An Investigation about the Effect of French Interference in Learners’ of English Academic Writing

Case Study: First year LMD EFL Students, University of Biskra

A Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the Master Degree in English, Science of language

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Academic Year 2015/2016
Dedication:

I would like to dedicate this work to my parents who have shown me a great understanding in hard times:

(I finished this work to be honored with your presence and your tender tap on my shoulders).

To my dear sisters for their support when I was feeling stressed and for their encouragement.

A special dedication to my husband and my angel Mohamed Taj Adin

A particular dedication to my niece Aridje and Rafife.

Finally, I thank all the people who loved and helped me
Acknowledgments:

First and for most, I thank Allah for helping me to complete this dissertation. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Mrs. Aichaoui, without her help, this investigation would have been impossible. Her efficient supervision has saved from me many errors and problems. An appreciative thank is extended to the members of the jury who accepted to read, examine and evaluate my work. Moreover, special thanks go to all the teachers of English at the university of Mohamed kheider who have instructed me, and I am deeply grateful for the pieces of advices I received from them. Last but not least, I wish to express my heartfelt thanks to my family for being supportive throughout my schooling and who never hesitated to give help whenever needed.
Abstract:

The current study aims at analysing written productions of first year LMD students of English at Biskra University for the purpose of understanding the likely sources of the most frequent lexical errors by adopting James’ lexical errors taxonomy. Also, it is designed to narrow down students’ errors and, hence, enhancing their vocabulary knowledge in particular and language proficiency in general. Starting from the assumption that French language may influence students to commit these errors when writing in English. It has been hypothesised that if teachers teach their students differences between English and French language in the first stages (first year), students will diminish committing errors in their written productions. For that purpose, ten (10) written productions have been collected for error analysis. In addition, teachers’ questionnaire and written productions of students’ have been used to confirm the results obtained in this study. This work consists of three main chapters: the first one addresses an overview into the field of FL learning by highlighting some key concepts and approaches related to researches in this field such as: language transfer, interlanguage, contrastive analysis and error analysis. The second chapter is devoted to teaching and learning FL vocabulary. The third part presents the practical work in which the data is gathered and analyzed. The analysis of the data indicates that misformation and Confusion of Sense Relation (CSR) errors are the most recurrent ones. On the one hand, the overwhelming majority of misformation errors are originated in the first foreign language (FL1); French. They can be full transfer, entire words or partial transfer resulted from deceptive cognates or inclusion of some French lexical properties, and they are evidence of lack of English vocabulary. On the other hand, CSR errors manifest in lexical mismatching to express the intended meaning result from literal translation of Arabic meaning into English. These findings make judgement about cross linguistic interference in learning English as the second foreign language in the Algerian context and provide some pedagogical implications.
**List of abbreviations and acronyms:**

CA: Contrastive Analysis.

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CE: Collocational Errors.

CLI: Cross–Linguistic Influence.

CSR: Confusion of Sense Relation

EA: Error Analysis.

FL: Foreign Language.

FM: Formal Misselection

L1: First Language.

L2: Second Language.

MT: Mother Tongue.

NT: Negative Transfer.

PT: Positive Transfer.

SLA: Second Language Acquisition.

TL: Target Language.

VLS: Vocabulary Learning Strategies.
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**General introduction:**

In the recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the studies related to writing and its significance in the academic contexts in which students are required to apply this skill as a main tool to show what they have learnt. Moreover, teaching writing is often about teaching vocabulary which has always been an important issue in second and foreign language learning and teaching. First year students of English language department at Biskra University face many difficulties in producing their written productions and applying their knowledge of vocabulary, and the majority of them are weak in writing. Furthermore, there should be a need for purposeful study that helps us to identify and analyze their lexical errors which are an aspect of their linguistic incompetence and main focus of our research. In addition to, exploring teachers’ attitudes on writing and vocabulary in their classrooms and their views about how their students learn, use and retrieve new vocabularies. Therefore, those learners commit lexical errors when writing because of the effect of first foreign language (French) on the development of writing in English.

1-Statement of the problem

Nowadays, many teachers suffer from the lack of vocabulary and the making of errors among their students while writing their English productions. And this refers to the effect of French language. Therefore; teachers try hardly to enhance and enrich them with appropriate feedback in order to ensure a good learning/teaching atmosphere. Hence, they use many strategies and ways to help them get new vocabulary and reduce their errors. Consequently, learners of the university of Mohamed khaider Biskra have difficulties to learn English vocabulary and write easily.
2- Aims of the study:

Through this study, we aim:

- To investigate to what extent the students have extended their English vocabulary knowledge since they have been instructed for seven years.
- To raise teachers and learners awareness of the importance of vocabulary and to reconsider some materials and methods that may help teachers of foreign languages’ (English) to enhance teaching and learning target vocabulary.
- Encouraging students to adopt some vocabulary learning strategies, storing and remembering vocabulary.

3- Research Questions:

The present study is based on the following questions:

- Do first year students of English include French lexical features in writing?
- Does the existing linguistic knowledge of French vocabulary affect the quality of the student’ written production?

4- Hypothesis

As a first attempt to answer the preceding questions, we hypothesise if teachers teach their English students differences between English and French language in the first stages (first year beginners), students will diminish errors committed in written productions.

5- Sample

We will choose our respondents among students of first year as a sample of study. They will be chosen from the module of written expression and will respond to write
productions. In addition to, seven EFL teachers of written expression at Mohamed Khairer University of Biskra.

6-Research Methodology:

This work will be a descriptive research that focuses on the qualitative method. We have decided to use written productions of some students and a questionnaire for teachers as a research tools that will be useful in collecting and analysing data.

7- Population

Since this study is about the problems that may be encountered by EFL learners who are beginners, we have decided to choose first year students as a population (sixty students) at the Department of Foreign Languages Division of English at Mohamed Khairer University of Biskra, plus seven EFL teachers of written expression.

8- Limitations of the study

We are perfectly aware that there are other factors that can have an impact on the students written production that may directly or indirectly hamper them. Besides the detected deviations originated in French language that can just be mistakes resulted from the lack of attention and they are not serious errors.
First Chapter

foreign language learning
Chapter One

Foreign Language Learning

Introduction:

Nowadays the majority of learners concentrate on learning foreign language not for the sake of pleasure or entertainment, but in order to ameliorate their educational level and obtain an employment. With the great interest of foreign language learning as a matter of concern in the field of second language acquisition, another dimension of applied linguists and foreign language teachers appears to concentrate on language learning rather than language teaching; whereas this does not mean that they neglect language teaching. According to (Grabe, 2002) applied linguists are interested in solving problems encountered by foreign language learners.

As novice foreign language researchers we intend to investigate the problem of lexical errors committed by Algerian learners learning English as a second foreign language in writing and provide some solutions. Therefore, this chapter addresses an overview into the field of foreign language learning by highlighting some key concepts approaches related to researches in this field such as: language transfer, interlanguage, contrastive analysis and error analysis. Then, it ends with stating some external and internal factors that may affect learners productions of a target language.
1.1 Key Concepts

1.1.1 Language Transfer:

Before we define language transfer means we define first transfer. Transfer is a term originally borrowed into second language acquisition studies from the behaviorist psychology and it is defined as the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other one that had been already acquired (Odlin1989:27). Hence, language transfer refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from one language to another language. In applied linguistics the study of language transfer seems essential for its importance in language pedagogy and its influence on learning multilingual or additional languages. According to Skehan (2008) defines language transfer as the influence of the mother tongue on any other languages which have been learned. Then, language transfer can occur in many situations as positive transfer, negative transfer, or cross-linguistic influence.

1.1.1.1 Positive Transfer (PT)

It is a process in which learners transfer some features from the target language that is similar to their mother tongue that facilitates the acquisition of the foreign language learning. For Wolfarm(2007) positive transfer means “the incorporation of language features into a non-native language based on the occurrence similar features in the native language.” (p.80). In other words, positive transfer is considered positive if the same structures exist in both languages (first language and second language) and the transfer results in the correct form of language in second language, or simply there are similarities between the L1 and L2.
1.1.1.2 Negative Transfer (NT)

It is when foreign language learners use the first language in a non-native language context which leads them to make errors which in turn inhibits or causes difficulties in the learning of the target language. Negative transfer is negative if a language structure from the L1 does not exist in the L2, and the structure transferred is leading to the production of incorrect language. Negative transfer is also called Interference which is the faulty application of one’s language structures in an FL (Trauth & Kazzazik, 2006).

1.1.1.3 Cross-Linguistic Influence (CLI)

According to (Sharwood Smith, 1983) cross-linguistic influence is a term used in which different language systems in the mind interact and affect either the linguistic performance or the linguistic development or both of the individual. Others for instance, Trauth & Kazzik (2006) assign that the phenomenon of cross-linguistic influence appeared in situations when more than two languages are used together. That is to say, cross-linguistic influence is the influence of other languages learned for their linguistic closeness or because the individual is proficient in others. Moreover, there are many factors that may affect this phenomenon. Those factors have an impact on CLI stated by Cenoz (2001) as follow: age, context of use, proficiency and linguistic distance. Furthermore, cross-linguistic influence or transfer is used to describe the cognitive process of applying the knowledge of previously learned language in using a later acquired language.

1.1.2 Interlanguage (IL)

This term is introduced by the American linguist (Larry Selinker, as cited in Rod Ellis, 1997) during the late of the sixties at the University of Edinburgh. Interlanguage refers to
him as the systematic knowledge of an L2 that is independent, the concept of interlanguage is treated as:

“a way of conceptualizing the need to describe the learners language as an incomplete language in its own right, but it also expressed the perception that learners do not learn only what they are taught, but that they sometimes seem to know things that they have not been taught, creating successive versions of the target language grammar underlying the learner dialect they use, which move between that of their native language and that of the new language.” (p. 58).

This means, learners tend to follow a series of interlanguages in systematic and predictable ways to build up knowledge of the target language. In other words, the concept of interlanguage is considered as another language different from the native and target language from its own set of vocabulary, its own type of pronunciation, and its own rules of grammar. In addition, there are different terms that refer to the word of interlanguage used by researchers. For instance, Corder (1971, as cited in Littlewood, 1998:33) he called it “Idiosyncratic dialect” that is specific to any individual because the learner will operate at any time a self-contained language variety. Besides that, Corder (1967, as cited in Littlewood, 1998:33) uses another concept “Transitional competence” to describe a temporary competence that has developed by learners at a particular stage. Nemser (1971, as cited in Littlewood1998:33) he uses the term “Approximative system” which means the structural aspect of the learners developing language which is nearly similar to the target language.

1.1.3 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

Is the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identify their structural differences and similarities. Contrastive analysis is originally formulated by Fries (1945, as
cited in Ellis, 1994) and developed and popularized by Lado (1957, as cited in Ellis, 1994). The concern of this study is the location of areas of language interference (finding differences) through a comparison based on three levels: terminology, form, and meaning. That is to say, by means of contrasted analysis, we look for equivalence of terminology, equivalence of form, and meaning equivalents in order to compare meaningfully and objectively between two languages:

**Example 01:** English: I have been living here for 5 years.

French: Je vivais ici depuis 5 ans.

