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Title:

**Language Differences: The Effects of Language Transfer in
Interlanguage Pragmatics**

A Dissertation Submitted as a Partial Requirement for the Fulfilment of a Master
Degree in English Language and Linguistics

by

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Academic Year: 2016-2017

ABSTRACT

This research work deals with the effects of the learners' first language in learning foreign languages. It aims at investigating how far does the native language influence the comprehension, and the production of the English language in contexts by foreign language learners. Furthermore, it stresses the fact that even advanced learners make mistakes in communication. Hence, it is meant to highlight the importance of raising English language learners' awareness about the fact, that they display a different pragmatic system from that of the target language native users. To achieve this study, a questionnaire has been designed for a group of LMD English students. After the analysis of the data collected, the results confirm that the students' unawareness of the influence of the first language lead them to misinterpret some English contexts, thus, errors are produced in this foreign language.

Key words: Foreign language learners, pragmatics, language transfer, interlanguage pragmatics.

DEDICATION

To my wonderful parents, whose love, encourage, and prays make me able to get such success and honor.

To my sweet and loving sisters: Amina and Rafiaa.

To my wonderful brother Yacine for his endless love.

To my best friend Bouchra for her support and encouragement.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, I am deeply grateful to ALLAH for all of his blessings.

I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude and deepest appreciation to my supervisor Dr. Bel Abbes Neddar for his unaccountable guidance, support, help and patience. It was a great privilege and honor to work and study under his guidance. I am extremely grateful for what he has offered me.

My sincere thanks go to the jury members Dr, Benneghrouzi and Ms. Derraz for examining the thesis and taking part in the committee.

Special thanks go to my teachers Mr.Bougnous, Ms. Belmihoub Amel,, Mr Behira Younes, and Ms. Benkadour Cherifa for their supports .

I am deeply thankful to all my teachers, whom I owe all the respect.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CCSARP: Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

FTA: Face Threatening Act

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LMD: License, Master, Doctorate

MT: Mother Tongue

SD: Standard Deviation

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

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Introduction

Language is the basic tool of communication. It is the way through which people can understand each other, and share their ideas and thoughts. In fact, learning another language can facilitate the human's social life. However, learning a foreign language is not an easy task, because one does not have to learn only the equivalent words in a foreign language, but rather to have a pragmatic competence in a particular language.

that is to say, mastering a foreign language requires having a grammatical and contextual knowledge of a particular language, in order to have a successful communication. In fact, researchers have tackled the most important issues of this aspect within the investigation of the interlanguage pragmatic study.

Furthermore, the role of the mother tongue in learning foreign languages cannot be denied, because of its importance. In addition, the mother tongue is the first language that people use to speak, and to communicate. Moreover, the most important thing is that the mother tongue is the first language that people use to think. In fact, consciously or unconsciously the mother tongue can influence and affect the foreign language process, and it can lead to misinterpretation in communication.

In fact, this research work discusses these main aspects in learning foreign language, under the heading of “Language Differences: The Effects of Language Transfer in Interlanguage Pragmatics”. So, what is interlanguage pragmatics? And what is language transfer? what are the main causes that lead to language transfer? And where transfer can take place in the production of a target language? Thus, the answer may be language transfer surrounds the influence of the first language in understanding a target language. In addition, language transfer could take place, because of the differences between language.

This research work surrounds three chapters. The first one is a theoretical background of interlanguage pragmatic studies. This chapter tackles the main definitions and views of interlanguage pragmatics by different scholars. Also, it discusses the main studies, that have been tackled in this domain.

The second chapter deals with the notion of language transfer. It demonstrates the historical background of language transfer, and highlights the causes of this issue. Also it highlights the main levels, where transfer take place in learning foreign language.

The last chapter in this research work is a practical side. It analysis a questionnaire that is given to English students about the issue of transfer in learning foreign languages. Moreover, it highlights the main instructions, that can be followed to avoid transfer in learning foreign languages.

Learning a foreign language becomes very important nowadays. In fact, being able to communicate in a foreign language helps you to make good connections with people. Furthermore, the development of technology is considered to be the main reason, that make people learn a foreign language. In fact, in today's world the English language becomes an international language, or in other words it is considered as "A Lingua Franca". In addition, it is the most foreign language, that many people are interested to learn. However, it is very important to know how the foreign/ second language learners acquire and understand the main aspects of the language that they are dealing with. In fact, this chapter tackles these issues in a kind of a theoretical part

entitled of “ Theoretical Background of Interlanguage Pragmatics”. It is devoted to highlight the main points that are related to learning a foreign/ second language.

Chapter One: Theoretical Background of Interlanguage Pragmatics

1. Definition of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is an important study in language acquisition. It is a young discipline, that goes back to the late of 1970 s and the early of 1980s. Kasper and Blum-kulka (1993) characterize ILP as “second generation hybrid” (p.3), because it is derived from two different disciplines. It belongs to the domain of language acquisition research and pragmatics, which is defined as “the study of the speaker’s intended meaning when he uses language in context. This use can be either at the level of speech or writing” (Neddar, 2004, p.133). Likewise, Schauer (2009), indicates that “interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is a subfield of both interlanguage studies, which belongs to the domain of second language acquisition research, and pragmatics” (p.15).

In fact, interlanguage pragmatics has been defined by many researches in different ways. Neddar (2008) defines interlanguage pragmatics as: “The knowledge of the non-native speaker’s use of pragmatically utterances according to the sociocultural norms of the target language (TL)” (as cited in Neddar,2011, p.4). That is to say, interlanguage pragmatics refers to a second language learner’s comprehension and use of L2 pragmatics knowledge in different contexts, and by taking into account the sociocultural norms of that language.

Gabrielle Kasper defines interlanguage pragmatics in various ways. For her, ILP is “.... the investigation of non-native speaker’s comprehension and production of speech acts, and the acquisition of L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired” (Kasper and Dahl, 1991, p.215). Also, Kasper and Rose (1999) defines interlanguage pragmatics as “...the study of non-native speaker’s use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge” (as cited in Barron,2001, p.27). In other words, interlanguage pragmatics is the study of the ways in which non-native speakers acquire, comprehend, and use linguistic patterns in a second language. In another definition of Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993),

interlanguage pragmatics refers to “the study of non-native speakers’ use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in second language (L2)” (p.3). Furthermore, Schauer (2009) defines ILP as “the acquisition, comprehension and production of contextually appropriate language by foreign or second language learners” (p.2).

Moreover, Kasper and Rose (2002) agree that:

interlanguage pragmatics examines how non-native speakers comprehend and produce actions in a target language. As the study of second language learning, interlanguage pragmatics investigates how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform actions in a target language (as cited in Schauer,2009,p.15).

Kasper and Rose in their definition focus on two important aspects in ILP research, which are the production and comprehension aspects of language.

According to Anne Barron (2001), two basic points are underlying the definitions of Kasper. “...firstly, interlanguage pragmatics is concerned with language in use, i.e., with language as action- the subject of pragmatics. Secondly, as the term ‘interlanguage pragmatics’ itself indeed suggests, research should concentrate both on learners’ use and acquisition of pragmatics knowledge” (p.27) . That is to say. ILP takes into account the use and acquisition of pragmatics knowledge of a particular language by its learners.

Based on all the above definitions of interlanguage pragmatics given by researchers, the main investigation of interlanguage pragmatics surrounds both the language use by foreign language learners, and language learning.

2. Sociopragmatics and Pragmalinguistics

Researchers introduce many studies on interlanguage pragmatics, but most of those studies investigate the differences of foreign language learner’ pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. In fact, one of the main purposes of ILP is to investigate how second and foreign language learners’ use the pragmatic rules in a foreign language.

According to Leech (1983), pragmatics may be divided into two sub-areas : sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. In fact, Fraser (1981) claims that “Sociopragmatics focuses on socially appropriate language use: a sociopragmatically

competent language user knows the social rules for ‘what you do, when and to whom’ ” (as cited in Boxer & Cohen,2004, p.284). Whereas, Kiseleva (1978) states that

pragmalinguistics investigates: (a) the pragmatic properties of speech expressions (i.e. the use of words, constructions, utterances) as well as units of the language system at various levels (morphemes, words, word combination, sentences), (b) the rules and regularities of the pragmatic functioning of language units in speech, and above all (c) in typical extralinguistic situations, (d) with respect to typical social aims and tasks, (e) with respect to social and physical types of subjects (speakers) and receivers. (as cited in Prucha, 1983, p. 47)

Furthermore, pragmalinguistics deals with what Crystal (2003) calls “the more linguistic end of pragmatics” (p.364), and sociopragmatics as defines by Leech (1983) as “the sociological interface of pragmatics”.(p.10). That is to say, pragmalinguistics is concerned with the aspects of context as encoded in language structure. Whereas, sociolinguistics refers to how individuals use language in communication by taking into account the social factors of a particular language.

