes(mine)
- Celui ,ceux,celle,celles.

Nouns

Differences

English

A noun has three forms: singular, plural , genitive.

French

A noun has four forms :

Masculine singular and plural, and feminine singular and plural.

e.g.

- **Le Voisin, la voisine, les voisins, les voisines.**

Noun formation

Differences

English

In English the formation of feminine nouns may be accomplished in many ways:

1. by the addition of a suffix (actor - actress)
2. by the addition of a prefix (man - woman)
3. by adjective modifiers (male or female)

Also, the formation of plural forms happens when:

1. adding the endings: -s, -es, -x
2. Or By totally change the word (mouse=mice)
3. There are uncountable nouns.

French

1. the articles are the main designator of the gender
2. Mute **m** may be added to the masculine noun To form the feminine equivalent. e.g. le voisin - la voisine
3. and e may be added to masculine nouns ending in form the feminine e.g. le boulanger - la boulangère
4. Masculine nouns ending in form the feminine by changing **to** and adding **l**. e.g. veuf - la veuve
5. Masculine nouns ending in , change eur to to form feminine. e.g. le danseur - la danseuse
6. Nouns form their plural by adding to the singular .

e.g. l 'ami - les amis

le chapeau – les chapeaux

7. Masculine nouns ending in , change al to to form plurality.

e.g. Cheval-chevaux

8. Plurality can be done by changing totally the word.

e.g. l 'oeil= les yeux

Similarities:

1. In both languages, the feminine equivalent to a masculine noun is a Different word (some cases)

e.g. le roi - la reine

The king –The queen.

2. A modifier may be used to designate the sex, but the gender of the noun itself remains

e.g. le renard male - le renard femelle

3. In both languages, the ending (–s)used to form plurality.

4. In both languages , there are some cases where the plural equivalent to a singular noun is a different word.

Verb

Similarities:

- Both languages have auxiliaries(to have (avoir),to be ((être));
- Both languages have regular and irregular verbs ;
- Both languages have transitive and intransitive verbs ;

- Both languages form their perfect tenses in like manner, by using the past participle of the verb plus conjugated form of the auxiliary verb.

Differences

A practicable comparison may be made from the present tense indicative of both languages:

English

1. English has two verbal changes for present indicative.
2. English has only one form for infinitive.
3. The present participle in English has one form.
4. The past participle in English has two Forms.
5. English there are two conjugations, but it is impossible to determine to which conjugation a verb belongs, since there is only one infinitive form for all verbs. French

1. French has for the present Indicative five verbal changes
2. In French ,there are three forms for the infinitive.
3. French has two forms .
4. French has three forms for past participle.
5. There are three conjugations for verbs in French, the conjugation to which a verb belongs depending upon the infinitive ending.

Adverbs

Similarities:

In both languages, Adverbs modify adjectives, verbs or other adverbs. They usually tell us how, in what way or by what means an action is completed or the degree of intensity of a given adjective. You can

recognize French adverbs because they often end in the suffix , sort of like the English ending .

e.g. Easy = easily.

Facile = Facilement.

Some other common French/ English adverbs and adverb phrases include:

maintenant (now)

plus tard (later)

jamais (never)

souvent (often)

toujours (always)

bien (well)

mal (badly, poorly)

très (very)

ici (here)

là (there)

seulement (only)

Prepositions:

Similarities:

In both languages, Prepositions are words that describe relationships in time and space between two or more ideas, people, or things .

Some examples:

- **sur (on)**
- **dans (in, into)**

- **derrière (behind)**
- **devant (in front of)**
- **Par (by, through)**
- **à côté de (next to ,beside)**
- **Entre (between)**
- **Après (after)**

English was heavily influenced by the French dialect during the Norman invasion of Britain in the 11th century. As a result, the two languages have common grammatical features and contain a lot of similarities as well as differences.

In terms of grammatical categories and systems of the times, French and English have many intersecting points. In both languages, for example, there are auxiliary verbs, participles, active/passive voice, past/present/future tense. However, some differences may cause the interference of French rules in English.

A typical mistake is using the wrong tense. Despite some similarities, there are tenses when French has other means of transmitting a temporal meaning than English. Since there is no analog in French of the English “do”, French students have difficulties when formulating questions. For example, they can make an affirmative sentence with interrogative intonation, as they would in French: “She is dyslexic?”, or they can change the order of words: “How long were there you?”

Although English and French are built on the same syntactic principle (subject - predicate - object), there are many subtleties in the construction of more complex sentences.