Similarities: the meaning is the same, but the form and terminology are different.

**Example 02:** English: I have been living here for 5 years.

French: J’ai vécu ici pendant 5 ans.

(The same terminology and form but different meanings).

Finally, CA is adopted to predict learners’ errors by sorting out the differences between two languages, as well as, informing FL teachers to help learners to avoid such errors of interference.

1.1.3.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

CAH is defined as theory that refers the target language is similar to the first language, and then the target language will be easier to learn. However, if there are differences between the two, then the TL will be difficult to learn and learners are supposed to fall in errors in that target language. Besides that, many errors committed by FL learners are the result of negative transfer from their native language. Within the framework of CAH, two
different views are appeared, strong and weak views. The first was claimed that based on comparing between two languages, one could make predictions about learning and the success of language teaching material. Whereas; the second view analyses the errors which learners make and then attempts to account those errors. For that, another new method comes as a reaction to the weak view of CAH which is error analysis.

1.1.4 Error Analysis (EA)

Error analysis offers a different view to contrastive analysis which is an approach influenced by behaviourism in which applied linguists sought to use the formal distinctions between the learners first and second language to predict errors. In contrast, error analysis is concerned with the analysis of the errors committed by L2 learners by comparing the learners acquired norms with the target language norms and explaining the identified errors. For Crystal (1999) error analysis in language teaching and learning is the study of the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a language, especially a foreign language. As well as, EA is a process based on the analysis of the learners’ errors with one clear objective which is evolving a suitable and effective teaching and learning strategies of the foreign language, and the analysis is achieved through: an empirical (scientific) investigation into the nature and the causes of deviations from L2 norms. Besides that, error analysis is a method used to find out the grammatical errors. (Brown, 1994) stated that:

“Error analysis emphasizing the significance of errors on learners’ interlanguage system.” (p.204). In addition, in error analysis the errors made by the learner may be an important part of the data on which error analysis is based because what is being compared in this case is the language of the learner at some particular point in his course in the target language. Hence, error analysis is a reaction to the weak version of contrastive analysis
hypothesis. It shows that contrastive analysis was unable to predict great majority of errors, as well as its more valuable aspects into the study of language transfer that have been incorporated. Moreover, error analysis is widely used in the seventies for example (Richard1974, Corder1981, as cited in Stern, 2001) as a technique which concentrate on the study of the patterns of difficulty in learning L2 or FL. Finally, error analysis studies the nature of this error and confirms or refutes the predictions of contrastive analysis.

1.1.4.1 Definitions of Errors:

Errors are systematic deviations that foreign language learners commit while writing or performing, which results from the lack of knowledge or because the learner does not know the correct rule. According to Ellis, errors can be overt or covert. The former, means that the error appears from the learner performance. The latter, refers to the error which is not obvious from the surface form as the overt error, unless the implied meaning taken into consideration. Moreover, (Piske and Young-Scholtten, 2009) define error as “a non-target form which represent a systematic stage of development”. (p.261). That is to say, that the learner is following a set of rules. These rules are not those of the target language but a transitional form of language similar in many aspects to the TL and also similar to his mother tongue.

However, in the field of second language acquisition errors seen positive, Sanz (2005) point out that learner errors observed as a natural stage and a source of information in the learners interlanguage because they provide a window into this interlanguage.

1.1.4.2 Errors vs. Mistakes:

All human being encounter difficulties to produce any spoken or written text that are different from their standard language which can be mistakes or errors. Errors are those
deviations that results from a lack of knowledge of the right rules of a foreign language or second language. Also, they arise because the correct form or use of a target item that is not part of a speaker or writer’s knowledge. Whereas, mistakes are when the learners know the rule but because of lack of attention, careless, or tiredness and slips of the tongue, they use these errors in incorrect form as well as they are able to recognize the mistake and correct it. In addition, (Ellis, 1997) says that errors reflect gap in a learners’ knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance, they occur particularly when the learner is unable to perform what He/She Knows.

1.1.4.3 Types of Errors:

Unlike contrastive analysis, error analysis is concerned to seek sources of errors that are not related only to first language transfer. Hence, within the technique of error analysis, error analyst’s divided errors into two types: interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

1.1.4.3.1 Interlingual Errors: (Mother–tongue influence)

They refer to transferring rules from mother tongue. In addition; these errors are also called interference errors because they are concerned only with negative influences of L1. Moreover, these kinds of errors are influenced by the native language which interferes with target language learning. As well as, Interlingual errors are very frequent at the initial stages of L2 learning since the L1 is the only language system the learner knows.

1.1.4.3.2 Intralingual Errors:

These types of errors are due to the target language itself such as: incomplete rule application (this is the converse of overgeneralization; the learners here do not use all the
rules), false analogy, exploiting redundancy (this error occurs by carrying considerable redundancy. This is shown throughout the system in the form of unnecessary morphology and double signalling), misanalysis (learners form a wrong explanation), hypercorrection or monitor overuse (this results from the learners over cautious and strict observance of the rules), overlooking co-occurrence restrictions (this error is caused by overlooking the exceptional rules), overgeneralization (this error is caused by the misuse of words or grammatical rules). Finally, this kind of errors occurs during the learning process of the second language at a stage when the learners have not really acquired the knowledge. According to (Little wood, 1998) claims that errors of this type show that learners are processing L2/FL in its own terms.

1.1.4.4 Procedures of Error Analysis:

In conducting the technique of error analysis, there is a specific set of procedures the researchers should follow. These stages according to (Corder 1974, as cited in Ellis & Burkheizan, 2005: P57) are any researcher should collect a sample of learner language in which the analysis of errors will be conducted. Then, the next step is identifying the errors that are produced by learners. After that, the description of errors has to be done in terms of their classification. Finally, the researcher has to explain the reasons of committing these errors and evaluate them.

1.1.4.4.1 Collecting a Sample of Learner Language:

It is considered as an important first step in a research of error analysis. In this case the data that are needed is typically written. In addition, by collecting samples of learner language and the required data provide insights into how foreign language learners use the target language in their productions. According to, Ellis (1997) asserts that collecting and
analysing samples of learners help researchers to reach two main goals in second language learning, which are description of the linguistic systems learners at different stages of progress are constructed, and the explanation of the factors that influence FL /L2 learning process. Moreover, errors in samples of learner language can be influenced by many factors, for instance the language being used oral or written is produced spontaneously or under certain conditions, in addition to the learner proficiency level. (Ellis & Burheizan, 2005).

1.1.4.4.2 Identification of Errors:

In error analysis the gathering of the essential data from learners is the first stage, the next stage is the identification of errors. In this step, the researcher identifies and recognizes errors that learners of FL /L2 have produced in their samples by comparing between what they have written with the standard form of the target language. In other words, errors can be identified by observing if the rules used by learners are not appropriate with those used by natives of the TL.

1.1.4.4.3 Description of Errors:

This can be made at the level of the physical differences between the learner’s utterances and the re-constructed version. Description of Errors can be made through two different taxonomies, a surface structure and linguistic structure taxonomies. The surface structure includes: omission (such as omitting “ed” of a regular verb in the past). Addition means (the presence of other forms that do not appear in the utterance produced by a native speaker). Selection, and misordering (that is to say, learners place a morpheme or a sort of morphemes incorrectly in an utterance). James (1998) adds another type concerning the description of errors which he calls blends. This kind of errors reflects the doubt of
learners in which form is required to be used. Then, the linguistic structure is based on the linguistic categories of TL. These categories include: the relative clauses, prepositional phrases, the auxiliary system, coordinate and subordinate construction, and passive sentences.

1.1.4.4 Explanation of Errors:

This step is regarded as the most important step in error analysis, because it explains why learners of FL/L2 have been made like these errors and determining their sources whether psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic. Then, error analysis concentrates only on psycholinguistic sources because it sees that psycholinguistic is more appropriate to the explanation of errors. As indicated by Ellis (1994) errors originated from psycholinguistic sources are of two kinds: competence errors and performance mistakes. On the one hand, competence errors are those errors which resulted from the lack of knowledge of the right rules of FL/L2. On the other hand, performance errors are all the rules – breaking that have been consciously done by any speaker or writer under some circumstances.

1.1.4.5 Evaluation of Errors:

Error evaluation studies are regarded as a supplementary stage in EA for predicting error gravity. Since the study of the learner error has a practical significance to language pedagogy, teachers and error analysts as well need to evaluate errors to take decision about which errors that have to be addressed and receive instruction. Ellis (1997b:20) points out that errors are evaluated as being “global” or “local” “errors. Global errors are considered more serious; however, local errors are considered less serious.

1.1.4.5 Lexical Errors Taxonomies:
Recently, lexis has begun to take a central role in language study because of many reasons. First of all the boundaries between lexis and grammar are now seen to be less clear than was assumed. For instance, morphological aspects of word, which used to be treated as part of grammar, can just as well be viewed as a part of the word.

As far as lexical errors are concerned, researchers can adopt one of the descriptive taxonomies: The linguistic structure or the surface structure taxonomy, as they can use the two different types in order to describe learners’ errors in a foreign language context, and hence, find out what are the most common areas learners have difficulties while writing or speaking. According to the analyst’s perspective lexical errors taxonomies are unlike the descriptive taxonomies. For that, there are different kinds of taxonomies which have been used to analyze written compositions produced by learners learning English language as an FL.

For instance, Ferris (2005, as cited in Hale, Pekkain and Carlson, 2008:101) classified lexical errors into five types: 1) word choice, 2) word from, 3) informal usage, 4) idiom error, and 5) pronoun errors. In addition, Yang and Xu (2001:54) have categorized lexical errors committed by Chinese when writing English from the semantic perspective into three groups: 1) selection of inappropriate items according to the intended meaning, 2) errors of transivity/intransivity, 3) errors of collocation. Moreover, Llach, Fontecha and Espinosa (2006:3) have categorized lexical errors either spelling errors or word choice errors.

Whereas, James (1998) classified lexical errors into two main categories: formal and semantic features. The formal errors are divided into three types and each type includes subgroups: formal misselection (FM), misformations and distortions. The semantic errors, according to James are subcategorized into two categories: confusion of sense relations.
(CSR), and collocational errors (CE), and besides each subgroup there are certain types of errors too. For instance, formal misselection James in turn drew them from Laufer’s (1991) “Synformic confusions”. They involve similar lexical forms. James refers to them as the malapropism type. The four main types of synforms are:

a) The suffix type: they have the same root but different suffixes (for example, considerable, considerate).

b) The prefix type: they have the same root but different prefixes (for example, reserve, preserve).

c) The vowel –based type: (for example, beet, bet).

d) The consonant – based type: (for example, charm, calm).