In other words, sociopragmatic knowledge allows the language users to know what is socially acceptable and appropriate through certain rules. Whereas, pragmalinguistics equips these users with tools in order to express themselves.

Leech in his book “Principle of Pragmatic” (1983) explains these types of knowledge by providing the following figure:

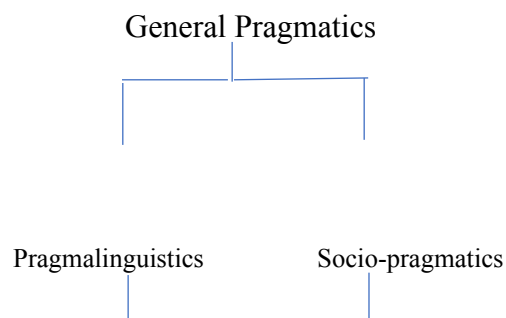




Figure1 *Genral Pragmatics*

Leech (1983) states that “general pragmatics, as studied here, is a fairly abstract study. Of course, we do need detailed pragmalinguistic studies, which are language specific and detailed sociopragmatic studies, which are culture specific.” (p.11). That is to say pragmalinguistics deals with the tools that are available for the language user to achieve pragmatic knowledge, and sociopragmatics deals with how to achieve this pragmatic knowledge. In other words, pragmalinguistics is simply related to grammar and sociolinguistics is related to sociology and how to use this grammar in society.

1. The Prime Target of Interlanguage Pragmatics: Speech Act

The speech act theory has been defined in various ways. Neddar (2004) defines speech act as “The act of communication performed by an utterance-either in speech or writing-that has a reference, force, and effect” (p.135). Also, Searle (1969) defines speech act as “the basic unit of communication”(p.21), and for Cohen (1996) “a speech act is a functional unit in communication” (as cited in Chen et al,2001, p.244). In other words, a speech act is an utterance that has a functional purpose like requesting, promising or apologising.

The concept of speech act was introduced by the American linguist philosopher Austin (1962) in the discussion of the speech act theory in his book ‘How to do Things with Words’, and it was later developed by Searle (1969). Austin and Searle observe that “when we produce utterances we do not only express a proposition by using the convention of the code to key the reader/ listener into a context of shared language. But we do also perform some functions such as request, order, apology, asserting and so on” (Neddar,2004, p.57). That is to say, when people speak, they don’t just speak or say words but also perform a particular act. Speech acts have a great importance especially in the field of pragmatics as it is considered “one of the central phenomena that any general pragmatic theory must account for” (Levinson, 1983, p.226). The general target of the speech act theory is on what speakers intend by their utterances.

In addition, there are some conditions, which are necessary to the success of a speech act. These conditions are called 'felicity conditions'. Brown and Levinson (1987) state that "a felicity condition is one of the real-world conditions that must be met by aspects of the communicative event in order for a particular speech act to come off as intended" (p.132). That it is to say, felicity conditions are the most important part in communication for the success of speech acts. Austin (1975) distinguishes three types of felicity conditions, which are as follows:

A. (i) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect

(ii) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure.

B. The procedure must be executed (i) correctly and (ii) completed
(p.14)

Neddar explains these conditions in one of his lectures on discourse analysis and pragmatics, March 16th 2016. He sees that these conditions necessitate that the language used should be understood by both participants, the action should be possible, and the context should be suitable.

As the example given by Austin, the purpose of the utterance "I now pronounce you husband and wife" (as cited in Pramaggiore and Hall, 1996, p.72) should be expressed in a marriage ceremony by a priest who has the authority to do so in order to be achieved.

Furthermore, Austin (1962) explains the nature of a speech act in claiming that "In saying something, a speaker also does something." (as cited in Trosborg, 1995, p.5). That it is to say, when people speak, they perform a particular function, which goes in parallel with what they utter. Austin sees the performance of a speech act involves the performance of three types of acts. In fact, Widdowson (1996) calls them 'aspects of pragmatic meaning' (as cited in Neddar, 2004, p.57). The first act is what Austin calls 'locutionary act', which is according to Crystal (2008) "the act of making meaningful utterance" (p.288). That is to say, the locutionary act conveys the literal meaning of the utterance. The second act is the "illocutionary act", which is according to Crystal (2008) "an act which is performed by the speaker by virtue of the utterance having been made" (p.235). In other words, it is the act that performs a particular social function contained within the utterance or written text. The last speech act is what Austin calls a 'perlocutionary act'. Crystal (2008) defines this act as "an act performed by making an

utterance which intrinsically involves an effect on the behaviour, beliefs, feelings, etc.” (p.358). It means, the perlocutionary act is the result and effect of the utterance on the hearer .

Austin further explained these acts as “the locutionary act... which has a meaning; the illocutionary act which has a certain force in saying something; the perlocutionary act which is the achieving of certain effects by saying something” (1962, p.120).

In other words, Neddar explains the notion of speech act by giving the example of the utterance ‘The lecturer may refuse it’ (2004, p.57). According to him, this utterance consists of the three acts. He says that the noun phrase ‘the lecture’ is known by both the speaker and the hearer and this thanks to the definite article ‘the’, which takes an indexical function, thus all the noun phrase communicatively act as reference, which is called the locutionary act (Neddar,2004). In addition, Neddar (2004) says: “we produce an utterance with a communicative value: an offer, an explanation or a warning” (p58). In other words people do produce utterances with particular functions. (force) . In fact, this is the second act, which is called the illocutionary act. Furthermore, he says that the speaker of that utterance intends to have an effect on the hearer; to frighten, to persuade or to impress. In fact, this kind of effect deals with the third act of speech, which is known as the perlocutionary act (the perlocutionary effect).

Furthermore, the second act, which the illocutionary force is the most important one when it comes to the notion of the speech acts. Moreover, Yule (1996) affirms that “.....the term ‘speech act’ is generally interpreted quite narrowly to mean only the illocutionary force of an utterance” (as cited in Neddar,2004, p.58). That is to say, the illocutionary force is the main speech act, that should be discussed among the speech acts.

In 1976, Searle develops the concept of Austin on illocutionary acts by proposing five main types of speech acts , which are explained by Searle in the following table. (as cited in Shujun Li and Kokar, 2013,p.38):

Table 1 *Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts*

| Illocutionary Act | Description | Examples |
|-------------------|---|------------------------|
| Representatives | Commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. | Conclude, deduce, etc. |

| | | |
|--------------|---|---|
| | | |
| Directives | Attempts by to get the hearer to do something. | Order, command, request. |
| Commissives | Commit the speaker to some future course of action. | Promise, vow, pledge, guarantee, refuse, swear, etc. |
| Expressives | Express a psychological state in the propositional content. | Thank, congratulate, apologize, condole, welcome, etc. |
| Declarations | bring about some alternation in the status or condition of the referred-to object | “I declare your employment is terminated” , “I pronounce you husband an wife” |

As it is illustrated in the above table, Searl’s classification of illocutionary acts includes: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Also, it illustrates that each illocutionary act serves a particular purpose in communication and each one of them can be presented by a set of speech acts.

Furthermore, speech acts fall into many subcategories, which are illustrated in the following table:

Table 2 The Most Common Speech Acts

| Speech Act | Function |
|------------|--|
| Assertion | conveys information |
| Question | elicits information |
| Request | elicits action or information |
| Order | demand action |
| Promise | commits the speaker to an action |
| Threat | commits the speaker to an action that the hearer does not want |

The above table shows the most common subcategories of speech acts. In fact, each subcategory has certain function in communication. However, this research work focuses on the three main subcategories, which are: Request, refusal, and apology. Moreover, as it is presented in table1, the act of request represents the category of

‘directives’, the act of refusal represents the category of ‘commissives’, and the act of apology represents the category of ‘expressives’.

3-1-Requests

The speech act of requests belongs to the classification of directives, which is according to Searle (1979) “to get the hearer to do something” (as cited in Capon & Mey, 2015, p. 836). The importance and the daily use of the request act, has attracted the attention of many researchers in pragmatic studies.

Trosborg (1995) states “a request is an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act, which is for the benefit of the speaker” (as cited in Juan and Martinez 2010, p.238). It means that, through the act of requesting the hearer can understand what the speaker want him/her to do. Blum-Kulka (1989) defines requests as “pre-event acts, intended to affect the hearer’s behaviours” (as cited in Vine, 2004, p.24). The speech act of request is a pre-event act, because the desired result takes place after the request is performed.