Appendix (E)

Appendix E

Contrastive Analysis between English & Turkish

Turkish is a member of the Turkic language group and belongs to the larger Altaik family . It is spoken mainly in Turkey and the surrounding regions and

has about 70 millions native-speakers world-wide . It has borrowed heavily from Persian , Arabic and French .While English language is an Indo European language in the West Germanic language group . Modern English is widely considered to be the lingua franca of the world and is the standard language in a wide variety of fields, such as , international business , higher education ...

A/ PHONOLOGICAL CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS:

The Turkish alphabet is sorted as follows: **a, b, c, ç, d, e, f, g, ğ, h, ı, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, ö, p, r, s, ş, t, u, ü, v, y, z.** The Turkish alphabet contains 29 letters. It contains 8 vowels .Punctuation is the same as those characters used in English.

The English alphabet is sorted as follows:**a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z.** The English alphabet contains 26 letters. Although these two languages use the Latin alphabet, they have different letters. The letters (**ç, ğ, ı, ö, ş, ü**)

in Turkish do not correspond to any letter in English, and the letters (**q, w, x**) are not normally used in Turkish. (For example : English : taxi , Turkish: taksi).

Unlike English , Turkish has **no diphthongs** (Turkish does not allow two vowels to occur together), for example (**köpek , Kuşlar , beautiful , pain**)

Consonant cluster are rare in Turkish (street , control , string ...).

In Turkish, the letters ‘**s**’ and ‘**z**’ are always pronounced as /s/ and /z/ respectively. This is not the case in English , sometimes ‘**s**’ is pronounced ‘**z**’ , for example: **trees** : /tri:z/ not /tri:s/

/ð/ the ‘**th**’ sound as in (then) and /θ/ the ‘**th**’ sound as in (think) do not exist in Turkish , and may cause significant difficulty.

Unlike in English (where it is only pronounced before a vowel sound, for example, ‘run’ or ‘story’, but in most dialects tends to disappear in words like ‘farm’ or ‘butter’), /r/ is always pronounced in Turkish. When learning English,

Turkish speakers tend to pronounce the /r/ when it is in the final position ('poor') or when it comes before a consonant ('hurt').

Turkish speakers also struggle with words or syllables beginning with the /w/ and /v/ sounds : pronouncing *wine* as *vine* and vice versa.

Vowel Harmony :

Vowel harmony is a phonological process which determine what vowel will appear in all but the first syllable of a word. If the vowels in the root are formed in the back of the mouth **ɑ/æ /, undotted/ i /ə/, o /ɔ:/, u /ʊ/** as in *araba /æɾæbæ/* (car), we add *-lar* (plural suffix) to make *arabalar* (cars). If the vowels are made in the front of the mouth (**e /e/, i /ɪ/, ö /əʊ/, ü /y/**), we add *-ler* to *ev /ev/* (house) to make *evler* (houses). Likewise *bankalar /bænkælær/* (banks) but *otobüsler /ɔ:tɔ:bysler/* (buses).

2-MORPHOLOGICAL CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS :

Aggluntation :

It refers to the process of adding suffixes to a root-word , so that a single word can convey what English would take a complete sentence to say . For example : '**they were not coming**' is a single word in Turkish : '*come*' is the root-word ,and elements meaning '*not*' , '*-ing*' , '*they*' , and '*were*' are all suffixes to it : *Gelmiyorlard* .

The Turkish term *ev-ler-den* (from the houses) contains a root-word and 2 word elements , **ev-** (house) , **-ler** (carries the meaning of plural), and **-den** indicates 'from' .

Turkish has no *definite article* unlike English: for example : the house : **ev** , the mother: **anne** , the dog : **köpek** .

3- SYNTACTIC CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS:

The syntax of Turkish is very different from that of English. The Turkish language is characterized as a head final language where the modifier/specifier always precede the modified/specified . This characteristic affects the word order of the sentence which can be described as **SOV** where the verb is positioned at the end but the word order of English sentences can be described as **SVO**. For example (I am drinking tea --- S + V + O)/ (ben çay içiyorum --- S + O +V).

a- Present Tense :(Geniş zaman)

The simple present morpheme (–ır) applies to verbs, and it has the following allomorphs: (-ar, -er, -ır, -ir, -ur, -ür, -r). They are based on the vowel harmony rule as the following example demonstrate:

Ben okula giderim.