2- Misformations: there are words that do not exist in the L2. The source of errors is from the learner’s mother tongue. They are called interlingual misformation errors (L1 interference).

3- Distortions: these words also do not exist in the L2. However, the errors are the result of misapplication of the target language without L1 interference. James classified distortions into five types: 1) omission, 2) overinclusion (for example, dinning room / dining room), 3) misselection, 4) misordering (for example, little/ littel), 5) blending (for example, travell/ travel). Distortions are called intralingual errors. i.e., interference within L2. Moreover, the confusion of sense relations which are part of the semantic errors they appear when a general term or false near synonym used instead of a particular one which is needed. As well as they include the mismatching of words that does not fit the appropriate meaning in the context, such as: the boy who kills his friend is sinner, here the appropriate word is criminal instead of sinner. And the collocation errors occur when learners do not
use words or phrases normally should keep company with other specific ones. For example: the country is grown / the correct form is the country is developed.

Then, this classification of lexical errors of foreign language learners in two categories: formal and semantic errors which was done by James, it based on the classic knowledge framework which was proposed by Richard (1976, as cited in James; 1998:144). According to Richard there are seven types of knowledge essential to know a word:

1) Morphology (spelling and pronunciation).
2) Syntactic behaviour.
3) Functional and situational restrictions.
4) Semantic values or denotations.
5) Its secondary meaning and connotations.
6) Other words it is associated with.
7) Its frequency use.

These diagrams represent a number of different lexical errors taxonomies discussed above:


![Diagram1: James taxonomy (1998).](image-url)

Yang and Xu taxonomy

Selection of inappropriate items  
errors of transivity /  
errors of collocation.

according to the intended meaning.  
intransivity .


Ferris taxonomy

Word choice  
word form  
informal usage  
idiom error  
pronoun error.


Llach, Fontecha and Espinosa taxonomy

Spelling errors  
word choice errors

After all these classifications of lexical errors which done by many researchers , the suitable and the appropriate taxonomy to classify the compositions of the learners of first year LMD at the university of Mohamed Khaider Biskra when they performed a written task in English is James taxonomy, because it concentrates on the formal and the semantic features. As well as, James has distinguished the different subgroups of formal errors . However, others like Yang Xu(2001) taxonomy is focused on the semantic standpoint only. Although the other taxonomies are concerned with word forms, they are not clearly
differentiated. In addition, James taxonomy is seen appropriate to answer the research question concerning the interference of the French language, because it provides detailed explanation about where the influence of the known languages may focus.

1.2 Ways of Correction:

There are several ways of correction that can be employed in order to correct learners’ errors in the classroom.

Self-Correction:

After the student recognizes what is incorrect in his/her response, s/he should be able to correct him/herself. Self-correction is the best technique, because the learner will remember what he/ she correct better.

Peer Correction:

If the student cannot correct him/herself the teacher can encourage other learners to supply correction. This technique is to be applied tactfully, in the case of errors , it is useful if after peer correction the teacher goes back the learner who made the error and gets him/ her to say it correctly. Edge (1990) mentions the following advantages of peer correction:

- It encourages cooperation, students get used to the idea that they can learn from each other.

- Both learners (who made the error and who correct) are involved in listening to and thinking about the language.

- The teacher gets a lot of important information about the learner’s ability- if the learners learn to practice peer correction without hurting each other’s feelings, they will do the same in pair- work activities. However, it may happen that whenever the teacher asks for
peer correction from the whole class, it is always the same learners who answer. In this case the teacher has to make sure that other learners are involved as well.

**Teacher correction:**

If no one can correct, the teacher must realise that the point has not yet been learnt properly. In this case there might be more repetition and practice necessary. We must not forget that the main aim of correction is to facilitate the learners to learn the new language item correctly. That is why it is important that after correction the teacher has to ask the learner who made the error or mistake to give the correct response.

**1.3 Comparison between French and English language:**

Great debates were raised to define the essence of “Language”. Till now there is no precise view about what “languages” are, English is one of the languages which proved its existence to be an international language used all over the world for many and varied objectives. Before getting specified in the subject of how French influenced learners’ writing in English, we have to know the factors which lead to French dominance on English language.

Perhaps, one of the major factors was the Norman occupation or the colonial period which lead into 10,000 French words to be adopted into English. Some three-fourths of which are still in use today (David Crystal, p.46:1995). That influence is found in every domain, from government and law to art and literature. As an illustration Evelyn and Cheryl (1995) found that words such as: enemy, danger, soldier and guard added to the lexicon of English, and this because the French took military control. As well as, thief and steal are English terms but burglar comes from French. In addition, they claimed that the influence of the church brought new terms, too, like religion, service, virgin and trinity.
According to (Grane et al., 1981; as cited in Evelyn and Cheryl, 1995) list words borrowed from French into English that results in synonyms of the original English term and the borrowed French term, For example: “help-aid, hide-conceal”, etc. Besides, Nehs (1991; as cited in Evelyn and Cheryl, 1995; p. 121) presents in a table the designation of spherical objects in five languages in light of prototype semantics, but from this table we are going to select the English and the French language only because they are our concern and our study focuses on.

Table 1: The designation of spherical objects in French and English language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not elastic</td>
<td>Ball</td>
<td>Boule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elastic</td>
<td>Ball</td>
<td>Balle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bounces</td>
<td>Ballon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shooting</td>
<td>Bullet</td>
<td>Balle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Projectile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model of earth</td>
<td>Globe</td>
<td>Globe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometric figure</td>
<td>Sphere</td>
<td>Sphère</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than third of all English words are derived directly or indirectly from French, and it is estimated that English speakers who have never studied French already know 15,000 French words. In general those influences touched vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. (Online French teacher Laura Lawless).
Moreover, some French words and expressions have been taken into English, with their Frenchness intact such as: sang-froid, cause célèbre, par excellence and déjà vu. Besides, newly-borrowed words they either replaced the existing words or the two words lived side by side but developed different meanings or nuances led to the existence of word pair in English, thus English for instance ended up with both begin and commence, wedding and marriage, freedom and liberty, and so on. (Online Dictionary of French-English-False-Friends).

Therefore, French and English are related languages in a sense, so there are some similarities. However, there are also a number of differences, both major and minor. Whereas, these words that look very similar in French and English might have very different meanings. As an illustration, we find the Online Transpremium: The Lingua Franca of the Entire Globe, in which a list of few English/French false cognates was presented. For example, in French, the word “actual” refers to something “at present” or in the present time. But, the English word “actual” means “real”. “Office” in French is “bureau”, in English means a “task, a duty or a charge”.”Assister” à (French) means “to attend”, while “to assist” (English) means to “help”.”Rester” in French is “to stay” in English, but “to rest” means se “reposer” in French.”Attendre” in French is “to wait”. However, in English “attend” means to be present at a place.

All what we mentioned above can be applied on learners, that is to which extent pupils in certain levels are influenced either positively or negatively in their writings. Paying the attention on the idea, some of the vocabularies have been so completely absorbed by English that speakers might not realize their origins.

1.4 Foreign Language Learning Factors:
Second language acquisition studies set at identifying some of the factors that account for why learners acquire the target language in a special way than others, and why learners do not equally achieve success in a non-native language proficiency, as well as they differ in the way they learn a FL (fast or slow). For that those factors are divided into internal and external ones have a strong impact on learners’ outcome.

1.4.1 External Factors:

One of the most important external factors that affect the learning process of FL learners while learning a FL / L2 are: the different kinds of input that learners receive and the impact of the social effects.

1.4.1.1 Social effects:

The process of language learning can be very successful or stressful, under the impact of positive or negative attitudes from the surrounding society. Negative attitudes toward the language being learned have a profound impact on the learning of the target language in which learning typically be very difficult. However, if the attitude is positive this will motivate and facilitate particularly early exposure to the language. Another aspect that has received particular attention is the relationship of gender, in which numerous studies have shown that women understand and learn difficult forms better than men. Moreover, age is another important part in the acquisition of L2/FL. And the relevance of how children acquire FL learning has long been debated. Although, the evidence of L2 learning ability declining with age is controversial. A common view is that children learn L2 easily and older learners rarely achieve native speakers’ level, also they encounter difficulties to learn L2, this is due to the critical period which was popularized by Eric Lenneburg (1967) in L1 acquisition. Lenneburg theory (1967) agrees that children have a neurological advantage in learning languages,
because language acquisition occurs primarily and exclusively during childhood as the brain still does not lose its plasticity; which after a certain age will disappear, and this age by many researchers is between (12-13) the brain at this period loses its plasticity and becomes rigid, fixed as well as loses the ability for adaptation and reorganization, and the language learning be difficult to acquire. That is to say, learning should begin before puberty.

1.4.1.2 Input and Interaction:

Learner’s most direct source of information about the target language is the TL itself, when they come into direct contact with the TL; this is referred to as input. Generally, the amount and the quality of input learners are supposed to take is one of the most important factors affect learners outcome. Whereas, this input must be at a level that is comprehensible to them. According to Krashen (1982) he stated that the input is comprehensible if the affective filter is lower, but if the affective filter is high this will impede the process of learning and the input be incomprehensible. Ellis (1994) postulates that different kinds of input and interaction are necessary in facilitating the learning process. Long (1996, as cited in Sanz et al., 2005:12) hypothesizes that interaction with natives or with learner’s with whom they learn provide a comprehensible input and enhance their TL competence, and help learners to correct their errors.

1.4.2 Internal factors:

The study of learner–internal factors is primarily concerned with how learners gain effective input in the FL learning and with what internal resources process this input to produce well governed language. There is a fact that individuals learn differently, and these differences are appear at the cognitive level as language aptitude, working memory, attention and prior knowledge which have a great effect on FL learning.
The relation between language aptitude and FL learning success is very important. According to (Gass and Selinker, 2008) language learning aptitude is the natural ability to learn a non-native language. Language aptitude is often criticized for being irrelevant to the problems of language learners, who must attempt to learn a language regardless of whether they are gifted for the task or not. In addition, language learning aptitude is often referred to as intelligence for that why some learners are able to learn FL successfully while others do not. Working memory is another integral part of language learning aptitude. The relationship between working memory and language learning is shown by empirical studies in the sense that to what extent learners are able to complete tasks and the ability to retrieve and memorize words in the language being learned (Sanz et al., 2005). Personality of learners is another internal factor that can affect the level of proficiency in FL learning. Personality factors include: self-esteem which is self approval or a positive self image, in which learners who have high self-esteem are confident, resourceful, and responsible they accept challenges. However, learners wit low self-esteem lack confidence in themselves, and need a constant reassurance as they avoid taking challenges. Then, Inhibition which is a result of lack of self confidence in a task or situation that leads learners do not take part in the language learning process because they are afraid to do mistakes. In addition, risk-taking is an important characteristic of successful learning of L2. learners have to be able to take the risk of being wrong. Moreover, anxiety is another essential factor that the majority of learners have, and it is associated with feeling of frustration, self doubt, an easiness and both too much or little anxiety hinder the process of successful language learning. Furthermore, introversion and extroversion play an important role in the personality of learners; introverts learners are quite, reserved, and even distant as well they prefer teaching tasks that emphasise individual learning. However, extrovert learners have an advantage in language learning as they create learning opportunities through interaction.
Finally, the study of learner factors is still an important matter of concern since it provides a wide range of information about how learners operate on their input. The impact of these and other factors on the achievement of FL proficiency may vary from one factor to another or from a learner to another.