In fact, “requests have been considered to be one of the most face-threatening acts, since they intrinsically threaten some aspects of the hearer’s negative face” (as cited in Juan and Martinez,2010, p.237) . In addition, Trosborg (1995) states:

the speaker who makes requests attempts to exercise power or direct control over the intentional behaviour of the hearer, and in doing so threatens the requestee’s negative face (his/her want to be unimpeded) by indicating that he he/ does not intend to refrain from impeding the requestee’s freedom of action. The requester also runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to refuse to comply with his/her wishes. (p.188)

That is to say, Requests are considered face-threatening acts for both the hearer, whose freedom of action can be impeded, and for the speaker, who faces the risk of losing face if the requestee (the hearer) does not comply.

In other words, the request is a face-threatening act, because the speaker threatens the hearer’s face by imposing his/her freedom of action. That is to say, a face-threatening act basically affects the face of the speaker or the hearer by acting as opposed to the wants or

desires of the other. By face Brown and Levinson (1987) mean “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” (p.66).

Furthermore, Juan and Martinez (2010) state that “for an appropriate requestive behaviour, learners need to possess considerable pragmatic expertise in order to be able to perform requests successfully and avoid the effect of them being perceived as rude, offensive, or demanding” (p.237). That is to say, for a successful communication people should use requests in appropriate ways and this is by possessing specific pragmatic expertise. Moreover, by possessing pragmatic expertise, Juan and Martinez (2010) mean “they need to know not only pragmalinguistic knowledge (i.e the particular linguistic resources for formulating a request) but also sociopragmatic knowledge (i. e. which contextual and social variables determine the appropriateness of pragmalinguistic choice) (p.237). That it to say, it is important to know not only how sentences are formulated, but to know how to use it according to the right social contexts, in order to avoid conflicts in communication.

Moreover, the speech act of request has attracted many researchers in ILP. According to Schauer (2009) “Fraser’s description of the attributes of requests provides a number of reasons that explain why this particular speech act has attracted a large amount of interest”(p.24) . In addition, Fraser (1978) states:

requests are very frequent in language use (far more frequent, for example, than apologizing or promising); requests are very important to the second language learner; they have been researched in more detail than any other type of speech act; they permit a wide variety of strategies for their performance; and finally, they carry with them a good range of subtle implications involving politeness, deference, and mitigation. (as cited in Schauer, 2009, p.24).

It means that among all the speech acts, request is very important to deal with, because it the most frequently used in everyday life. Furthermore, learners cannot stop using requests especially for the need of taking information.

The high frequency of using requests by language learners and native speakers, this speech act has received much attention in ILP research. Prior to Schauer (2009)

House and Kasper (1981) and Kasper (1981) investigated requests by German learners of English and developed an eight-part classification scheme for request strategies. This scheme was based on previous work on request categorizations in speech act and politeness theory, such as Searle

(1975, 1976), Ervin-Tripp (1976, 1977), Labov and Fanshel (1977), Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) and Leech (1983). (p.26)

In addition, Later, House and Kasper (House & Kasper, 1981; Kasper, 1981) modified their original taxonomy for requests and they formed with Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's research (Blum-Kulka 1982, 1987; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) the basis of the classification scheme, which was used in the 'Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project' (1989b, henceforth CCSARP) , and this lead Blum-Kulka. House and Kasper to categorize system of request strategies, which has been frequently used in ILP request research. (Schauer, 2009). This system of request strategies is illustrated with examples in the following table (as cited in Schauer, 2009, p. 26) :

Table 3: *Request Strategies in ILP*

| | |
|----------------------|---|
| Mood derivable | Clean up that mess |
| Performative | I am asking you to clean up that mess |
| Hedged Performative | I would like to ask you to clean up that mess |
| Obligation Statement | You'll have to clean up that mess |
| Want Statement | I really wish you'd clean up that mess |
| Suggestory Formula | How about cleaning up? |
| Query Preparatory | Could you clear up the kitchen, please? |
| Strong Hint | You have left the kitchen in a right mess |
| Mild Hint | I wanted to cook tonight |

In fact, the above table shows that the act of request is formulated according to nine different strategies, which are grouped in three categories. The first category of request strategies is called 'direct request' in the CCSARP's scheme. It consists of the mood derivable, performative, hedge performative, obligation statement, and want statement. Whereas the second category is called 'conventionally indirect requests'. It consists of the suggestory formula and query preparatory. The last category is known as 'non conventionally indirect requests', where the strong hint, and mid hint strategy are classified in. (Schauer,2009). Later on, Trosborg (1995) another request strategy framework, which has a considerable impact on examining foreign language learners and native speakers' request strategy. (Schauer,2009). This frame work is introduces in the flowing table (as illustrated in Schauer, 2009,p.27):

Table 4 *Trosborg's Framework of Request*

| | | |
|----------|--|--|
| Cat.I | <p>Indirect Request</p> <p>Str. 1 Hints (mild)</p> <p>(strong)</p> | <p>I have to be in the airport in half an hour.</p> <p>My car has broken down.</p> <p>Will you be using your car tonight?</p> |
| Cat. II | <p>Conventionally indirect (hearer oriented conditions)</p> <p>Str.2 Ability</p> <p>Willingness</p> <p>Permission</p> <p>Str. 3 Strategy formulae</p> | <p>Could you lend me your car?</p> <p>Would you lend me your car?</p> <p>May I borrow your car?</p> <p>How about lending your car?</p> |
| Cat. III | <p>Conventionally indirect (speaker based oriented)</p> <p>Str. 4 Wishes</p> <p>Str.5 Desires/ needs</p> | <p>I would like to borrow your car.</p> <p>I want/ need to borrow your car.</p> |
| Cat. IV | <p>Direct requests</p> <p>Str. 6 Obligation</p> <p>Str.7 Performatives (hedged)</p> <p>Str.8 (unhedged)</p> <p>Imperatives</p> <p>Elliptical phrases</p> | <p>You must/ have to lend me your car.</p> <p>I would like to ask you to lend me your car.</p> <p>I ask/ require you to lend me your car.</p> <p>Lend me your car.</p> <p>Your car (please).</p> |

Shauer sees that e Trosborg's taxonomy looks similar to that of CCSARP, in some respects like both of them included directness scale. However, there are some differences between the two schemes. For instance, the equivalent of the CCSARP direct strategy want statements is classified as conventionally indirect and divided into two separate categories (wishes and desires/needs) in Trosborg's scheme. This indicates that even though there are some agreements on the classification of many categories, but there is no a general agreement on a restricted categorization system of request strategies.

3-2-Refusals

As it is illustrated in the first table, the speech act of refusal takes place within the commissive category of Searle's classification of speech acts. In fact, Chen et al (1995) claim that a refusal is the act which the speaker "denies to engage in an action proposed by the interlocuter" (as cited in Gass & Houck, 1999, p.2). In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987) claims :

the speech act of refusal is a face- threaten act because of its non-compliant nature. In refusal of directive (e.g., request, suggestion), the speaker averts a threat to her negative face, while a refusal to a commissive (e.g., offer, invitation) involves the speaker declining support of her positive place. (as cited in Arnández et al, 2013, p.101)

That it is to say, the act of refusal is considered as act that threatening the face, because its nature as a reaction of unwillingness to comply.

Furthermore, Beebe and et al (1990) developed a Taxonomy of Refusals that offers three direct strategies of refusals and eleven indirect strategies of refusals. These strategies are illustrated in the following table (as cited in [Palanques, 2011](#), p.73):

Table 5 Beebe classification of refusals

| | | |
|----------------------|---|---|
| Directive strategies | Performative | I refuse. |
| | Non-performative | No. |
| | Negative willingness ability | I cannot, I won't, I don't think so. |
| Indirect strategies | Statement of regret | I am sorry. |
| | Wish | I wish I could help you. |
| | Excuse, reason or explanation | My children will be home that night. I have a headache. |
| | Statement of alternative | I'd rather / I 'd prefer |
| | Set condition for future/past acceptance | if you had asked me earlier, I would have. |
| | Promise of future acceptance | 'll will do it next time. I promise I will. Next time I will. |
| | Statement of principle | I never do business with friends. |
| | Statement of philosophy | one can be too careful |
| | Attempt to dissuade the interlocutor | I won't be any fun tonight. |
| | acceptance that functions as a refusal | a. Unspecific or indefinite reply. b. Lack of enthusiasm |
| | Avoidance: a. non-verbal: silence, hesitation, doing nothing, physical departure. b. verbal: topic switch, joke, repetition of part of the request. | Monday? |
| | Postponement | I'll think about it |
| | Hedge . | Gee, I don't know. I'm not sure |

The table above illustrates the different strategies of refusal, as introduced by Beeb (1990). It is noticeable that this act consists of many indirect strategies. These different

indirect strategies makes the refusal act a complex one among the other speech act, thus, this it may lead to misunderstanding.