I + school + to (-a) + go + present suffix (-er) + personal suffix (I) (I go to school).

b- Past Tense :(geçmiş zaman)

Unlike English, there are two types of past tense in Turkish. Turkish definite past tense (Görülen Geçmiş zaman) is eyewitness tense and it states that something definitely happened in the past. The definite past tense morpheme -dı applies to verbs and it has eight allomorphs (-dı, -di, -du, -dü, -tı, -ti, -tu, -tü). They are based on the vowel harmony rule stated above. The suffix vowel and the stem vowel have to share the same specification for both backness and rounding. Also, the suffix consonant and the stem consonant have to share the same voicing as the following examples show:

1-Henrike üniversiteye gitti. /henrike üniversiteye gitti/ Henrike + university + to (-e) + go + definite past suffix (-ti) (Henrike went to university).

2-Günder mektup yazdı/ .gynder mektöp jæzdə/ Günder + (a) letter + write + definite past suffix (-dı) (Günder wrote a letter).

Unlike the first type, indefinite past tense (Öğrenilen Geçmiş zaman) is used for hearsay and reporting. It is used when the event has not been eyewitnessed personally and for tales and jokes. Turkish also adds the indefinite past tense morpheme *-miş* which has four allomorphs (*-muş*, *-miş*, *-miş*, *-müſ*) to the verbs based on the vowel harmony rule as in the following examples:

1-Ahmet dün okula gelmiş. /æhmet dyn ɔ:kulæ gelmiſ/ Ahmet + yesterday + school + to (-a) + come + indefinite past suffix (-miş) (It is said that Ahmed came to school yesterday).

2- Öğrenci bakkala gitmiş. /ørendzı bækælæ gıtmıſ/ (the) student + (the) shop + to (-a)+ go + indefinite past suffix (-miş) (It is said that the student went to the shop).

c- Future Tense : (Gelecek zaman)

The future tense suffix (based on vowel harmony) is either **-acak**, or **-ecek**. After a verb root ending in a vowel, a buffer letter **-y** is used to become **(-yecek)**. If the suffix follows by a vowel, it will be transferred to **(-eceğ or -acağ)**. as follow :

1-Murat Ankaradan gelecek./møræt ænkærædæn geledzek/ Murat + Ankara + from (-dan) come + future suffix (-ecek) (will) (Murad will come from Ankara).

2-Ben alacağım / ben ælædzæyøm/ I + take + future suffix (-acak) + personal suffix (-ım) (I) (I will take).

Appendix (F)

Appendix F

Contrastive Analysis between Tamazighth & Arabic

1. Tamazighth VS Arabic language:

Many countries over the world adapt the policy of multi-lingualism,by recognizing two or more languages as official languages In a certain country. Algeria is not the exception,thus Arabic and Tamazight are the official languages used in the country. The former was recognized as a national language in 1963,while the latter was upgraded to an official language by a constitutional resolution in 2016

1.1. Tamazighth:

This language refers to the Hamatic language, the language spoken by people who belongs to "Ham" son of Noah. It is used in North Africa.

Berber is a term used by the Greeks to refer to the inhabitants of North Africa. Tamazight was used in this area before the arrival of the Arabic speakers invaders. Meanwhile, Islam was diffused and Arabic replaced Tamazight.

In Algeria, the minority surviving kabyle speakers resist to save their language and their identity from evanescence. Therefore, Tamazight is still spoken in Tizi ouzou, Bèjaia, Bouira, some regions in Boumerdes, Bordj Bouriridj...

1.1.1. Tamazighth in terms of letters and sounds:

Tamazighth has 33 letters, 29

consonants and 4 vowels. The vowels of this language plays the role of

الفتحة، الكسرة، الضمة و السكون:

in the Arabic language. This language uses symbols to be shown, those symbols called "TIFINEGH" which means our writing or invention.

1.1.2. In terms of sentence structure:

When it comes to sentence structure, Tamazighth is very similar to the Indo-European languages. It starts with a subject followed by a verb. For example, "The man went out"..."Yefegh Wergez". /Y/ is the subject and /fegh/ is the verb, /Wergez/ is an additional part.

1.1.3. In terms of Grammar:

Arabic and kabyle are quite distinct, notably at the level of grammar.

In Kabyle; one more tense is used which is urmir ussid (present continuous), besides izri (الماضي), urmir aherfi (المضارع), anad (المرور). Kabyle language employs only feminine, masculine and plural.

2. Arabic:

2.1. In terms of sounds and letters:

Arabic is a sematic language, it came from the word “Sam“Noah’s son. The sematic language is a part from the Afro-Asiatic languages. It was a branch that gradually become independent to form what linguistics called the mother tongue.