**Conclusion:**

²This chapter summarizes the main ideas to be implemented in this study. All the elements which are represented in this chapter are interrelated and have an effect on each other. For example, learners output may be affected by factors like input and interaction, cross-linguistic influence, and other personality factors. The current study highlighted that the analysis of learners’ interlanguage yields to understand the lexical errors committed by learners while producing their written tasks, as well as it provides insights into the process of learning. Then, to identify the likely sources of learners’ lexical errors two methods taken into consideration: error analysis and contrastive analysis. EA showed that CA predicts learners’ errors which occur from the comparison between two languages and to identify them. Therefore, EA is the appropriate method to be taken since it is concerned with the analysis of the errors committed by L2 learners by comparing the learners acquired norms with the target norms and explaining the identified errors. Finally; in this chapter, the more convenient taxonomy to be taken is that of James for it is more detailed and comprehensible than the other taxonomies.
Second Chapter

teaching and learning

foreign language vocabulary
Second Chapter

Teaching and Learning Foreign Language Vocabulary

Introduction:

Vocabulary is the axis of communication, and the medium through which transmits our messages. Vocabulary is highly important besides to grammar. As well as, it is an essential element of language proficiency, without it we cannot learn anything. In addition, teaching and learning foreign language vocabulary have been viewed and treated in very different ways through the history of language pedagogy. For example, in the grammar translation method, vocabulary is the core element in the language curriculum. However, the audio lingual method focuses and gives importance to the teaching of grammar and pronunciation, and do not concentrate on the teaching of vocabulary.

For FL learners, the learning of vocabulary is as much important as the learning of grammar because it provides learners with steps and basis that help them to know how to listen, speak, read and write. Also, learners are able to behave naturally in FL if they have rich vocabulary and the antonyms and the synonyms of the words in action (Mc Carthy1991, as cited in Nyysonen, 2001:167). Then, he adds that, as foreign language learners is not enough to know a large number of target vocabulary, but they should know the correct and the appropriate use of vocabulary in context, because knowing the appropriate and the right vocabulary and how to set phrases assist learners to be able to use the target language easily. This chapter gives an overview about how vocabulary enhances FL learning, and how it can be taught more effectively that be able to help learners to enlarge their lexical knowledge.
2.1 Basic Notions Pertinent to the Area of Vocabulary:

Broadly defined, vocabulary is knowledge of words, including explanations of word meanings. Briefly, a word is described as a sound or a combination of sounds, or its representation in writing or printing that symbolizes and communicates a meaning. To master a word is not only to learn its meaning, but also to learn its register, association collocation, grammatical behavior, written form, spoken form and frequency, all these properties are known as “word knowledge” (Schmitt 2000:5).

Therefore, it is important before dealing with the subject of vocabulary within the teaching and learning of a foreign language curriculum to tackle some concepts which are associated with vocabulary. For instance, it is crucial to differentiate between receptive/ productive vocabulary, content / function words, literal and figurative vocabulary.

2.1.1 Receptive/Productive Vocabulary:

With regard to vocabulary learning, there is a division between receptive and productive vocabulary. For instance, Haycraft (1978) defines the two terms in the same way, in which he viewed receptive vocabulary as knowledge and understand of words that learners receive when they heard or read in a context, and productive vocabulary as words that learners understand and can pronounce and use appropriately when they speak and write. However, Mc Shane (2005) considered receptive vocabulary as words that are understood when they are heard in speech or reading. Whereas, productive or expressive vocabulary refers to the words that they are used by individuals either in speaking or writing. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) claim that the dichotomy of receptive versus productive is very essential in the area of vocabulary. Also, they say that productive control which means control of the words that you use to express yourself in speech or writing entails receptive control which is the control of the words that you
understand when you hear or read. As well as, they claim that language learners either native or non-native remain considerably larger receptive vocabulary than their productive one because before they are able to use a word correctly and fully, they have to know quite a bit about those words. In addition, they may understand new words in their contexts, but they are unable to use them in their speech or writing.

Therefore, Gass and Selinker (2008) recognized that the first step of producing a target language is by providing learners with an extensive knowledge of receptive vocabulary. Nation (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000) suggest some ways of teaching as much as possible large amount of receptive vocabulary by engaging learners to associate words with meanings out of context, by using vocabulary cards, word lists, and so on.

2.1.2 Content Words / Function Words:

Content words refer to words that have a specific meaning, and they include nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Content words are the keywords of a sentence. They are the important words that carry meaning or sense, and they are referred to as open class words because we can add new words to these classes (From Wikipedia). For example, John (noun) → John is (verb) happy (adj). However, function words are words used to make our sentences grammatically correct, and they include pronouns, determines, prepositions, conjunctions, articles and auxiliary verbs. Also, function words are words that do not have clear lexical meaning, but have a grammatical function. Function words are referred to as closed class words because we cannot add new words to these classes, such as: an, on, a, but. Some scholars, for instance, Witalizz (2007) suggested that content words should be taught within the area of grammar. In addition, (Lengyel; Navracsics; and Szilágyi, 2007) postulated that beginner learners are able to learn grammatical than lexical
knowledge because lexis is a complex task and need more efforts and concentration to master it. Besides that, it has been asserted that function words are easier to recognize and guess than content words.

2.1.3 Literal / Figurative Vocabulary:

Literal language is the language that means exactly what is said and stated directly. For example, it is raining hard outside. However, figurative language is words do not mean what they say but imply something else, such as: imaginary, description, and comparison. As an example, they showered the baby with gifts → this sentence does not mean that the baby is washed with gifts. It is implied that they gave a lot of gifts to the baby. In other words, literal vocabulary is meant that the meaning of a sentence or expression is understood by getting the meaning of its individual words. Whereas, figurative vocabulary means sentences or expressions are used idiomatically or metaphorically. In addition, figurative expressions cannot be understood out of their context. This means, that FL learner in order to become more able to understand and use the language being learned, he should learn the target vocabulary and its idioms. (From online English tutor vista).

2.2 Target Vocabulary Teaching/ Learning Approaches:

Vocabulary plays an important role in learning any target language, and it is a complex task encountered by both teachers and learners. Then, there are three main approaches that have been developed by (Hunt and Beglar, 2002; Hulistijn, 2001 and Schmitt, 2000) which are as follows: incidental learning, explicit learning, and independent strategy development, and those approaches are used in order to learn as much as possible new vocabulary in the TL. And they are different in the manner of
teaching and learning vocabulary. Then, the most frequent and used ones are the incidental and the explicit one.

2.2.1 Incidental learning of vocabulary:

Meara (1994) claims that incidental learning is a by-product of learning something else, and it is not like the intentional learning which is designed by teachers or students. That is to say, learners acquire vocabulary when they are involved in some learning activities, such as reading, listening, writing, and interacting with others.

Nation (2001:232) defines the incidental learning via guessing from context to be the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning. This refers to the learning which occurs without specific intention to focus on vocabulary; and that vocabulary knowledge can be developed by learners subconsciously while being engaged in any language activities, especially from reading and listening.

In fact, incidental learning is based on teaching vocabulary implicitly or indirectly to learners not through explicit formal instruction. This means that a substantial amount of vocabulary development occurs through incidental encounters with language. Thus, learners may know the meaning of new words when they encounter in different situations and different contexts as well. Therefore, Tacac (2008) indicated that incidental learning is the primary source of learning vocabulary. That is to say, learners are assisted by a sufficient amount of comprehensible input where they are exposed to the target language. This input helps them to enlarge, confirm or narrow the vocabulary sets. According to Tacac (2008) learners who are beginners cannot learn vocabulary indirectly, but they try looking for synonyms, definition, or translation from L1 because they have not enough linguistic knowledge to start making use of unfamiliar words they encountered in context.
Moreover, this approach is concerned with the majority of vocabulary size which is enlarged through exposure to the language. It has been claimed that this process of exposure happens via two means; exposure to oral language and to written language (Cunningham, 2005). The exposure to the TL has good effects on learners ‘outcome; and this appeared when learners are provided with authentic contexts which assist them to improve and to expand what is known about some unknown words when those words are met in different contexts. Also, native speakers help the FL learners to learn the right pronunciation, the appropriate use, and the correct writing of the foreign vocabulary. In addition, Hunt and Beglar(2002) estimate that FL learners can understand the meaning of a word from context through numerous exposures. That is to say, FL learners can extract meaning of words from native speakers, listening to radio or news in the television, or from watching movies.

Although, there are written and oral materials, according to (Schmitt, 2000; Bogaards and Laufer, 2004) who postulated that incidental vocabulary learning requires reading texts because they are considered as the main kind of materials used to improve vocabulary. Besides that, supporters of incidental approach argue that extensive reading is a key means for vocabulary growth. In other words, if FL learners practiced great amount of reading in the TL, vocabulary can be increased.

Furthermore, the incidental approach as any type of teaching and learning TL is characterized by some specific kinds of tests and features. First of all, it is concerned with learners learning new vocabulary indirectly. In which their teachers should test whether learners have obtained the words or not , but without informing them in advance that a test will be administered, in order to know to what extent they improved their vocabularies (Hulstijn,2001). As well as, this approach is concerned with increasing learners knowledge of target vocabulary as a by – product of doing other tasks such as reading. In addition, the
incidental approach contains different kinds of activities which are multiple choice, matching or gap-filling exercises (Read, 2004). Finally, despite the fact that this approach is not widely supported because teachers do not pay attention of their learners’ to look for the meaning of the words in the dictionary or extract their meaning from the context while reading or listening to the TL to know how to use it appropriately, and memorize it if they find it in another context. Besides that, teachers as well do not ask their learners to translate some difficult words into their L1 or attract their attention to the unfamiliar words.

2.2.2 Explicit Instruction:

Explicit instruction is another different approach from the incidental approach, and it comes as a reaction to the incidental one. Explicit instruction means to learn an enormous amount of vocabulary in a structured and direct way. That is to say, learning inside the classroom; in which the teacher is the one who gives instruction and provides valuable information in the language classroom in a limited period of time. Besides that, in this approach the role of the teacher is teacher-centered, this means that the teacher is the guider, the leader, the planner, the facilitator, the motivator, and the examiner in which he/she controls what learners do in the classroom and facilitate for them the acquisition of language to grasp the information easily.

In addition, The explicit approach is labeled by some scholars such as Hulstijn(2001), Hiebert and Kamil(2005), Bogaards and Laufer(2004) as the intentional approach which is widely supported for target vocabulary learning. According to Hulstijn(2001) the intentional learning of vocabulary is superior to incidental learning.