3-3- Apologies

In the field of ILP, there are many studies of apologies that focus on investigating language learner's linguistic realization patterns in the target language. In fact, apologies have been defined in various ways. According to the Oxford Dictionary 'apology' is "a formal expression of regret at being unable to attend a meeting or social function". It means that apology is a kind of defence, a justification, an excuse about being unable to do something.

Moreover, Fraser (1981) define apologies as "the offender's (apologizer's) expressions of regret for the undesirable effect of the act upon the offended party (apologee)" (as cited in Moder & Martinovic, 2009, p.99). That is to say, apology is an act, where the apologizer excuse the apologizee for unexpectable behaviour or saying.

In fact, Tracy et al (2015) state "the term apology comes from ancient Greek where it referred to the defendant's speech at a trial. The English verb to apologize was borrowed with this meaning, which then changed from providing defensive accounts to expressing regret and showing remorse" (p.49). That is to say, has evolved from defensive meaning to the act of showing regret.

Furthermore, apologies are classified under Searle's classification (1976) of expressives, for the reason that they express a psychological state. According to Hepburn and Wiggins (2007) "an act that seeks forgiveness and redemption for what is unreasonable, unjustified or defenceless" (p.90). In addition, Goffman (1971) defines apology as "a gesture through which an individual splits himself into two parts, the part that is guilty of an offense and the part that dissociate itself from the delict and affirms a belief in the offended rule" (as cited in Hedberg and Zacharski, 2007, p.296). That it is say, the act of apology makes the apologizer in one place as a guilty and in a place where he /she tries to disassociate himself/herself from the offense at the same time.

Moreover, Fraser (1981) and Olshtain (1989) consider the act of apology as "face saving for Hearer/ Recipient and face threatening for Speaker/Writer, because

through apologies the Speaker/ Writer acknowledges and expresses regret for a fault or offense to the Hearer/ Recipient” (as cited in Shen et al,2015, p.207) . In other words, the speaker faces the risk of having a face threatening when apologies are not accepted, yet, the hearer’s face is saved by receiving an expression of regret from the hearer.

Furthermore, Olshtain and Cohen (1983) provide different strategies for the act of apology. These strategies are illustrated in the following table (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p.176):

Table 6 *Olshtain and Cohen strategies*

| Strategy | Example |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1 An expression of apology | |
| a Expression of regret | I am sorry. |
| b An offer of apology | I apologize. |
| c A request for forgiveness | Excuse me. |
| 2 An explanation or account of the situation | The bus was late. |
| 3 An acknowledgement of responsibility | It’s my fault |
| a Accepting the blame | I wasn’t thinking. |
| b Expressing self-deficiency | You are right. |
| c Recognizing the other person as deserving apology | I didn’t mean to. |
| d Expressing lack of intent | I’ll pay for the broken vase. |
| 4 An offer of repair | It won’t happen again. |
| 5 A promise of forbearance | |

As it is mentioned in the above table, Olshtain and Cohen provide five main categories of apologies, where the apologizer feels the need to apologize. Moreover, each of these categories has different sub-categories.

To sum up, interlanguage pragmatics has achieved a great intention by many research. Furthermore, dealing with interlanguage pragmatics allows the language users to be aware about the target language that they are dealing with. Moreover, in order to

be a high proficiency speaker in a second language, it requires to know and use the knowledge of vocabulary, syntax, pronunciation, etc., in an appropriate way simply because languages differ in how people use the different speech acts, and what may work in one language may not in the other.

In today's era, the progress of technology and science rises the attention of many people to learn foreign languages. In fact, knowing and speaking a foreign language becomes very important nowadays, because it can open up new possibilities and opportunities for people in different domains. However, learning a foreign language is a very complex process, because that language is not like the person's native one. In

addition, the foreign language learner by any means goes back to his/ her mother tongue in the process of learning foreign languages. In fact, this happens because the native language has a great impact on individuals. Moreover, it is the first language that people use to think, to learn, and to communicate. Furthermore, this phenomenon lead to the appearance of what is known as the notion of ‘language transfer’. So, what is meant by language transfer? And where does it take place in learning foreign languages? The answers of these question are highlighted in the following chapter.

Chapter Two: Language Transfer in Foreign Language Learning

1. Definition of Language Transfer

Language transfer is very important concept in applied linguistics and second language acquisition (SLA). It has been a central issue in these domains for a long time. Language transfer is also known as L1 interference, linguistic interference, and cross meaning. Indeed, the term ‘transfer’ is defined as “ the interaction of previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge with the present learning event to facilitate a new language learning task” (Brown, 2007, p. 117) . Moreover, it is used to refer to “the extent to which knowledge and skills acquired in one situation affect a person’s learning or performance in a subsequent situation.” (Ormrod, 2014, p. 206). In other words, transfer refers to the impact of the individual’s previous knowledge on language learning.

According to the Oxford Dictionary , language transfer is ‘the process of using your knowledge of your first language or another language that you know when speaking or writing a language that you are learning.’ In fact, many linguists have defined language transfer. It is defined as “the first language learning affects the second language learning” (James, 1980, p. 25). Moreover, it can be defined as “learner’s attempts to make use of previous L1 knowledge” (Ellis, 1997, p. 19). In other words, language transfer is the influence of a person’s first language knowledge in the use of another language. Likewise, language transfer is “a psychological process for the language learners who stimulated their mother tongue to use the interlanguages” (Faerech and Kasper, 1987, p. 36). It means that language transfer takes place, when learners depend on their mother tongues to acquire and use languages. In fact, interference is defined as “the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of

the first language onto the surface of the target language” (Dulay et al, 1982). It means that language transfer occurs to a person, when his/her first language impacts his/her understanding of another language. Moreover, Ellis (1986) claims that interference is ‘the influence that the learner’s L1 exerts over the acquisition of an L2’(p.51). In addition, it is defined as ‘errors in the learner’s use of the foreign language that can be traced back to the mother tongue’ (Lott, 1983, p. 256). That it is to say, interference is the impact of an individual’s mother tongue when dealing with other languages.

Actually, language transfer can appear when FL learners depend on their mother tongues in order to acquire a second and a foreign language, and this is through comparing the similarities and differences between their mother tongues and the language they deal with. In other words, whenever an individual goes back to his/her mother tongue, in order to understand or to use the foreign language, the issue of language transfer takes place.

2. Types of Language Transfer

Language transfer is an important issue to deal with in learning foreign languages. In fact, the role of mother tongue in learning a second language cannot be denied, since it is involved in the act of learning. Moreover, foreign language learners consciously or unconsciously are influenced by their mother tongues in their learning of foreign language. This influence can appear in two different types of language transfer. These types are: positive transfer and negative transfer.

2.1. Positive Transfer

Positive transfer is also known as ‘facilitation’. It takes place when the mother tongue of an individual influences his/ her learning process of a foreign language in a positive way. In other words, positive transfer occurs when the MT helps the learner in learning the foreign language due to the similarities between L1 and L2 or foreign language (FL). In addition, positive transfer occurs, when knowledge of previous language helps the FL learner to learn about the language that he/ she faces.

According to Ringborn (2007) positive transfer could be described as “the application of at least partially correct perceptions or assumptions of cross linguistic similarity. That perceptions only partially correct still have a mainly effect is

particularly relevant for comprehension” (p.31). In other words, the similarities between L1 and L2/FL has an important effect on learning L2/FL and this through facilitating the L2/FL process. Moreover, Wolfram (2007) defines positive transfer as “the incorporation of language features into a non-native language based on the occurrence of similar features in the native language” (as cited in Melis,2002, p.103). That is to say, when L1 and L2/FL share the same features, learners will face less difficulties and help them in their process of learning a foreign language. Furthermore, Liberman and McDonLd (2016) sustain that “when learning in one context improves learning or performance in another context this is called positive transfer”. (p.4). It means that positive transfer is all about facilitation, and it takes place when one language helps in the learning process of the other language.

Actually, all the definitions of positive transfer surround the idea, that this kind of transfer takes place when the mother tongue of a foreign language learner has similar features with the target language. In other words, when the first language shares the same rules and patterns with the target language, this will help the learner in learning that language easily.

2.2. Negative Transfer

Language transfer can appear in another kind of transfer. This kind is known as ‘negative transfer’ or ‘interference’. According to Meriam Webster Dictionary, negative transfer is “the impeding of learning or performance in a situation by learned responses carried over from another situation. Likewise, Lerberman, et McDoland (2016) claim that” negative transfer occurs when previous learning or experience inhabits or interferes with learning performance in a new context” (p.4). Furthermore, Bransford, et al (2000) suggest that “previous experiences or learning can hinder the learning of new concepts.” (as cited in McDoland,2012, p.4). In other words, negative transfer is the obstruction of a new learning or performance, because of the previous learning that an individual has. Moreover, Rajmanickam (2004) claims that “in learning some new task the previously learned material may interfere and hamper the learning of new task. This we call negtaive transfer”. In addition, he adds “in learning, generally stimulus is attached to response. But if a new response is attached to the old stimulus then the effect is negative transfer”. That is to say, negative transfer occurs when there is a conflict between the previous learning and the new one, which makes the learning process difficult for FL learners.