2.2. In terms of sounds and letters:

There are 28 letters within the Arabic Alphabet, 3 of it represents the vowels: و
الياء الواو، الألف

Arabic contains : الضمة، الكسرة والسركون yet, they are not a part from the Alphabet, they are used to produce sounds in a certain way. In addition to that, there is المثنوى in Arabic ,however, it does not exist in Tamazighth. For instance,

صبي... صبا... صبان... بزت... بزنان where: Akchich...Lwachoul, Thakchichth. Thinkchichin.

2.3. In terms of Grammar:

In Arabic three main tenses are used;which are المضارع و المجرى

Various rules in Arabic are not present in kabyle,such as derivational words(الشذوق).Additionally,Arabic employs the duality alongside with plural,feminine and masculine.

3. Similarities between Arabic and Tamazight:

When it comes to identifying the similarities between these two languages a lot are found. One major similarity is that both Arabic and Tamazight are means of communication that are used by millions of people inside and outside Algeria. Due to the fact that a lot of words and phrases in Tamazight sound almost the same in Arabic. Therefore,it is easy for an Arab speaker to understand what is being said by a kabyle speaker. The most significant resemblance is the sentence structure that is almost the same in both languages,thus both of them assign gender to nouns and verbs. For example ذهبت the final letter indicates that the doer of the verb is a feminine,the same in the word “truh“ t indicates that the doer of the action is a female. Additionally, the same personal pronouns and prepositions are used in both Kabyle and Arabic.

Appendix (G)

Appendix G

Contrastive Analysis between Turkish & Arabic

Phonology

- Turkish language consists of 29 letters, divided into two groups, 21 consonants and 08 vowels.
- Arabic alphabet is composed of 28 letters, 03 of them can be considered as vowels.
- There are some phonemes that exist in one language, but do not exist in the other one.
- Arabic phonemes do not exist in turkish: ث، ض، ف، ق
- Turkish phonemes do not exist in arabic: g, ç, p, v

Arabic phnemes and their alternatives in turkish

➤ The phoneme 'ق' can be replaced by /k/, as:

« kalam » « كَلام »

➤ The phoneme 'و' can be replaced by /v/, as:

« kahve » « كَهْوَة »

➤ The phoneme 'ض' can be replaced by /d/ or /z/, as:

« zabit » « ضَابِط »

« darbe » « ضَرْبَة »

Vocabulary

| |
|------|
| عاجز |
| جهنم |
| جنة |
| دنيا |

Turkish words origins

| |
|------|
| فقير |
| غريب |
| بسيط |

of Arabic

Arabic Turkish Acil
عاجل

Aciz

Cehenne

m

Cennet

Dünya

Fakir

Garip

Basit

Arabic/Turkish sentence structure

Introduction

Word order is basically the sequence in which words are placed in a sentence. it's important to learn this because placing words in the wrong order will result in nonsense, ambiguity, confusion, and incorrect sentences. As we can see different languages come with different sentence structure as in the case of Arabic and Turkish language which are highlighted under:

Turkish sentence structure

are some essentials that you should help you make communicative basic verbal sentences.

The Verbal Sentence:

The verbal sentence always starts with a fully conjugable verb. The verb can be perfective (past), imperfective (present), or imperative (command). Only particles, such as **قد** *qadd* 'maybe, already', **لما** *maa* 'not', **لا** *laa* 'not', **لي-** *li-* 'why not, shall we', among others, can precede the verb. Here are some examples:

| |
|------------------------------|
| kharaja al-waladu |
| qadd kharajat Sally. |
| !out Go! |
| li-nadhab ilaa assiinama. |

دخ . The boy went out. دخل

ر ج و ا خ . Sally already went. دخل رج ت س ا ه ي ق

Let's go to the cinema. ما ه ب إ ل ي ال س ه ن ذ ل ن

It is an action sentence (i.e. expresses an action). The action is represented by the verb, and this why it should be put at the beginning. If a sentence begins with a noun, then the noun becomes the focus, and the sentence becomes declarative (i.e. states a piece of news of some sort).

To illustrate, let's invert the order of the first two examples above:

دخل رج د د becomes) **ال ول** (Likewise). nominal, verbal(

declarative **د** becomes) **ال ول** verbal

(خ ر ج ت س الی) Hence).

nominal (س الی ق) difference between the two is the focus, and subsequently, the type. With respect to meaning, they are almost the same.