Moreover, the explicit approach is different from the incidental approach in the nature of teaching and learning FL vocabulary. According to Mc Shane (2005) learners should be
provided with opportunities to apply what they have learned, as well as they should be
guided as they are practicing the new words that they have already learned. This means,
language teachers have to identify special vocabularies as objectives of any course and
make learners be aware that they should be able to use these words correctly while they are
doing an activity. Then, in this approach, Hulstijn (2001) said that teaching vocabulary is
clearly structured in the curriculum and represented in lessons and activities where learners
rely on their vocabulary knowledge to fulfill tasks. As well as, the main point of this
approach is that words are intended to be taught and explained by teachers clearly and
directly. (Hunt and Beglar, 2002).

Therefore, the explicit learning is based on teaching vocabulary through explicit and
clear instruction. This approach is strongly supported for many reasons. For instance,
Schmitt (2000) argues that beginners cannot benefit from incidental learning since they
have not developed their linguistic knowledge, so explicit learning is necessary for them.
Also, Scott (2005) postulates that giving explicit clues to unknown words aid learners
understand what the context is about; as well they will enhance learners’ knowledge
effectively because learners may have difficulties in inferring meaning of new words.

As far as the explicit approach is concerned, teachers and instructors should decide
about which tasks and words that are essential to be instructed. Schmitt (2000) has
suggested that teachers should teach words families rather than individual words in order
to increase vocabulary learning. In other words, when presenting new words, it is better to
present its derivations because this manner helps learners to be able to understand
unfamiliar words and remain its derivations. According to Tankerseley (2003) teachers
should teach explicitly while reading. For instance, scientific or special items of certain
subjects matters have multiple meanings for that should be taught directly since they are
not used widely either in speech or writing. Moreover, Boers and Lindstromberg(2008)
postulate that there are two types of frequency words that should be directly taught, high level of frequency words and low level of frequency words. The former, means all words which are used regularly and likely to be encountered. The later, refers to words that are not likely to be used very often. Also they claim that in order to reach a high level of proficiency entails a direct teaching of low frequency words.

Furthermore, in this approach there are different techniques teachers follow in teaching new target vocabularies. For example, Mazano, Pickering and Pollack (2001, as cited in Sprenger, 2005:66) assume that “associating an image with a word is the best way to learn it». Teachers for instance use some visual techniques such as blackboard drawing, photographs, flashcards or present objects if they are concerned with concrete items to help learners understand and retain the new words in their mental lexicon. In addition, enlarging vocabulary in an L2 /FL is a complex task; teachers aim at using the most common ways to improve comprehension and to explain unfamiliar words in the material being presented. Some of those techniques teachers use are synonyms, opposites or even translation into the first language of learners. Also, other supplement ways to explain target vocabulary by teachers are mimes and gestures.

Moreover, tests in the intentional approach are not like the incidental one. Teachers inform their learners that they will be tested about those new words which they are learning. Thus, learners can prepare themselves for the test afterwards. To sum up, in the intentional approach learners are aware that they will be tested about the lexical knowledge that they have learned.

Despite the fact that the explicit approach has many advantages in learning vocabulary but it has been criticized. The first reason is that teachers cannot teach all the uses of a word through direct learning, as well as learners cannot be completely mastered because
the time is limited. Secondly, the mental cannot be improved and successful only if there are other exposures. For that teachers and instructors should take into consideration the two approaches together because each one completes the other, and they contribute in the improvement of vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). Thus, learners’ errors which come from French interference may be reduced from their written compositions.

2.3 Vocabulary and the Four Learning Strands:

According to what is mentioned above about the incidental and the intentional approaches which are used in the teaching and learning of the target vocabulary that they have to be integrated in any language course. In addition, this integration of the two approaches can be achieved only if they are linked with the four learning strands that are proposed by Nation (2001). He described the four strands of learning to make a balanced language course as follows: meaning- focused input, meaning- focused output, language- focused instruction, and fluency development activities. What we do in the following paragraphs is analyzing what research on vocabulary has found out in relation to these components and knowing in which ways they are related to lexical learning which is crucial to devise ways in which vocabulary could be more effective.

2.3.1 Vocabulary and Meaning- Focused Input:

This is the first strand of language learning suggested by Nation (2001). The meaning-focused input strand involves learning through listening and reading. When learners read or listen to a FL, they are using the language receptively. In addition, in this strand the main concern of learners is to understand what they listen to and read and gain knowledge from this.
Some vocabulary studies show that students should understand 95% of the words or more of what they receive as input (Laufer, 1992), others point at the 98% (Schmitt, 2010). This in turn insures that unknown vocabulary will be understood through context clues and background knowledge. Then, Nation (2001) argued that the input which is provided from oral or written materials should be easy and at the level of the learners. It means, it does not contain a lot of unknown and unfamiliar words because if the input is incomprehensible, this will lead learners to be in a struggle to understand and it will hinder them to develop their lexical knowledge naturally. In fact, the idea which is suggested by Nation is based on the view of Krashen’s of the comprehensible input.

Many researchers advocate that reading FL has been as a major source of target vocabulary learning growth (Schmitt, 2000; Bogaards and Laufer, 2004). However, it is claimed that there are some factors decrease the amount of new items to be learned from reading. For example; learners who learn vocabulary from written materials are fragile. That is to say, that they do not have the opportunity to face what they have already learned of new words, and this lead the learners’ to be unable to memorize the items that they know. Nation (2002) assumed that in order to enlarge and enhance vocabulary to grow, teachers should use different kinds of input, and enhancing lexical knowledge of learners’ from meaning – focused input rely on their development of the reading skill, because when learners develop the quality of their reading skill their vocabulary may grow.

In addition, Nation (2002) claims that why vocabulary learning through meaning focused input is fragile is that the type of reading that is done will strongly influence vocabulary learning. If learners read in familiar areas where they bring a lot of relevant background knowledge to their reading, they will be easily familiar with unknown words in context and understand the general meaning of the context as well, but they will
probably not learn them. Then, if they read in unfamiliar areas, they will have a great opportunity to learn new vocabulary because they have to pay close attention to the language of the text to get the meaning.

Finally, vocabulary learning through reading and listening is an essential strand of language course. And the fragility of vocabulary learning through meaning focused- input does not mean that such learning is not worthwhile. Also, in order to reduce this fragility in vocabulary learning and teaching, teachers can provide large quantities of suitable input through various kinds of topics and genres that fit the learners’ needs and interests, and by giving considerable attention to the material to get more benefits from them in teaching vocabulary, as well as by providing language -focused activities to support the input.

**2.3.2 Vocabulary and Meaning Focused- Output:**

The strand of meaning –focused output is another strand suggested by Nation (2001) for a balanced language course. This strand involves learning through speaking or writing. Learners’ at this strand use language productively and their main concern is to convey a message to someone in the form of taking part in a conversation, keeping a diary, telling a story, writing a letter(Nation,2007a).Regarding the strand of meaning focused output the basic point that Nation(2001) has built is the comprehensible output hypothesis. In second language acquisition, output has been researched by several authors, one of the first being Swain, who put forward the output hypothesis, which relates output to three main functions: a noticing/ triggering one, a hypothesis testing function and a metalinguistic (reflective) function (Swain, 2005).The first function of a noticing/triggering occurs when learners do not know how to say what they want to say. In another word, when learners are attempting to produce the second language and consciously they have noticing an obstacle in their knowledge. The second function of output is the hypothesis –testing function .This
requires the learner trying to get corrective feedback through successful modification of output. The third function which is the metalinguistic function involves learners work together to solve language problems through talking about language, blackboard activities which encourage learners to answer an activity, or through writing a composition in which they discuss ideas and interact with each other to write one piece reflect their work. In addition, Swain believes that output is helpful since it provides the opportunity to make learners’ knowledge more automatic via practice and opens the chance for error correction (Krashen, 2009).

Several studies have been conducted in the field of vocabulary learning in relation to the effectiveness of different kinds of input and output. For instance, Ellis and He (1999) divide their participants into three groups, and each group received a different treatment. Group one was provided with pre-modified input. The Input in this case was made simpler by making it less grammatically complex. However, learners were not allowed to ask questions. The second group received interactional modified input. Learners were encouraged to ask clarification questions to the teacher if they had not understood the directions. The final group got modified output. Results show that both groups where learners use and negotiate new vocabulary, create better conditions for vocabulary acquisition.

As far as, the learning of vocabulary through speaking and writing which are productive skills was conducted by several researches such as (Newton,1995; Joe, 1995; Joe, Nation and Newton,1996; as cited in Nation,2002:269) assume that the relationship between learning vocabulary and the productive skills can be improved when learners concentrate on information they are trying to convey, and they are looking for the appropriate vocabulary until they arrive at the intended meaning. Consequently, they become part of learners’ active vocabulary which will be easily consolidated and used in
other situations. Moreover, Nation (2001) proclaims that if teachers use activities full of unfamiliar words in the strand of meaning focused, this strand become language- focused rather than meaning- focused.

To sum up, due to the importance of speaking and writing in increasing learners’ lexical knowledge, Schmitt (2000) has pointed out that teachers should pay attention to lexical errors not to concentrate only on grammatical ones. He adds that “lexical errors tend to impede comprehension more than grammatical errors”. (p.155), as in the present work lexical errors are taken into consideration especially those related to transfer from French language. As well as(Nation,2002) claim that the use of handout sheets should be clearly designed and monitored for spoken tasks to improve learners’ vocabulary knowledge.

2.3.3 Vocabulary and Language- Focused Instruction:

This strand is different from the two previous strands. In the meaning focused input and output the learners’ attention is concerned with producing or comprehending a particular message. However, in language -focused instruction according to Nation (2001), is that learners’ attention is directed towards obtaining knowledge about language items as a system of TL. In addition, the learner gives deliberate attention to language features such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, and so one. They have many opportunities to give attention to the language features, in this case vocabulary. Nation (2007) postulates that deliberate learning can contribute to learners’ language proficiency.

Anderson and Nagy (1992, as cited in Cunningham, 2005:48) have pointed out that teaching difficult words through direct and systematic instruction is more efficient than waiting for learner to encounter those words in contexts. In addition, language- focused instruction is helpful for a vocabulary growth since learners will be able to do independent
word analysis and derive the meaning of unknown words if they have received direct instruction of word relationships and families. Moreover, Nation (2001) postulates that language-focused instruction is important for a balanced vocabulary course; because to attain a high level of proficiency, learners need to have strong background knowledge of vocabulary.

Furthermore, there are special conditions which are outlined by Nation (2009) to get more benefits from the strand of language-focused instruction. First, learners should deliberately focus on vocabulary features because it is assumed that deliberate learning of vocabulary appears to be more effective than learning the word in context. Second, the learners should process the language features in deep and in thoughtful ways. Third, in order to benefit from language-focused instruction there should be spaced repetition of attention to those features, as well as these features should be simple and not complex and at the learners level. That is to say, learners have knowledge about those features which help them to retain them better and to make vocabulary knowledge growth. Finally, features that are studied in the language-focused instruction learning strand should also occur in the other three strands of the course.