So, negative transfer takes place when there are no similarities between L1 and target language. That is to say, the differences between the rules of an individual's native language and the language he/she is learning make some difficulties in learning that target language, and this lead to the production of errors in that language.

However, negative transfer can evolve and split into two types of interferences. These types are called 'retroactive inhabitation' and 'proactive inhabitation'. In this regard, Selinker and Mass (2001) point out:

Retroactive- where learning acts back on previously learned material, causing someone to forget (language loss)- and proactive inhabitation- where a series of responses already learned tends to appear in situations where a new set is required. This is more akin to the phenomenon of second language learning because the first language in this framework influences/inhabits/ modifies the learning of the L2.(p.68)

In other words, retroactive inhabitation is the effect of the new material learning on the old learning. It takes place when an individual learns a new language, which makes the human mind forget the previous knowledge, even though it is stored in the mind. However, the proactive inhabitation is the opposite of the retroactive inhabitation. It makes an individual forget the knowledge of the new learning, because of the interference from the old leaning.

3. The Causes of Language Transfer

Language transfer can take place because of many causes. In fact, linguists give different factors that can lead learners to transfer in learning languages. According to Weinereich (1979) "interference is a general problem that occurs in bilingualism. There are many factors that contribute interference." (p.64-65). Furthermore, he distinguishes five factors.

The first factor is the speaker bilingualism background. In fact, bilingualism is the main cause that can lead to transfer, because the speaker is influenced by both languages. Bilingual students tend to use words from one language in another.

The second reason is the disloyalty to target language. This will cause disobedience to target language structure. In other words, this factor lead learner to be unfaithful for the target language structure and this by applying the structure of L1 in the foreign language.

The third factor is the limited vocabularies of target language mastered by a learner. In fact, the lack of vocabularies of the target language lead learners to use their native words in foreign language sentences on purpose when they cannot find the right words in the target language.

The fourth cause is the needs of synonym. Learners tend to use synonyms in order to not repeat the same words. However, this needs lead learners to interference, and this by borrowing of some words from the first language to the target language.

The fifth reason is the prestige and style. This factor is about the use of unfamiliar words by the foreign language user, which will become the style of that user to get a pride. However, this usage lead to interference and this is because there are certain words even the receiver probably cannot get the real meaning.

Later on, Lott (1983) claims that “there are three factors that cause the interference” (p.258). For him interference takes place due to the following factors:

The first factor is the interlingual factor, which results errors in the second language. This factor leads learners to make mistakes in the target language, because of the differences of the grammatical system between the native language and the second one.

The over extension of analogy is the second fact of language transfer for Lott. In addition, he sees that the similarities between the first language and the target one lead the learners to use some vocabularies in the wrong way.

The third factor that causes language transfer in learning a second language is the transfer of structure. In fact, foreign language learners are consciously or unconsciously influenced by their first languages. This influence leads the learners to transfer from their first language to the target one. Moreover, this transfer can be positive, when the first language and the target language have the same structure. Also, it can be negative, when both languages do not share the same structure.

In addition, Odlin (1989) claims that “transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.” (p.27). It means that transfer occurs in learning foreign languages due to the similarities and differences between the mother language and the target one.

Furthermore, Nunan (2001) states “where the first and second language rules are not the same, errors are likely to occur as a result of interference between the two languages.” (p.89) Moreover, Ellis (1985) states “... when linguistic differences between the first and the second language lead to transfer errors” (as cited in Yu & Odlin, 2015, p.10). That is to say, the differences between rules of the native language and the target language lead learners to make more errors in the production of the target language. Also, these views support the idea that the more two languages are different the most errors occurs in learners’ production of a target language.

In addition, Ellis (1997) claims “L1 transfer can also result in avoidance” (p.51). In other words, learners tend to avoid some structures in foreign languages, when it is not used in their native languages. This avoidance makes the learners to do less errors in the target language.

Moreover, “... L1 transfer may be reflected in the overuse of some forms.” (Ellis, 1997, p.52). That is to say, when the learner uses too much particular forms in his/her mother tongue, he/ she does the same thing in the foreign language.

4. Historical Background of Language Transfer

As it is mentioned in the first chapter, interlanguage pragmatics is a young discipline. It appeared in the late of 1970s and the early 1980s. Unlike interlanguage pragmatics, the notion of transfer is not a new discipline. In fact, transfer studies emerged during the 1940s and the 1950s, and it is originated even before the field of second language acquisition (SLA) as an interdisciplinary field.

Language transfer goes back to the works of the American linguists. The main linguists that tackled the issue of language transfer are: Robert Lado in 1957, Charles Fries, and Uriel Weinreich. Indeed, the phenomenon of transfer was first discussed in the work of Weinreich (1953) in the context of language contact research. In this research Weinreich sees that in language contact, when two languages become in contact or when a person becomes familiar with two languages, these two languages cannot be separate. (1968). Thus, the two languages affect each other in different ways like the phenomenon of language transfer. However, Lado in 1957 succeeded in attracting the SLA researchers by the conception of L1 influence, and this was through connecting it with the theories that were common at that time. According to Lado:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the

foreign language and culture -- both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practised by natives. (1957, in Gass and Selinker 1983, p.1)

Furthermore, the notion of transfer belongs to behaviourism and structuralism. In fact, it emerged during the Contrastive Analysis (CA) period. In fact, contrastive analysis was used in SLA as a tool to explain the difficulties of some feature in learning a target language. Indeed, contrastive research started first in 1940 by Charles Fries. Then, in 1951, the American linguist Robert Lado developed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). For Lado the comparison of two language, through finding the similarities and differences between them help to predict and determine the features that represent the difficulty and the easiness in learning a target language. In fact, CAH is based on two perspectives. On one hand, it relies on the structuralist perspective by the view of that “there is a finite structure of a given language that can be documented and compared with another language” (as cited in Buyang-gon,1992, p.134)”. That is to say that all languages have a limit structure, and this facilitate the comparison between two languages. On the other hand, in 1971, Corder states

the second perspective to guide the contrastive analysis hypothesis was the school of behaviourism due to its assumption that the difficulty or easiness of acquiring a second language is rendered to the already acquired habits of the first language. This, therefore, led to the emergence of another theory called transfer that mainly relied on the assumption of transfer of habits from the native language to the learned one. (as cited in Byung-gon, 1992)

In other words, behaviourists view the easiness and the difficulty that foreign language learners face are caused by their previous knowledge. Then, this lead to the appearance of the transfer theory, which is the influence of the first language on the language being learned and this is by the transfer of habits from L1 to the target language.

Moreover, they assume that the differences and the similarities between the native and the target language determine the difficulties in in learning that language. in fact, the notion of transfer complements the contrastive analysis hypothesis, which suggests that the differences between two languages lead to the negative transfer, which result

errors in the target language. Whereas, the similarities between two languages lead to positive transfer, then no errors would result in the production of the target language.

Furthermore, in the early 1960s Chomsky's universal grammar was the main popular theory at that time. Chomsky came with the idea that every human being born with the capacity to learn language. Moreover, Chomsky's universal grammar claims that all human being share a system of grammar rules. Yet, everyone would master any language since all the languages share the same rules. In addition, the study of Dulay and Burt shows that children do not depend neither on the language transfer nor on the comparison with their L1 to build their L2 system, but they rely on their ability to build their L2 system as an independent one. Thus, these studies attacked the contrastive analysis hypothesis and the notion of transfer, thus, CAH was rejected.

Additionally, after the rejection of CAH by SLA researchers, error analysis (EA) was developed. Richards, et (1985) states "Error analysis is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners." (p.201). In fact, EA was developed in 1960 by Stephen Pit Corder as alternative to CAH. According to James (1998)

the next paradigm to replace CA was something that had been around for some time (as we shall presently): Error Analysis (EA). This paradigm involves first independently or 'objectively' describing the learners' IL (that is their version of the TL) and the TL itself, followed by a comparison of the two, so as to locate mismatches. The novelty of EA, distinguishing its form CA, was that the mother tongue was not supposed to enter the picture. The claim was made that errors could be fully described in terms of the TL, without the need to refer to the L1 of the learners. (p.5)

That is to say, it was very important to compare only between interlanguage and the target language. Besides, he claims that the difference between EA and CAH is that the former did not take the learner's mother tongue into account, and errors could be fully described in terms of the target language without referring to the L1 of the learner. Hence, this proved to be impossible and language transfer was accepted as one of the factors that cause errors in learning L2 or a foreign language.