The nominal sentence

The nominal sentence **ج ال** gets its name from the word with which it starts—a noun **اس م**. It has two parts the *subject* or *topic* **ال** and the *predicate* **ال**. The first is derived from 'أبت' to start with' and the second from 'رخب' to tell something about someone/something else.' So, the **رخب** depends on the **أبت م**, i.e. no **رخب** without a **أبت م**. The **رخب** mostly comes second, and it has different forms. This post is about the *Types of Predicate* **أ**.

| Nominal Sentence (3) الجُمْلَةُ الإِسْمِيَّةُ (3) | |
|--|--|
| نُوعُ الْخَبَرِ Type of Predicate | الجُمْلَةُ Sentence |
| | المُبْتَدَأُ Subject الخَبَرُ Predicate |
| مُفْرَدٌ | (1) السَّيَّارَةُ الَّتِي فِي الْحَوْشِ مَفْتُوحَةٌ. |
| شِبْهُ جُمْلَةٍ | (2) الطَّالِبُ الطَّوِيلُ مِنَ الْيَمَنِ. |
| جُمْلَةٌ فِعْلِيَّةٌ | (3) الْبَيْتُ الصَّغِيرَةُ تَرْسِمُ وَرْدَةً. |
| جُمْلَةٌ إِسْمِيَّةٌ | (4) مُدِيرُنَا الْجَدِيدُ عَمَلُهُ مُمْتَازٌ. |
| مُفْرَدٌ | (5) الْمُهَنْدِسُ الْيَابَانِيُّ مَاهِرٌ فِي عَمَلِهِ. |
| شِبْهُ جُمْلَةٍ | (6) أَنَا الْآنَ دَاخِلٌ غُرْفَةَ الْجُلُوسِ. |
| جُمْلَةٌ فِعْلِيَّةٌ | (7) النَّاسُ فِي الْيَمَنِ يَتَنَاوَلُونَ الْقَاتِ. |
| جُمْلَةٌ إِسْمِيَّةٌ | (8) رَئِيسُ أَمْرِيكَا الْجَدِيدُ سَمِعْتَهُ سَيِّئَةً جَدًّا |

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The **أبت م** is always a *noun*, and is almost always *definite*. **أبت م** consequently comes second in the sentence as elaborated up earlier. The **رخب**, on the other hand, can be an *noun single* or *indefinite verbal* a *شبه*, *أبت م* or *أبت م*.

مل ج مل sentence-semi اس ا سمل ا sentence nominal embedded
ج ج ة ة

مل another or ة sentence
ج علي ق

Error Analysis Glossary

Error Analysis Glossary

Appendix: A Compiled List of Terms and Definitions of Error

Addition error: (Norm). “The presence of an item that must not appear in a well-formed utterance. May be a regularization, double marking, or simple addition error”. (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 277). (See Surface error).

Ambiguous goofs: (Addresser). Errors which could be categorized either as interference goofs or as L1 developmental goofs. (Source: Richards 1974; Dulay and Burt ibid).

Anticipation error: (Addresser). “when a sound or word is brought forward in a sentence and used before it is needed. For example: *I’ll put your cat in the cupboard instead of I’ll put your hat in the cupboard*”. (Source: Richards 1985:266).(See Speech error).

Asystematic errors: (Addresser). "Errors which do not exhibit a rule-patterned consistent system: they are not always internally principled; yet they are not totally arbitrary". (Jain 1974: 207). (See systematic and unsystematic errors).

Attempts: (Addresser) "Where students have no real idea how to structure what they want to mean, or where intended meaning and structure are not clear to the teacher". (Source: Edge 1989:10).

Avoidance error: (Addresser). The addresser avoids parts of the language which is not certain of and instead uses other types of strategies to communicate such as approximation, word coinage or circumlocution. (Source: Kleimann 1983).

Common error: (Addresser). Frequent errors shared by speakers of different mother tongues. (Source: French 1949)

Competence error: (Addresser). "Extending Noam Chomsky's distinction between 'competence' and 'performance' we can talk of 'competence mistakes' on the one hand and 'performance mistakes' on the other. This means that a mistake can arise from a genuine failure to understand and master a systemic element in the target language". (Source: Norrish ?)

Covert error: (Message). "This occurs when on the surface of it there is no error, but the utterance does not convey the learner's intention. This happens with "false friends". A learner who says "it is an actual problem" might well mean 'current' or 'topical' rather than 'real'." (Source: Faerch 1985: 283). (Further references: Medgyes 1989:71).

Covert Mistake: (The message). "...These are occasions when the learner says something right by accident. An example would be: We went to some museum and then took the train home. In the student's L1, some is followed by a singular, even when referring to more than one thing- they really mean some museums". (Source: Bartram and Walton 1991: 21).