As regards to the strand of language-focused instruction there are typical activities such as: learning vocabulary from word cards, intensive reading, translation, and memorizing dialogues, etc. (Nation, 2007). Besides, in this strand teachers should give enough time during the course to explain or present the lexical features that are necessary for learners to comprehend particular lessons and subject matter.

2.3.4 Vocabulary and Developing Fluency:

The fluency development strand should involve the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This strand according to Nation (2001) has considered as a main part
for a well balanced academic language course. And the learners at this strand are helped to make the use of what they already know. That is to say, the learners’ aim is to receive and convey messages in a smooth, coherent and precise way. Then, in language learning, fluency is very important because having a large amount of lexical knowledge is not sufficient, as learners need to have access and use of this knowledge fluently (Nation, 1994).

Moreover, learners to be successful and fluent, they must be trained to perform at faster than normal. In fact, Nation (1989) was the one who made popular technique of 4/3/2, where learners have to repeat the same talk for four, then three and finally for two minutes in front of different classmates. According to him, the benefits are an increase in learner fluency, grammatical accuracy and control of content. In doing this activity learners perform at a level above their normal level of performance. As well as, it is argued that working at this higher than usual performance is way of bringing about a long term of improvement in fluency.

Furthermore, it has been mentioned that with regards to vocabulary learning, the strand of fluency development is different from the three strands studied before, because in the previous strands, learners are supposed to learn new vocabulary items either from guessing their meaning from the context or from explicit instruction by the teacher. However, in the fluency development strand, learners are only dealing with repeated reading of passages of texts, words from texts and other text units (Kruidenier2002, as cited in Mc Shane, 2005:52).

Therefore, the fluency strand only existed if certain conditions are present. According to Nation (2007) those conditions are as follows: what the learners are listening to, reading speaking and writing is largely familiar to them. This means, the materials, which learners are provided with to develop fluency, should have no new items that have not been already
learnt. Then, the learners’ attention is on receiving or conveying meaning fluently. Besides, teachers should use some pressure or encouragement on learners to perform at faster than usual speed. Another condition to practice fluency is that teachers should devote enough time to this element to encourage learners to reach a high level of performance through the use of various kinds of learning strategies. Finally, learners are supposed to receive and use large amount of input and output.

Mc Shane (2005) assumes that improving speed, accuracy or expression can be achieved if fluency activities are regularly structured in the curriculum. In addition, Nation (2001) asserts that the effectiveness of including fluency element in any language course is to make the learning done in other strands readily available for normal use. However, the repetition of the same text or words may create boredom to learners. For that, some strategies are used to increase learners’ interest and to improve their fluency, such as dictation, reading with different voices, play characters, and so on (Tankersley, 2003).

2.4 Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)

Vocabulary knowledge is essential in learning a foreign language. Learners know the importance of the words in a language and they are aware of the fact that learning strategies can help them to learn vocabulary successfully. Despite the extensive research that focused on this topic in recent years, there is not yet a clear definition of vocabulary learning strategies. Researchers define them just based on the definition of learning strategies which are procedures that facilitate a learning task. According to Nation (2001) “vocabulary learning strategies are a part of language learning strategies which in turn are a part of general learning strategies”. (p.217). Intaraprasert (2004, p.9) has defined vocabulary learning strategies as “any set of techniques or learning behaviors, which language learners reported using in order to discover the meaning of a new word, to
retain the knowledge of newly-learned words, and to expand their knowledge of vocabulary”. Sokmen (1997) argued that VLS are basically actions made by the learner in order to help them to understand the meaning of a word, learning them and to remember them later.

In addition, (Nation2001, p.217) claims that it is not easy to arrive at a definition of what a strategy is, but to deserve attention from a teacher, a strategy would need to:

1- Involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from.
2- Be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn.
3- Require knowledge and benefit from training.
4- Increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use.

Moreover, learners not only need to know about these strategies, they need to master them. Concerning vocabulary learning, Nation develops a general classification of vocabulary learning strategies (Nation2001:218-222). The first one is planning vocabulary learning, i.e. to choose words. Learners should know what their vocabulary goals are and choose what vocabulary to focus on in terms of their selected goals. When learning vocabulary, choosing certain aspects of a word (usually meaning but for listening and writing, also is necessary to pay attention to the form of the word) to focus on and using different strategies that can make the learning process more efficient.

The second vocabulary learning strategy is source. In order to cope with new vocabulary when it occurs and to learn unfamiliar vocabulary, learners have to be able to get information about the words. Analyzing word parts is a useful strategy, because being familiar with the stems and affixes can provide useful for seeing connections between related words, guessing from context, strengthening form and meaning connections.
The third vocabulary learning strategy is processes, which is establishing vocabulary knowledge. It involves ways of remembering vocabulary and making it available for use. Noticing is a widely used way of recording vocabulary. Retrieving strengthens the connection between the cue and the retrieved knowledge. Generating is the production of the word. It is the further step of learning process.

Lawson and Hogben (1996, p.118-119) have been classified the individual vocabulary learning strategies under four different categories. These comprise repetition, word feature analysis, simple elaboration and complex elaboration. The first category includes five strategies are: reading of related word, simple rehearsal, writing of word and meaning, cumulative rehearsal, and testing. The second category contains three strategies: spelling, word classification, and suffix. The third category comprises four strategies: sentence translation, simple use of context, appearance similarity, and sound link. And the fourth category includes three strategies that are as follows: complex use of context, paraphrase, and mnemonic for learning vocabulary items. From these strategies, Repetition and Complex Elaboration strategies seem to be popular among EFL learners.

Then, Cook (2001, p.66-68) divided vocabulary learning strategies into two groups, the first being the group concentrating on understanding the meaning of words and the other including the strategies for acquiring words. She claimed that language learners can get meaning of vocabulary items by guessing the meaning from context, using a dictionary, making deduction from the word form, and linking vocabulary items to cognates. They may acquire vocabulary items by repetition and rote learning, organizing words in their mind, and linking words to existing knowledge.

Moreover, Hedge (2000, p.117-118) explained that language learners need to use a wide range strategies in order to understand, categorize, and store new words in the mental lexicon. She classified two main strategies for learning vocabulary items as follows:
Category 1: Cognitive Strategies.

- Making associations.

- Learning words in groups.

- Exploring range of meaning.

- Using key words. A key word is a word chosen from the mother tongue which sounds like the new word in the second or native language.

- Reading on for evidence in the context of the text.

- Inference strategy.

Category 2: Metacognitive Strategies.

- Consciously collecting words from authentic contexts.

- Making word cards.

- Categorizing words into lists.

- Reactivating vocabulary in internal dialogue.

- Making a word – network of vocabulary associated with a particular item.

Finally, we deduce that several researchers have proposed different classification of vocabulary learning strategies based on their own criteria, and learners in the process of learning vocabulary in the target language use the strategy or strategies which can help and fit them to learn as much as possible of vocabulary items.
Conclusion

Consequently, this chapter spotlights on some concepts and views related to FL vocabulary. In addition, in teaching and learning target vocabulary we have taken some pertinent matters which can aid FL learners to enlarge their vocabulary knowledge and reducing lexical errors that are originated from French transfer. For example, the figurative vocabulary and the function words which are taken in the first section of target vocabulary should be taught directly (explicitly). And the second section, concerning the productive and the receptive vocabulary through extensive reading, should be taught indirectly (incidentally). Then, in the third section it has been assumed that in any part of language, lesson should not neglect the teaching of vocabulary which is an important and essential part of teaching. In the final section, it has been realized that learning new vocabulary is a challenge to foreign language students, but they can overcome this problem by having access to a variety of vocabulary learning strategies which help them to learn, retrieve and use the target vocabulary and encouraging them to create personal strategies as well.
Chapter three:

results and discussion
Chapter three: Results and discussion

Introduction:

The ultimate objective of this research is to shed some lights on the language transfer as a cause of the common lexical errors made by first year students of English at Biskra University and as a phenomenon that should be considered in learning English as a foreign language. This chapter aims to identify, describe and analyse errors committed by EFL learners while writing their productions. Also, this study is an attempt to gain more insights into the various types of lexical errors and their frequency by adopting James’ lexical errors taxonomy. Also, this chapter serves to prove that the problem exists, and to corroborate or refute the hypothesis that these difficulties are due to the foreign language interference (French). The data gathering tool for this study is collecting written productions of students, in addition to teachers’ questionnaire to elicit their views toward the teaching of vocabulary and writing, and their views about the most common lexical errors that their students commit.

3.1 Description of the students’ written compositions:

The corpus of this study is drawn from the short paragraphs written by first year students of English at Biskra University out to a sample of sixty LMD students, and they are divided into ten groups and each group contains six students were given the choice of writing short paragraphs on different topics such as: “importance of education, teachers’ role, and difficulties in speaking”. The administration of the task took one day in which a task is given to a teacher of written expression. And after five days I collect them.

3.2 Analysis of the students’ written productions:
In addition to the results recorded in analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire, we intend to be confirmed with the analysis of the productions collected from students. This section intends to show the lexical errors made by first year students of English at Biskra University when writing productions. Furthermore, to test the hypothesis which reveals that these errors may be they are due to French language interference. Results obtained from this study revealed that the students committed many writing errors when writing their productions, and they are summarized in the table below:

**Table2: Types of lexical errors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misformation</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distortions</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal misselection</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic errors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confusion of sense relation</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocational errors</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Diagram5: Types of lexical errors**

[Diagram showing the distribution of lexical errors with percentages]
When correcting the students’ written productions 100 errors were found in different types of lexical errors. Data presented in the table shows that the most frequent errors committed in the compositions of students are misformation errors with the percentage of 30%. In the second position confusion of sense relation errors presented by 25%, and in the third position distortions comes with the percentage of 20%, then collocational errors presented by a percentage of 15%. Finally, formal misselection errors with the lowest percentage 10%. The analysis of the data indicates that misformation and CSR errors are the most recurrent ones. That is to say, the former, they are evidence of lack of English vocabulary knowledge. While the latter, they are concerned with the interference of prior linguistic background.

3.2.1 Types of lexical errors:

3.2.2 Misformation errors:

Misformation errors have the highest ratio as regards the other types. This type of errors represents 30% of the total number of errors made by the learners. This result shows that although the Algerian learners have been instructed in English during seven years, they are still poor at vocabulary. Students have used words which do not exist in English. Misformation errors can be the result of lack of English lexical knowledge such as: “hove, thes, thurdly” instead of “have, this, and thirdly”. Or maybe they are due to the disagreement between the orthographic form and the pronunciation in English, for example, the word “any” is written “iny”. Therefore, as regards French language influence, there are some cases of misformation errors found in the compositions believed to be French interference. These errors are as follows “exemple” for the English word “example, “technologie” instead of technology.” Also, there are some words can be generated from French, but with different spelling because of the confusion between the similar form of
words in both languages. For instance “futur and societiès” which are taken from French, instead of “future and societies”.