In 1972, the American linguist Larry Selinker introduces his theory of 'interlanguage'. In fact, the term 'interlanguage' was adapted from Weinreich's term 'interlingual'. Moreover, the concept of interlanguage is built upon Corder's work on

the nature of language learners' errors. The general definition of interlanguage is a type a language produced by foreign language learners, who are in the process of learning.

According to Meriam Webster Dictionary, interlanguage is “a language produced by a learner of a second language that often has grammatical features not found in either the learner's native language or the language being acquired”. In other words, interlanguage is a language created by foreign language learners. This created language is between the first language and the target language that is being learned.

In fact, Selinker vi-ews that foreign language learners' language is an independent linguistic system of both L1 and L2/ a foreign language, which is at the same time influenced by both of them. Moreover, interlanguage as introduced by Selinker embodies some characteristics, such as: systemic, dynamic, and variable. It is systematic because the foreign language learner forms an internal construct of grammatical rules and structures. These rules are discovered and formed, due to the analysis of the target language made by the learner. Moreover, it is dynamic because the learner' system of rules is not stable, and it changes frequently. In addition, this language formed by the learner is variable. That is to say, from the context and the situation the learner determines the rules that he/ she uses in the language production.

Furthermore, Selinker identifies different processes that can lead to the learner's development of interlanguage. Among those processes language transfer is the first and the main process in the advance of learner's interlanguage, and this is how the notion of transfer has evolved through time.

5. The Main Levels of Transfer

Foreign language learners consciously or unconsciously are influenced by their mother tongues. In fact, the phenomenon of transfer takes place at all levels. Foreign language learners face the issue of language transfer at the level of phonology, syntax, lexis, and pragmatics.

5.1. Phonological Transfer

According to Meriam Webster Dictionary, phonology is “the study of the science of speech sounds including especially the history and theory of sound changes in a language or in two or more related languages”.

Phonological transfer takes place in the wrong pronunciation of the target language by the foreign language learners. Besides, it occurs in intonation, rhythm, and the accent of the target language. In fact, the majority of learners make mistakes in the pronunciation of a target language, when it comes to vowel length, voiced and voiceless. Also, when there are differences between the L1 consonants and the target language one's, which results negative transfer. In addition, they make mistakes when it comes to word stress, especially when there are differences between the first language and the target language. These differences lead learners sometimes to omit the stress from many words, when their L1 do not make more emphasis on stress.

5.2. Syntactical Transfer

According to Meriam Webster Dictionary, syntax is “the way in which linguistic elements (as words) are put together to form constituents (as phrases or clauses)”.

Negative transfer or as it is known as interference can also take place at the level of syntax. Moreover, learners are influenced by their first language mainly, when it comes in words order and forming phrases or sentences in the foreign language. This influence can lead learners to make grammatical mistakes in the production of the target language. In fact, negative transfer can take place in the use of pronouns, determiners, tenses, and moods. In addition, most of human languages take the ‘VSO’ or ‘SVO’ or ‘SOV’ structures. In this case negative transfer can take place, and this is through forming sentences in the foreign language with the same structure of the learners’ first language.

5.3. Lexical Transfer

According to David Crystal (2008) lexis is “a term used in linguistics to refer to the vocabulary of a language”. In addition, it is defined in the Oxford Dictionary as “the level of language consisting of vocabulary, as opposed to grammar or syntax.”

Vocabulary is the main part in learning any foreign language, because any language is based on its vocabulary. In fact, the lack of vocabulary knowledge is considered as the main obstacle that foreign language learners face. For this reason, learners go back to their mother tongues, in order to avoid this problem. On one hand, lexical transfer can be negative and the main example of lexical transfer in languages is the phenomenon of borrowing or loanwords, which occurs due to the learner's lack of vocabulary in a target language. Besides, lexical transfer can be manifested in calque and literal translation, which is the transfer of L1 words and expressions to the target language structure. On the other hand, lexical transfer can have positive effect like

cognates, which takes place when words are similar in both languages. Furthermore, lexical transfer can be distinguished into two types. This distinction includes transfer of form, which takes place in the use of L1 words in the target language like code switching. Also, it includes transfer of meaning, which is manifested in calque, where learners translate the literal meaning of the first language on the foreign language.

5.4. Pragmatic Transfer

The notion of pragmatic transfer is one of the most frequently issues in the studies of interlanguage pragmatic. In fact, the field of pragmatics deals with different areas like conversational implicature, co-operative principle, and deixis. However, Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) view pragmatics as adopted in the domain of interlanguage pragmatics as “the study of people’s comprehension and production of linguistic action in context” (p.3). In other words, these linguists limit the perspective of pragmatics in ILP in the comprehension and production of learners’ speech acts in context.

According to Kasper (1992) “pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatic shall refer to the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information.” (as cited in Barron,2001, p.36). In other words, pragmatic transfer is the influence of learners’ pragmatic knowledge of their languages and cultures on their comprehension and production of L2 pragmatic knowledge.

Moreover, Olshashi (1983) defines pragmatic transfer as “a learners’ strategy of incorporating native language-based elements in target language production” (as cited in Putz and Aertsealer,2008, p.301). That is to say, pragmatic transfer takes place when learners include their mother tongues’ knowledge in the production of a target language.

Furthermore, Beeb and Takahashi (1990) view that pragmatic transfer is “ the influence of L1 sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other function of language.” (as cited in [Scarcella](#), & [Andersen](#),1990, p.55). In other words, second language learners and foreign language learners transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language in performing the speech acts of that foreign language.

Furthermore, pragmatic transfer includes two types of transfer, which are the sociopragmatic transfer and the pragmlinguistic transfer. Based on the distinction between the sociopragmatic and pragmlinguistic notions in the first chapter, pragmlinguistic transfer according to Barron (2003) is:

pragmalinguistic transfer thus refers to the process by which learners select certain strategies and forms from their L1 to transfer into their interlanguage. The transported items effect the illocutionary force or relative politeness value of a particular utterance in a manner, which may be either similar or dissimilar to the target norms. (p.37).

That is to say, pragmalinguistic transfer deals with how foreign language learners transfer the forms of their native languages into their production of a target one. This transfer effects the illocutionary force of a particular utterance, whether it similar or different from the norms of the target language.

Moreover, for Barron “sociopragmatic transfer on the other hand, stems from culturally differing perceptions of the importance of context-internal and context-external variables.” (p.37). In other words, sociopragmatic transfer occurs due to the differences between learners’ cultural contexts and the target language ones.

In addition, Kasper (1992) refers to sociopragmatic transfer as “the influence of the social perceptions underlying language users’ interpretation and performance of linguistic action in L1 on their assessment of subjectively equivalent L2 contexts.” (in Barron,2003, p.37). That is to say, sociopragmatic transfer is the influence of the learners’ social understanding on the interpretation of the foreign language context, which makes learners transfer their social understanding on the production of the target language.

Furthermore, pragmatic transfer can be also positive and negative. According to Kasper (1992):

positive pragmatic transfer occurs when a language learners succeeds in achieving his/her intended message as a result of transferring a language-specific convention. Negative pragmatic transfer, on the hand, is the inappropriate transfer of native sociolinguistic norms and conventions of speech into the target language. (in Putz and Aertselear, 2008, p.303)

In other words, positive pragmatic transfer occurs, when a learner’s native language facilitates the transmission of the learner’s message in the target language. However, negative pragmatic transfer takes place, when foreign language learner transfers his/her sociolinguistic norms of speech in a target language, where these norms of speech are used only in his/her native language.

Moreover, Maeshiba et al (1996) define positive pragmatic transfer as "... the projection of first language- based sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge where such projections result in perceptions and behaviours consistent with those of second language users." (in Barron, 2003, p.37)

In addition, lacort (2014) views that positive pragmatic transfer occurs "when learners' production of a pragmatic features is the same (structurally, functionally, distributionally) as a feature used by target language speakers in the same context and when this feature is paralleled by a feature in a learner's L1" (p.33).That is to say, positive pragmatic transfer takes place due to the similarities between the pragmatic features of the native language and the target one. These similarities lead foreign language learners to the right production of a target language.

However, Maeshiba (1996) defines negative pragmatic transfer as "... the projection of first language- based sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge onto second language context where such projections result in perceptions and behaviours different from those of second language users." (in Barron, 2003, p.38). In other words, negative pragmatic transfer takes place in the use of the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge of the learners' first language on the production of second or foreign language, where the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic of that language differ from that of learners' mother tongue.