Deviation: (Norm). A common term used in the literature of Error Studies as synonym of error. It implies a deviation from a reference norm be it a grammar one or a discourse one.

Developmental error: (Addresser). "an error in the language use of a first or second language learner which is the result of a normal pattern of development, and which is common among language learners. For example, in learning English, first and second language learners often produce verb forms such as *comed*, *goed*, and *broke* instead of *came*, *went*, and *broke*. This is thought to be because they have learned the rule for regular past tense formation and then apply it to all verbs. Later such errors disappear as the learner's language ability increases. These overgeneralizations are a natural or developmental stage in language learning". (Source: Richards 1985:78).

The reader must note that in an early definition, Richards (1974:173) uses the term developmental error as a synonym of intralingual error.

Discourse error: (Norm). "...errors beyond the sentence level. Examples include inappropriate openings and closings of a conversation, inappropriate refusals, incorrect topic nominations or switches, and so on." (Source: Chun, A; et al 1982).

Double marking error: (Norm). “An error in which a concept is expressed twice when the language requires its expression only once, e.g. double negation: *we hardly never go* “. (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 277).

Error: A kind of superordinate term which is usually used to cover all kind of errors under all the elements in the communicative event. It has different connotations though, as can be seen along this paper . (See also mistake).

Faults: (Addresser). “ Those errors students make when they venture beyond what they have learned”. (Source: Hammerly 1991:86).

Fluency error: (Addresser/Norm).(Synonym of *discourse error*). (Source: Heyworth, F & J, Arnold 1989:29).

Form error: (Norm/ Message form). It contrasts with *function error*. (Source: Mac Aogáin 1989:54).

Fossilised error: (Addresser). The term was coined by Selinker (1974:36). He spoke of fossilization items as synonym of errors: “Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL. I have in mind such fossilizable structures as the well-known ‘errors’, French uvular /r/ in their English IL...”.

Function error: (Norm/ Message). As opposed to *form errors*. The term makes reference to the wrong use or wrong selection of discourse norms or variables which comprise the communicative event: language functions, speech act, modality, register. (Source: Mac Aogáin 1989:54).

General error: (Addresser). (Synonym for *developmental/ intralingual and common error*). “General errors are those common to all groups regardless of differences in source language structures...Some possible causes of these errors are common psychological processes, common learning strategies, inherent “universal” difficulties or a common sociocultural situation”.(Source: Johansson 1973: 49).

Global error: (Norm/Addressee). This is usually defined as an error in the use of a major element of sentence structure, which makes a sentence or utterance difficult or impossible to understand... It is usually contrasted with a local error, which is an error in the use of an element of sentence structure, but which does not cause problems of comprehension.” (Source: Burt & Kiparsky 1972).

Goof: (Addresser) (slang). “1) An error students tend to make in learning English as a second language, for which no blame is implied. 2) A sentence containing one or more goofs”. (Source: Burt & Kiparsky 1972). Dulay & Burt 85-123 distinguish between interference goofs, L1 developmental goofs, ambiguous goofs and unique goofs.

Independent error: (Addresser). “with the help of confirming evidence from learners’ performance data, the paper highlights what may called L1 independent errors, deliberately excluding from discussion errors uniquely traceable to L1 interference, and thus draws attention to some L1 independent source of errors”. (Jain 1974: 189).

Individual error: (Addresser). “Individual error are those referred to elsewhere as mistakes...These errors occur both among native speakers and second language learners,

may be the result of inattention or other distractions during the test situation". (Source: Johansson 1973:48).

Infelicities: (Addresser). Mac Aogain (1989:55) states that the term has been suggested as alternative and refinement of mistake, slips, and transitional competence. He does not define the term and confusion may arise as in his explanation, *infelicity* is placed as a synonym of mistake and slip on one hand (performance errors) and transitional competence on the other (competence errors).

Inherent error: (Addresser). (Synonym for *Competence Error*). To illustrate this type of error Norrish (1980: 15) refers to a hypothetical German learner of English who may place the verb in a subordinate clause at the end of the clause, because he has not yet learnt that in English, unlike German, this is not usually done.

Interference error: (Addresser). " The interference errors are those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on production of the target language in presumably those areas where the languages clearly differ." (Source: Schachter & Celce Murcia: 275).

Interlanguage error: (Addresser). (*Synonym of interference and transfer error*). "...errors caused by the interference of the learner's mother tongue". (Source: Richards 1974:173).

Induced error (Setting). Errors encouraged by the teacher's way of presenting examples to the students. (Source: Stenson 1975; Kasper 1982; McKeating 1981).