3.2.3 Collocational errors:

Collocational errors represent 15% of the total number of errors. The most frequent collocational errors found in the compositions of the participants are related to the collocation of verb and noun, verb and pronoun, and the association of two words that can not normally be combined together or the omission of one item that should be kept company with another one. The analysis of collocational errors demonstrates that learners produce these errors as a result of a lack of grammatical knowledge. As an illustration, among the numerous examples of collocational errors which have been detected from the data are as follows: “the education, the illeteracy, and the technology” rather than “education, illiteracy, and technology”. Another example, “it’s the way to the technology development” instead of “it is the way to the development of technology”, “it’s improve our selves in our society” rather than “it improves ourselves in society”(Appendix 1). In addition, students commit collocational errors because they lack knowledge of word combination such as “it has important” rather than “it is important”, “we are best job in the future” instead of “we find best job in the future.etc.

3.2.4 Distortions:

As indicated in the table above distortions represents 20% of the whole number of errors. As far as the analysis of the data is concerned, it shows that the participants of the sample have problems of writing correct English words. This problem may be due to the concentration on finding the right words not on how they are spelt. Also, the commitment of such type of errors is perhaps derived from insufficient knowledge of English
vocabulary forms or from anxiety during the exam or the fear of not completing the composition task. As an illustration, distortions are done since some letters are removed and others are included in as “importante , helpe, acheve, and also” instead of “important ,help, achieve, and also”.

3.2.5 Confusion of sense relation (CSR)

The analysis of the learners’ compositions reveals that the participants have a serious problem of confusion of sense relation in their writings. CSR errors are representing 25% of the total number of the identified errors. That is to say, CSR errors are the second type of errors after formal misformation errors. In addition, the description of CSR errors indicates that the participants are not able to produce simple sentences to convey the intended meaning. They have constructed sentences neither grammatical nor meaningful. The result reflects that the first year learners do not extend their linguistic background in English well enough. As an example, they write “the edication give me the culture for iny specific, and have nive”, “I hope in may fraud and klassmait many think for vive best live”. (Appendix 2), etc. In addition, they may choose the wrong word since a near synonym or more specific term is better to be selected. For example, the use of the word “less confident” rather than “low confidence”; “to be aware” instead of “to be knowledgeable”; and “not having enough experience” instead of “lack of experience”.

3.2.6 Formal misselection (FM)

As it has been indicated in the analysis of the data, FM errors are the lowest ratio of errors with a percentage of 10%. The occurrences of FM errors may be due to the similarity of form and inappropriate choice of parts of speech. Or maybe they are derived from the similarity in form between noun and adjective or noun and verb. The finding indicates that learners are still unable to distinguish between parts of speech or they do not know subject
—verb agreement rule. As an illustration, some learners cannot differentiate, for example, between the noun “difference” and the adjective “different” and between “education” and “educational”. As well as, they confuse between words which are similar in pronunciation or spelling such as the confusion between “advice” and “advise”. (See appendix 3). Whatever the reason behind the FM errors, the writing of the learners is still weak because they are deficient in English.

3.3 Discussion of results:

The present study aims to investigate the lexical errors committed by first year English students at Biskra University, when writing English productions. The results revealed that these students’ paragraphs contain some errors in most areas of vocabulary such as: misformation, collocational, formal misselection errors, and so on. These results concur with the previous results mentioned in the theoretical part since many researchers claim that the reason of committing writing errors among non-native students of English is the FL1 (French) interference since both of them are foreign languages. Furthermore, the results of the present study show that misformation and confusion of sense relation errors are the most frequent errors committed by the students. The reason may be related to French interference and negative transfer of the mother tongue in some cases, as well as may be due to lack of English vocabulary knowledge.

Teachers’ Questionnaire:

3.4 Administration and the description of the teachers’ Questionnaire:

A questionnaire was given to seven teachers of written expression at Biskra University. And out of seven questionnaires, five of them were handed back. The aim behind these questionnaires is to explore the teachers’ attitudes toward teaching writing
and vocabulary in EFL context, and their views about the most common lexical errors that first year student made while writing, and what are the remedies for these errors according to them.

Moreover, the questionnaire consists of 16 questions. They are either closed questions requiring from the teacher to choose “yes” or “No” answers, or to pick up the appropriate answers from a number of choices or open questions requiring from them their own answers and justification. It is also divided into three sections as follows: the first section was about teachers’ background information including “gender, age, and teachers’ qualification and teaching experience.” The second section was concerned with investigating the teachers’ attitude toward teaching writing and vocabulary in their classrooms. Also, this section focuses on teachers’ views about how their students learn, use and retrieve new vocabularies. The last section is related to teachers’ attitudes toward students’ written lexical errors and their suggestions about remedial work they think it would prevent the frequency of students’ lexical errors.

3.5 Analysis of the teachers’ questionnaire:

Section one: Background information

item1: Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table3: Teachers’ gender
The table in page 54 represents teachers’ gender, as it is indicated in it 60% of the teachers are females. There is only two males, whatever is their gender, it would not influence the results of our research since they teach the same syllabus content within the same environment.

Item 2: Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between 25 and 35 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Teachers’ age

The majority of them are aged between 25 and 35 years old. Only one teacher has exceeded 50 years. This indicates that their experience in the field of teaching is short.

Item 3: Degree(s) held:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Licence</th>
<th>Master/Magister</th>
<th>PH.D(doctorate)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: The teachers’ degrees
Table page 55 shows that from five teachers who participated in the questionnaire, one teacher 40% held B.A (Licence) and three teachers 60% have MA (Magister /Master) degrees. But only one teacher 20% holds a PH.D (Doctorate) degree. That is to say, this teacher has a high level and experience in the field of teaching than the other teachers.

**Item 4: Work experience (number of years)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>One year</th>
<th>From 1-5 years</th>
<th>More than five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table6: Work experience**

It is noticeable from the table that around 80% of teachers had from one to five years of work experience. Only one teacher 20% who had more than five years of teaching experience, and she is the one who holds a PH.D (Doctorate).

**Section two: vocabulary and writing proficiency**

**Item 5: The most difficult language skill for students to master:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7: The most difficult language skill for students to master

As indicated in the table nearly all teachers consider writing as the most difficult skill for students to master. Only one teacher has stated that speaking is the most difficult one.

Item 6: Raising students writing proficiency through the teaching of grammar /vocabulary or both:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching grammar</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching vocabulary</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Raising students writing proficiency through the teaching of grammar /vocabulary or both

100% of teachers have stated that it is both, grammar and vocabulary that raise students writing proficiency because they are interrelate and one completes the other. As well as some researchers, For example, Wilkins (1972) claimed that “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”. (p.111-112); for that we should not separate them or focuses on one and neglect the other.
Item 7: The position of vocabulary in language teaching:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very important</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not important</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: The position of vocabulary in language teaching

60% of teachers believe that vocabulary plays a very important role in language teaching, while 40% of teachers claim that vocabulary holds an important position in language teaching. The positive figures show that all Teachers (100%) are aware of the importance of vocabulary in teaching English language and they think that teaching vocabulary should be prioritized.

Item 8: Ways of teaching vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ask students to read after me</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain the meaning listed in the text and make sentence examples</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain the root, stem, affix, etc</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 10: Ways of teaching vocabulary

In the study, 80% of teachers think that the best way of teaching vocabulary is to explain the meaning listed in the text and make sentence examples, and only 20% of teachers believe that in teaching vocabulary they should explain the collocation of the words. However, the other two ways no one chose them may be because they think that they are not useful or they are a waste of time. According to these findings we indicate that those teachers have been influenced by the traditional teaching methods to teach vocabulary.

Item 9: How do your students retrieve new English words?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quickly</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slowly</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very slowly</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Teachers’ attitudes about how their students retrieve new English words.

All teachers (100%) assume that their learners retrieve new English words slowly; this may be because teachers teach too many words at one time. Another reason is that the words have not seen or heard more times to be learned and retrieved, or may be because
English is a second foreign language for them and it is not used a lot as French which is the language of the colonizer.

**Item10: Are your students eager to learn new vocabularies?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somehow</td>
<td>5 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table12: Teachers’ attitudes about students’ eagerness to learn new vocabularies**

100% of the teachers indicate that their students are eager to learn new vocabularies somehow; this may be due to anxiety or the lack of motivation. In addition, another reason may be the method of the teacher which is used in the classroom is not effective. Moreover, in order to make learners eager to learn new vocabularies teachers should encourage their learners to take risks for making mistakes because good language learners are in fact those who take risks and learn from their mistakes.

**Item 12: Do your students employ new learned vocabularies?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All of the time</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>5 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13: Teachers’ attitudes about students’ use of new learned vocabularies

All of the teachers (100%) believe that their students sometimes employ new learned vocabularies in their writing; the reason may be they have not acquired enough knowledge or because of the lack of practice and repetition.

Item 12: The quality of students’ written productions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very bad</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: The quality of students’ written productions

All of the teachers (100%) have said that the level of their students’ in writing is average. It is noticeable that no teacher considered their level to be “bad, good, or very bad “which means that they commit certain problems concerning writing.

Section three: lexical errors as a result of FL1 interference

Item 13: Do first year students make a lot of errors?

- Yes

- No

Concerning this question, all the teachers questioned answered positively, confirming that most first year students make numerous errors in writing. This constitutes a real
problem for a large number of students, unable to produce a short paragraph free of all types of errors, including the lexical ones.

**Item 14: Types of lexical errors that students make**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of errors</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal misselection errors</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distortions</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocational errors</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misformation errors</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation of sense relation errors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 15: Types of lexical errors students make**

Concerning types of lexical errors students make. Teachers have to choose one or more answers from the five choices. All the teachers have opted for the first type of errors which is formal misselection errors. Also, the third choice has attracted all the teachers. Only three teachers have agreed on distortions. Only one teacher thinks that correlation of sense relation errors are used by learners. Surprisingly, all the teachers have ignored the misformation errors which are utilized by learners a lot such as when they use the L1 or translation, and this means that they don’t have background on this type of errors or they don’t know it.

**Item 15: Errors of students are recurrent because of:**
### Table 16: The causes of students’ errors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1 interference</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 interference</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of practice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They do not have enough words</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers realize that the major cause of students’ errors in writing is due to the L1 interference either consciously or subconsciously, and this may be because it is the first language which they acquire and they use a lot in their daily life and their studies. Whereas, only one teacher has claimed that the cause is lack of practice.

**Item 16: What kind of remedial work do you think would prevent the frequency of lexical errors?**

Most of the respondents said that this depends on the nature of the errors itself. According to them, they think that the better remedial works would prevent the frequency of lexical errors are as follows:

- it is better to vary the vocabulary activities in order to increase the students’ lexical competence. Also, teachers should provide their students with explicit vocabulary lessons on the most areas of weaknesses that they make errors in.
- listen to audio scripts to memorize the words.
- Read too much/self–peer revision.
- A good use of dictionaries.
-Keeping word cards with pictures and using word parts.