Moreover, Putz and Aertselear (2008) define negative pragmatic transfer as "the inappropriate transfer of native sociocultural norms and conventions of speech into the target language." (p.303). It means that, negative pragmatic transfer is simply the transfer and use of the learner's native sociocultural norms in the production of the target language' speech acts, where it is used in different way than it is in his/ her native language.

6. The Consequences of Language Transfer:

The influence of mother tongue in learning foreign languages cannot be ignored, because it can either facilitate the learning process or appear as an obstacle in learning a target language. In fact, the majority of scholars agree that when the mother language shares some similarities with the target one, the learning process will be easier for foreign language learners. Thus, learners make less errors in the production of the target language. However, the mother tongue can be an obstacle in learning the foreign

language, when the two languages share less similarities and this lead learners to make more errors in the target language.

In 1993, Odlin indicates four different consequences of interference. The first consequence of interference for Odlin is ‘underproduction’. This consequence appears when foreign language learners notice that some structures in the target language differ from the structures of their mother languages. Thus, learners will avoid using those structure in their production of the target language.

The second consequence of interference is the ‘overproduction’. In fact, the learners’ prevention of using particular structures in a target language because of such underproduction, lead them to use other structures in a target language. In addition, they tend to use more regularly some structures, that are not so frequent in the target language. Thus, overproduction will arise in the use of the target language.

Moreover, error production is another consequence of interference. In fact, Odlin distinguishes between two types of errors that can be resulted in interference. These types are: substitutions and calque. The former occurs when the learners use their native language forms in the target language. While, the latter takes place, when the two languages are closely related to each other in terms of structure.

The last consequence of interference is the ‘misinterpretation’. According to Odlin (1989) “misinterpretation may occur, for example, when native and target language word-order patterns or cultural assumptions differ.” (p.37). That is to say, misinterpretation takes place, when some structures and cultural assumptions in the mother tongue influence the interpretation of the message expressed in the target language. In other words, misinterpretation refers to any wrong interpretation of the messages that the speaker wants to convey in a target language.

To sum up, language transfer is an important issue to deal with in learning foreign languages. In fact, the influence of the mother tongue in learning a target language cannot be denied. It can appear consciously or unconsciously to all foreign language learners. At the same time, it can be positive and facilitate the learning process, or it can be negative and appear as an obstacle in learning a target language. Moreover, the notion of transfer occurs in both the comprehension and the production of a target language. Thus, foreign language learners should be aware about the influence of their mother tongue in their learning of foreign languages, in order to avoid errors and to master the target language.

As it is discussed in the first and the second chapter, foreign language learners tempt to make errors in their foreign language learning process. In addition, these errors are due to the influence of the mother tongue on learning a target language. For this reason, a questionnaire has been made to investigate how this issue occur between Algerian English students. The results of this investigation are highlighted in the following chapter.

Chapter Three : Research Design and Methodology

1. Research Methodology

The broad aim of this questionnaire is to investigate how the Algerian Arabic language influences the learning and the production of the English students, and where this influence takes place in their production of this foreign language. In fact, the questionnaire of this research work is distributed to forty English students, in order to check how their mother tongue influences their learning process.

The questionnaire of this research work is analysed through using some specific statistical tools, such as: mean, mode median, range, and standard deviation. In fact, the mean, the mode, and the median are all measures of what is known in statistics as

‘central tendency’. Whereas, the terms range and standard deviation are all measures, that belong to what is termed in statistics ‘dispersion’. According to [Rosenthal](#) (2011) central tendency refers to “the value around which most values tend to cluster or coverage” (p.29). Whereas, dispersion refers to “the spread of scores or variation in the data set” (Gazon et al, 2009, p40)

1. 1. Mean

The mean is the most frequently measure used in statistics. It is sometimes called ‘arithmetic mean’ and the ‘average’. It is the sum of values divided on the number of those values. The mean is symbolized by \bar{x} , which is pronounced as ‘ex bare’. This statistical measure takes a specific formula which is as follows:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

\bar{x} refers to the mean, X refers to the scores, N refers to the number of scores, \sum refers to the sum. So, this formula indicates that in order to calculate the mean one, one has to add up (\sum) the scores (X) and divide by the number of the scores that one has. So, let’s make it clearer through the following example. For instance, what is the mean of the following scores: 5,6,22,19, and 26? By following the above formula, the mean of this set of scores should be calculated as follow:

The first step according the means’ formula is to add up the scores. Thus, one has to sum the scores as follows: $\sum X = 5+6+22+19+26 = 78$. So, this list of scores contains five numbers. That is to say ,the number of scores (N) is 5. The next step is to divide the sum of these scores by its number: $78 / 5 = 15,6$. So, the mean of this set of scores is 15,6.

1. 2. Mode

The mode refers to the value, that appear most frequently in a set of values. That is to say, one has to look the most frequent value or score in a given set, in order to indicate the mode. So, let us indicate the mode in the following example:

Suppose that in the English exam students get the following scores: 18,15,19,15,15,14,17, and 15. Hence, it is noticeable the score of 15 is repeated four times. So, in this case the mode would be 15, because it is the most frequent score in this set. Moreover, to keep the mode in mind, Neddard (2008) claims that “ we associate

the term with its common meaning of fashionable (as in à la mode) . Thus, the mode is the score that is most fashionable or received by the most students” (p.264).

1.3. Median

The median is another measure of central tendency. It differs from the mean, and it is the middle value in a set of values. In fact, the only way to find the median is by placing the numbers in value order, and the median is the number that takes the middle place. For instance, in the following scores: 5,7,12,15,16, the median is obviously 12, simply because it is placed in the middle of that list. In this list the median is clear and it is easy to determine it, however, there are some cases, when it is not clear. For example, what is the median for the following set of scores: 12,15,17, and 18? In this example, the median is not clear, because we cannot divide the set into the half. So, in this case, the median is taken to be midway between the two middle scores. That is to say, the two-middle score in this set are 15 and 17, so, the median is 16. Let us determine the median in the following scores: 7,8,15,16,17, and 18. So, it obviously another different case, however, it is more like the last case. The score 15 and 16 take the middle place in this set. Thus, the median is the midway between these two middle scores. So, the median in this set of scores is 15,5. Neddard (2008) points out “ there are situation which the median is not always so clear to determine, but what one should keep in mind is that the median is the point that divides the scores 50/50” (p.265). In this manner, these are all measures of central tendency, which all have weaknesses and strengths. So, let us now move to the remaining measures, which belong to the dispersion type of statistics.

1.4. Range

It is another important measure in statistics. It is defined as the difference between two scores in the set, one of them is the highest and the other one is the lowest. that is to say, the range of a set of values is the difference between the largest value in this set and the smallest one. In fact, the range can show the spread of values. That is to say, when the range is a small number, the values are close to each other. Whereas, if the range is a high number, they are some distance from each other. It is very easy to calculate the range, all what one has to do is to determine the highest value and the lowest one. Then, subtract the smallest value from the largest one. For instance, this set consists of the following values: 5,7,15,20. In this set the highest value is 20, whereas the lowest one is 5. So, in order to determine the range, one has to subtract the lowest value from the highest one as follows: $20-5= 15$. That is, the range in this set is 15.

1.5. Standard Deviation

The last statistical tool that can be used in the analysis of this research work is what is known in statistics as 'standard deviation'. It is another measure of dispersion of a set of values from its mean. If the values are further from the mean, there is a high deviation within the set values, and vice versa. The standard deviation (SD) takes the following formula:

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{N}}$$

It is noticeable that it contains some elements of the mean formula. In fact, calculating the mean is the first step in determining the standard deviation. So, we can recall that the X symbolise the scores, the \sum is used to add up the scores, and the N is the number of the scores.

By following the standard deviation formula, one has to subtract first the mean, which should be already calculated, from each score ($X - \bar{x}$), then, square each of these values $(X - \bar{x})^2$ and add them up $\sum (X - \bar{x})^2$. The final step is to divide this sum by the number of the scores $\sum (X - \bar{x})^2 / N$, and take the square root, which is the standard deviation. For instance, we have the following scores: Student A:15, student B:16, student C 17, and student D: 20. In order to calculate the standard deviation, we need to calculate the mean first as follows:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{15+16+17+20}{4} = 17$$

The next step is to subtract the mean from each score as follows:

$$X1 - \bar{x} = 15 - 17 = -2$$

$$X2 - \bar{x} = 16 - 17 = -1$$

$$X3 - \bar{x} = 17 - 17 = 0$$

$$X4 - \bar{x} = 20 - 17 = 3$$

The following step is to square these values and add them up as follows

$$(X1 - \bar{x})^2 = (-2)^2 = 4$$

$$(X2 - \bar{x})^2 = (-1)^2 = 1$$

$$(X3 - \bar{x})^2 = (0)^2 = 0$$

$$(X4 - \bar{x})^2 = (3)^2 = 9$$

$$\sum (X - \bar{x})^2 = 4 + 1 + 0 + 9 = 14$$

The final step is to divide this sum by the number of the scores and score the rootlike this:

$$\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{N} = \frac{14}{4} = 3,5$$

$$\sqrt{3,5} = 1,87083$$

So, the standard deviation of these students' scores is 1,87083.