Interlingual error: (Addresser). " an error which results from language transfer, that is, which is caused by the learner's active native language." (Source: Richards 1985: 146).

Interpretative error: (Addressee). "misunderstanding of a speaker's intention or meaning" (Source: Richards 1985:95). (See also perception error).

Intralingual error: (Addresser). "...is one which results from faulty or partial learning of the target language, rather than from language transfer. Intralingual errors may be caused by the influence of one target- language item upon another. For example a learner may produce *He is comes*, based on a blend of the English structures *He is coming*, *He comes*. (Source: Richards 1985: 147).(Further references: McKeating 1981:230).

Language-specific error: (Addresser). (*Synonym of interference error*). "Language-specific errors are those which result from contact between two structural systems. It is these errors which are generally referred to as interference and which are studied by Contrastive Analysis".(Source: Johansson 1973: 48).

Lapse: (Addresser). (*Synonym of Performance/Production error*). (Psycholinguistics), (see page).

Lapsus linguae: (Addresser). (Synonym of *Performance/ Production error*). (Psycholinguistics). (see page)

Local error. (Norm /Addressee). "One that affects single elements (constituents) in a sentence". (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982:277). (Further references: Burt & Kiparsky 1972).(see global error).

Mistake: (Addresser), (Synonym of Performance error). (Psycholinguistics), (Creative Construction Corder's 1967,1974,1981).

Misformation error: (Norm). "Use of the wrong form of a morpheme". (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982:277). See Surface Error.

Omission error: (Norm). "The absence of an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance". (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982:277). See Surface Error.

Overgeneralization error: (Addresser). "An error which can be attributed to the application of a rule of English in an inappropriate situation". (Source: Taylor 100).

Overt error: (Addresser, Norm). An error which is easily detectable and obviously present in a given performance. Medgyes (1989:71) sees overt error as a result of the learner's use of achievement strategies in interactive communication to get his meaning across with a limited competence. As this author remarks overt error refers to communication breakdowns and is not to be seen as synonym with Corder's *overtly erroneous*. (see below).

Overtly erroneous: (Norm). Corder (1973:272) makes a distinction between overtly erroneous and covertly erroneous. For Corder, the term implies that the sentence is ungrammatical.

Parapraxis: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*) "Any minor slip-up or error; most typically observed in speech, writing, small accidents, memory lapses, etc. According to Freud, these were no mere innocent gestures but the result of the operations of unconscious wishes or conflicts that could often be used to reveal the functioning of the unconscious in the normal healthy individual. Commonly referred to as Freudian slip". (Source: Reber 1985:516).

Pedagogical error: (Setting). (Synonym of *induced error*). (Source: Johansson 1973: 110).

Perception error: (Addressee). The term is used in contrast to *production error*. It refers to the absence of comprehension of the speech act in the communication event. See page 5.

Performance error: (Addresser). "Unsystematic errors that occur as the result of such things as memory, lapses, fatigue, confusion, or strong emotion". (Source: Richards "Error Analysis and Second Language Strategies" See competence error and production error. (page 5).

Perseveration error: (Addresser). "When a sound or word which has already been uttered reappears. For example: the president of Prance, instead of the president of France. (Source: Richards 1985:266). (See Speech Error).

Persistent error: (Addresser). (Synonym of *fossilized error*). "errors still being made by advance students". (Quoted in Schachter, J & M, Celce-Murcia 1983: 274).

Pragmatic error: (Norm). (Synonym of *discourse error and fluency error*). "production of the wrong communicative effect e.g. through the faulty use of a speech act or one of the rules of speaking". (Source: Richards 1985:95).

Production error: (Addresser). It has different connotations according to the standpoint from which is analyzed. In the context of Psycholinguistics a lot of synonyms can be found: performance errors, mistakes, parapraxis, slips of pen, tongue slips, lapsus linguae, slips of brain, slip-ups, lapses. (See page).

Reading error: (Addressee). (slips of the eye) (Source: Garman 1990). (see page).

Redundant error: (Addresser). (Quoted in Norrish (1983: 15) who cites Corder as the one who has used redundant error as a synonym of mistake, performance error. "...But if the same student, having learnt this fact of English grammar, then regresses and makes the same error again because he is worrying about some personal problem, his error then be a redundant error". (see also *inherent error*).

Reversal error: (Addresser). (Synonym of *spoonerism*). "When the position of sounds, syllables, or words is reversed. For example: let's have chish and fips, instead of let's have fish and chips". (Source: Richards 1985:266).(See speech error).