3.6 Discussion of the teachers’ questionnaire results:

From the analysis and interpretation of the teachers’ questionnaire, the results reveal many facts about the teaching of the writing skill as well as vocabulary teaching, and the difficulties that first year students may find when writing with regard to vocabulary. The majority of teachers of written expression are not satisfied with their students’ level of writing, as concerns the difficulties that hinder them to write correctly. The findings reveal that the majority of the teachers assume that the effect of making lexical errors is due to the L1 interference (Arabic), and the lack of practice which results in students’ poor performances in writing. In addition, all of them claimed that the types of lexical errors which learners’ commit while they write are the formal misselection errors and the correlation errors (100%), followed by distortions (60%).

Moreover, the majority of them (80%) indicate that the most difficult skill for students to master is writing, and in order to raise students writing proficiency, they give importance to the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, they do not concentrate on one and neglect the other, only one teacher who focuses on the teaching of grammar. In addition, most of teachers claim that vocabulary is very important in language teaching, also they said that the best way to teach vocabulary is either through explaining the meaning listed in the text and make sentence examples or through explaining the collocation of the word. Furthermore, 80% of the teachers believe that the one of the main causes of such a large number of errors made by learners is due to their L1 interference, and then come in the second position 20% the lack of practice.
Therefore, we deduce from the findings that to remedy or at least minimize these difficulties in writing concerning lexical errors. Most of the respondents said that this can happen through varying the vocabulary activities in order to increase the students’ lexical competence. Also, teachers should provide his/ her students with explicit vocabulary lessons on the most areas of weaknesses that they make errors in. In addition, students should read too much, listen to audio scripts to memorize the words, a good use of dictionaries, self peer revision, and keeping word cards with pictures and using word parts.

Conclusion:

This third chapter confirmed that first year students commit a number of errors in different areas of vocabulary. Also, it has addressed the investigation of the sources of the most recurrent errors committed by learners. The analysis of the data reveals that the participants of the sample made the two types of lexical errors: formal and semantic errors. In addition, counting errors of all the groups demonstrate that misformation and confusion of sense relation errors occurred very often in the students’ compositions.

Moreover, the analysis of these kinds of errors has identified that learners interfere some French lexical features, but not with full transfer, only one composition which contains mainly full transfer. Also, they sometimes transfer Arabic meaning when expressing their thoughts in English. This means, the students apply transfer of form from French and transfer of meaning from Arabic. Therefore, the findings of the study reveal that misformation and confusion of sense relation errors have been done as a result of insufficient knowledge of English vocabulary.
Pedagogical implications:

The results in this study have suggested some implications, starting from the assumption that lexical errors are one of the essential parts for assessing writing. Several implications can be provided for teachers and students for better teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in the Algerian context since the findings obtained are the result of learning English for seven years of instruction. And these pedagogical implications are presented as follows:

Teachers on one hand need to encourage learners to learn vocabulary within context instead of using lists of words in isolation. Then, they should use new technologies and audiovisual materials to enhance and to facilitate the learning process for learners’ to learn new words easily. As well as, they have to train their learners to employ different learning strategies to develop their vocabulary knowledge. In addition, teachers should vary activities and use particular exercises of vocabulary such as matching words and gap filling which are considered as a good manner for students to develop their lexical competence and their own process of learning. Moreover, teachers of English have to help learners of English to improve their lexical knowledge by attracting their attention to certain features of French like “é,è,ç,e”. Finally, they should give more time to written tasks. Also, they should pay attention to lexical errors committed by learners’ while writing and provide them with immediate feedback in order to be aware of their errors.

On the other hand, students have to adopt some tasks to improve their vocabulary knowledge; for instance, using a dictionary, reading a story, summarize a lesson on their own because these ways give learners the chance to learn new words and extend their language. Also, students should not concentrate on grammar and neglect vocabulary; teachers too should pay attention to this point because without vocabulary they cannot learn anything. Therefore, they have to implement some strategies such as taking notes, games, repetition, songs that help them to store new vocabularies with their forms and meanings.
General conclusion:

The study aims at determining the effect of first foreign language interference (French) on the written productions of first year English students at Biskra University, as well as identifying, describing and categorizing the types of lexical errors made in those productions by adopting James lexical errors taxonomy (1998). It was hypothesized that if teachers teach their English students differences between English and French language in the first stages (first year), students will diminish errors committed in their written productions.

The research begins with an overview into the field of FL learning by highlighting some key concepts and approaches related to researches in this field such as language transfer, interlanguage (IL), contrastive analysis (CA), and error analysis (EA). In order to test the hypotheses and build validity into this descriptive study, two types of research instruments were used: written productions of students and a questionnaire for seven EFL teachers of written expression at Biskra University. From the analysis of data, a large proportion of the lexical errors made by students are caused by French transfer and that they commit many kinds of errors concerning vocabulary when writing. Thus, the hypothesis is totally accepted. In addition, the current study came up with the following results: first year students include some French lexical features in their written productions. From this result, the first question which states: do first year students of English include French lexical features in writing, is answered. From teachers questionnaire results, all the respondents teachers reported that the existing linguistic knowledge of Arabic which affects the quality of the students’ written productions. However, from the analysis of the students’ written productions, we deduce that they apply transfer of form from French and transfer of meaning from Arabic. From these findings,
the second question which states: does the existing knowledge of French vocabulary affect the quality of the students’ written productions, is answered too. As a result, a number of different lexical errors are found in their productions (100 errors). These were limited to five major errors: misformation, distortions, formal misselection, collocational, and confusion of sense relation errors. Although the different errors showed in the participants’ productions, misformation and confusion of sense relation errors are the most serious and frequent ones.
References:


-David Crystal, the Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English language (CUP, 1995).


- www.dictionary.com/brouser/false-friend
Appendices

Appendix one:

As students, we see that education is an arm of all the societies to avoid the illiteracy. But, it's the way to the technology development. After that, it's improve ourselves in our society. Then, it's like a thing which develops our mind thinking in a cultural way. Finally, we can say that education is like a pass post to the future and it's that knowledge, science, study, and learning to make our lives easily and better.
Appendix two:

Education is significant to my person, for it is very important, particularly in the future, we are best going to finish our education to get the culture for it. Public, and brave, neat education exist the problems of like smoking and the careless, unacceptable life.

Judy, in my friends and classmate, many think for like life. Best live, for example: help that person.
Appendix three:

Appendices four: Teachers ‘questionnaire

Questionnaire for teachers

Lexical errors committed by EFL learners

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is intended to gather information about learning and teaching vocabulary within the written expression module in order to diminish lexical errors committed by EFL learners’. The collected information will help to enrich our master research about raising students writing proficiency through the teaching of vocabulary. Your responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be reported in the dissertation anonymously. We are very grateful to your help.
Will you please tick (√) the responding answers and fill in with the information where necessary.

Section one: Background information

1- Gender:
   - Male □
   - Female □

2- Age: □

3- Degree of qualifications:
   - Licence/B.BA □
   - Master/ Magister M.A □
   - Doctorat/Ph.D □

4- How long have you been teaching written expression?
   - One year □
   - From one to five years □
   - More than five years □

Section two: Vocabulary and writing proficiency

5- In your opinion, which language skill is the most difficult for students to master?
   - Listening □
   - Speaking □
   - Reading □
   - Writing □
6- What can raise students’ writing proficiency more?
- Teaching grammar  
- Teaching vocabulary  
- Both  

7- What is the position of vocabulary in language teaching?
- Important  
- Very important  
- Not important  

8- How do you usually teach vocabulary?
- Ask students to read after me  
- Explain the meaning listed in the text and make sentence examples  
- Explain the root, stem, affix, etc.  
- Explain the collocation of the word  

9- How do your learners retrieve new English words?
- Quickly  
- Slowly  
- Very slowly  

10- Are your students eager to learn new vocabularies?
- Very much  
- Somehow  
- Not at all
11- Do your students employ new learned vocabularies in writing?
- All of the time
- Sometimes
- Never

12 - How can you evaluate the quality of your learners’ written production?
- Good
- Average
- Bad
- Very bad

Section three: Lexical errors as a result of FL1 interference

13-Do first year students make a lot of errors?
- Yes
- No

14-What types of lexical errors do they make?
- Formal misselection errors
- Distortions
- Collocationnal errors
- Missformation errors
- Correlation of sense relation errors
15-Do you think that these errors are recurrent because of?

- L1 interference
- L2 interference
- Lack of practice
- They do not have enough words

16-What kind of remedial work do you think would prevent the frequency of lexical errors?

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................

Thank you very much for your cooperation
الملخص:

الهدف من هذا البحث هو تحليل بعض الأخطاء اللغوية الأكثر شيوعاً والتي يقترفها طلبة السنة الأولى في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة محمد خيضر، مسبقاً. اعتماداً على نظرية جيمس للأخطاء اللغوية من هذا المنحى، التركيز الأساسي لهذا البحث هو تأثير اللغة الأجنبية الأولى (الفرنسية) للطلبة في التعبير الكتابي والأخطاء التي يرتكبونها أثناء كتاباتهم باللغة الإنجليزية. هذا البحث يقترح فرضية أن الأساتذة إذا درسوا الطلبة الفرق بين اللغة الإنجليزية والفرنسية في المراحل الأولى (سنة أولى) فسوف يتم تقليل هذه الأخطاء في تعبيرهم الكتابي. من أجل التحقق من صحة هذه الفرضية تم حذف 10 نصوص لهؤلاء الطلبة من أصل التحليل، إضافة إلى استبان موجه للأساتذة. هذه الدراسة مقسمة إلى ثلاثة فصول: الفصل الأول هو مخصص للتحدث عن تعلم اللغة الأجنبية. الفصل الثاني، يتطرق إلى تدريس ومعلم مفردات اللغة الأجنبية. أما الفصل الأخير فهو عبارة عن العمل التطبيقي الذي يحتوي على مناقشة وتحليل النتائج التي انتهت إليها الدراسة، كما أنه يتناول الأخطاء الأكثر شيوعاً في العينات المدروسة والممثلة في استعمال بعض مفردات اللغة الفرنسية أو أجزاء منها عند نسيان أو افتقار التلاميذ الكلمات الصحيحة أو لتشابها شكلًا مع مرادفاتها في اللغة الإنجليزية. إضافة إلى هذا فقد تبين أن معظم التلاميذ يفضلون أحياناً في اختيار الكلمات المناسبة للتعبير عن المعنى المراد و ذلك نتيجة ترجمة أفكارهم من اللغة العربية إلى اللغة الإنجليزية. انطلاقاً من ما توصلت إليه هذه الدراسة تم اقتراح بعض التوجيهات التي من شأنها المساعدة في تقليل هذه الأخطاء.