Residual error: (Addresser). (Source: Mac Aogain 1989:58). For a definition see *unsystematic error*.

Systematic error: (Addresser). (Synonym of *Competence Error*). "Errors discussed under the category of systematic errors seem to establish that in certain areas of language use the learner possesses construction rules...he is using rules. Because of some kind of limitation in rule schemata, the rules give rise to errors of over-application." (Source Jain 1974:206).

Slips: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*). "This is wrong language caused by tiredness, carelessness, neves etc. In other words, the kind of mistake that anybody, including native-speakers, could make". (Source: Bartram & Walton 1991: 20),(Further reference: Edge 1989:11)

Slips of brain: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*)

Slips of ear: (Addressee). The term points out to problems of auditory comprehension . In Psycholinguistics tradition, Garman 1990: 109), (see page 5). (The term is also quoted as a *modality error* in Eoghan Mac Aogain 1989:54).

Slips of the eye: (Addressee). (A *reading error* in Garman 1990:109), (see page 5).

Slips of the hand: (Addresser). The term covers both *writing* and *typing errors*. (Source: Garman 1990:152).

Slips of pen: (Addresser). "anything from letter-production errors that arise from momentary lapses in manual output, such as writing *-the* at the end of (intended) ...to grammatical and meaning-based errors, including leaving words out or writing the wrong words". (Source: Garman 1990:152).

Slips of tongue: (Addresser).(Synonym of mistake),(Source: Garman 1990:152).(See page 5).

Slip-ups: (Addresser). (Synonym of mistake), (See page 5).

Speech error: (Addresser). (Synonym of mistake). "Faults made by speakers during the production of sounds, words and sentences. Both native speakers and non-native speakers of a language make unintended mistakes when speaking". (Source: Richards 1985:266).(Further reference: Garman 1990) (See also anticipation error, perseveration error, reversal error and spoonerism).

Speech Modality error: (Addresser). "...errors caused by learners not knowing which words and structures to use in order to perform a specific speech act appropriately". (Source: Faerch, Haastrup & Phillipson 1984: 57).

Spoonerism: (Addresser). (Synonym of *reversal error*). “named after Dr Spooner, Warden of the New College, Oxford at the turn of the century, who was reputed to have made a good many of these errors...such as *I think he’s had a daw real (raw deal)*.” (quoted from Garman (1990:151).

Surface error: (Norm). “Classification of errors according to the ways the surface structure of the language is altered”. (Source: Dulay, Burt and Krashen 1982: 281).

Translation error: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*). “...any error which changes the desired response in an insignificant way. Most involve simple substitutions of one syntactically correct structure for another equally syntactically correct, albeit semantically incorrect, alternative. Most can be attributed to simple forgetting or lapses of attention and are, in this respect, comparable to Chomky’s performance errors”. (Source: Taylor 105).

Transfer error: (Addresser). “Let us define transfer for the present as a psycholinguistic procedure by means of which L2 learners activate their L1 Knowledge in developing or using their interlanguage”. (Source: Faerch & Kasper 1987:112).

Tongue slips: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*), (see page 5).

Unsystematic error (Addresser).(Synonym of *mistake*). “.They are the slips of the tongue or pen caused purely by psychological conditions, such as intense excitement, and/or physiological factors, such as tiredness, which change from moment to moment and from situation to situation”.(Source: Jain 1974) (Further reference: Mac Aogain 1989:58).

Verbal lapses: (Addresser). (Synonym of *mistake*), (see page 8).

Unique goofs. (Addresser). Richards (1974) and Dulay and Burt (1974) define the terms as errors which cannot be categorised neither as *interference goofs* nor as L1 *developmental goofs*.

Writing error: (Addresser). (Synonym of *slips of the pen*). (Source: Garman 1990:152).

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| <p>B) Syntactic Errors</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Induced Errors: from classroom situation (the teacher/the designed material) • Selection of incorrect elements Eg. Immigration made of chronic... • Omission of required elements Eg. Even who has no competence or not professional... • Addition of unnecessary elements Eg. Responsables <u>they</u> do not... • Misordering of certain elements Eg. The <u>impacts</u>growing of modern forms of economy... Corder (1973:277) <p>B) Interlingual (Interl.) L1 Negative Transfer/Interference Weinreich (1953: 1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overextension of Analogy <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transfer of Structure <p>Eg. ..from the <u>companies</u> <u>responsables</u>. (Lott 1983 in Ellis 2000: 59)</p> |
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Students' Morpho-syntactic Error Sources with Examples