2. Data Analysis

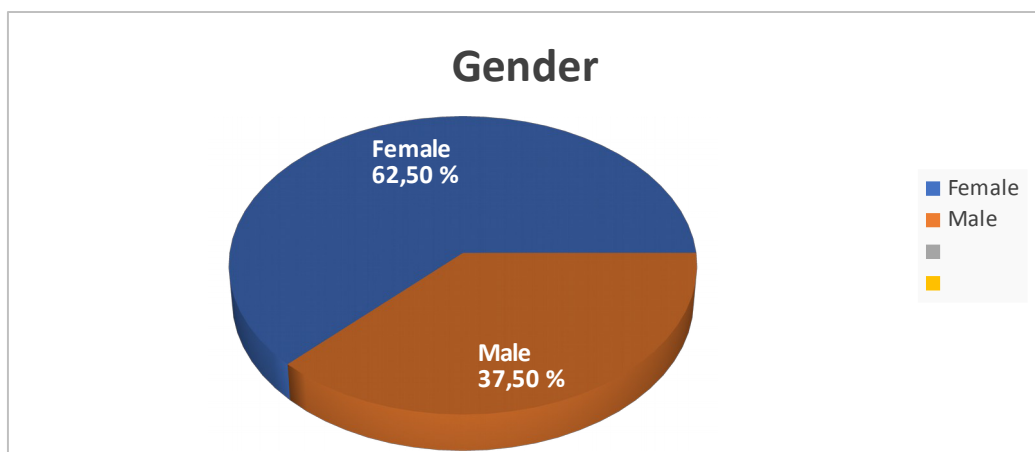
The data of this questionnaire are analysed by using a specific statistics package, which is called 'minitab 17'. This statistics package can calculate all the statistical tools, that are used to analyse the data of this research work. In addition, it provides us with different graphs such as histogram, and line graphs. Also, the analyses of the data can be interpreted in terms of plots like dot plot, and probability plot.

The questionnaire is distributed to English students of both male and female gender. The number of these students is as follows:

Table 1: Students' Gender

| Gender | Male | Female | Total |
|--------------------|-------|--------|-------|
| Number of students | 15 | 25 | 40 |
| Percentages | 37.5% | 62.5% | 100% |

Figure 1 Students' Gender



From the table and the figure above, we can notice that the most of these students are girls, whereas the boys are just 37,5%.

This questionnaire is divided into two different part, the first one contains some questions, whereas the second part contains some practical activities. So, let us start by discussing some important questions of the first part.

The first question in the first part of the questionnaire is as follows:

Q1: Did you choose to study English because

- a- It was your only choice
- b- you need it just for job
- c- it is an international language

The aim of this question is to know the reason that pushed these students to study the English language. the results are:

| Responses | a | b | c |
|-------------|-------|---|----|
| Respondents | 16 | 4 | 20 |
| Mean | 13.33 | | |
| Mode | 20 | | |
| Median | 13 | | |
| Range | 18 | | |
| SD | 6.65 | | |

Table2: Students' reasons about studying English

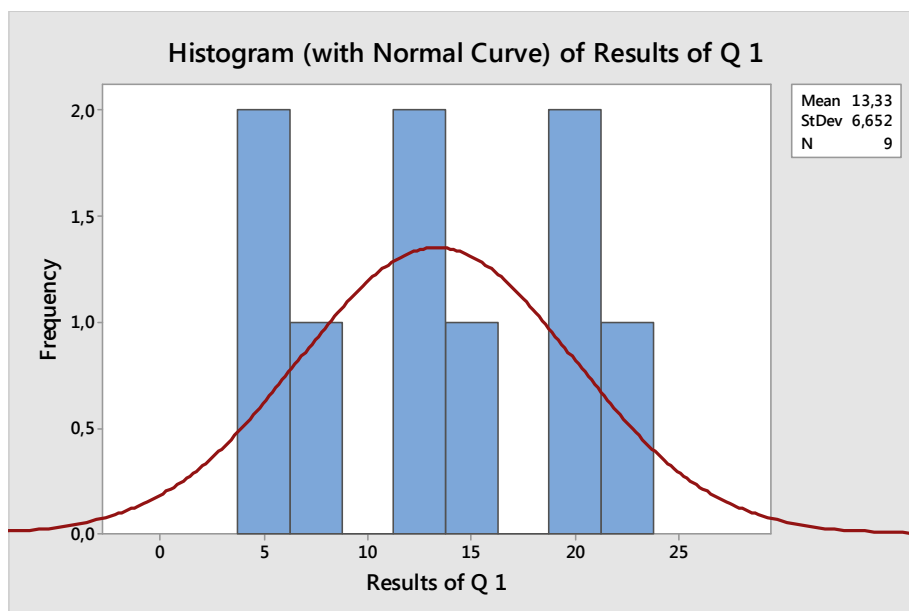


Figure 2 : Results of Q1

From calculating the statistics of this question's responses, we can notice from the mode that the majority of students have chosen the third answer. So, what motivate the student to learn the English language is its high international status.

The next question that it discussed is the third question, which is as follows:

Q3: what do you do when you face difficulties in understanding English?

-a- ignore it

-b- check the difficult words in the dictionary

-c- try to understand the context by translate it into your mother tongue

In fact, the reason behind this questionnaire is to check the students' ability to understand the English language, and to investigate how these students deals with the difficulties, that face them in understanding this target language. the results are:

| Responses | a | B | c |
|--------------------|-------|----|----|
| Respondents | 0 | 16 | 24 |
| Mean | 13,33 | | |
| Mode | 24 | | |
| Median | 16 | | |
| Range | 24 | | |
| Standard deviation | 12,22 | | |

Table 3: Calculating Students' Understanding Ability

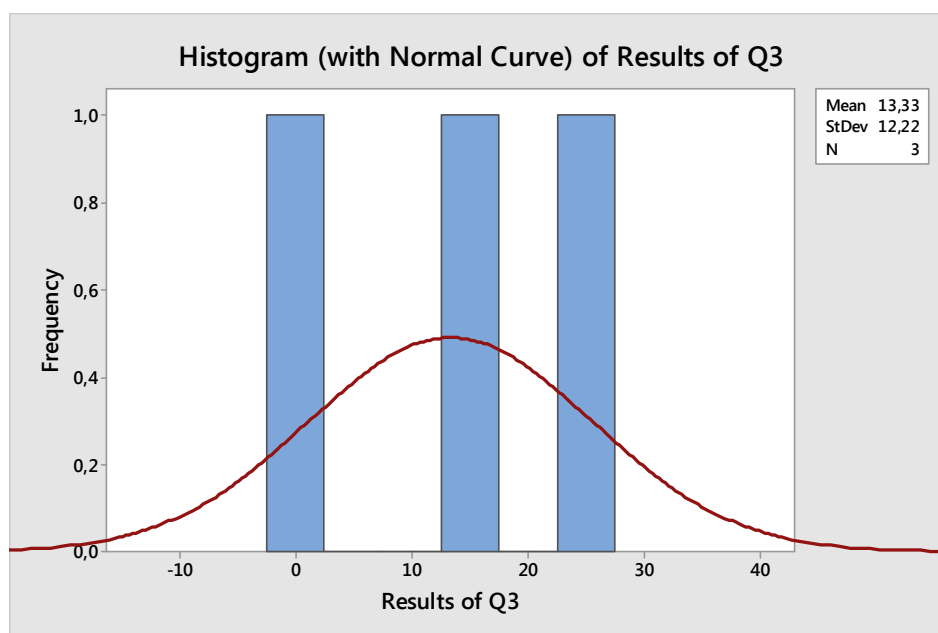


Figure 3: Results of Q3

The data shown in the table show that the mode corresponds the number of students, that have chosen the third answer. So, the majority of students go back to their mother tongue and depend on it to understand the English language.

The next question is the fourth one, which is as follows:

Question 4: do you feel more comfortable when the teacher explains the lesson

-a- by using only, the English language

-b- when the teacher uses both English and Arabic

The aim of this question is to investigate the students' ability to understand the English language inside the classroom.

The results of the question are :

| Responses | a | b |
|--------------------|------|----|
| Respondents | 14 | 26 |
| Mean | 20 | |
| Mode | 26 | |
| Median | 20 | |
| Range | 12 | |
| Standard deviation | 8.49 | |

Table 4: Calculating Students' Understanding Ability in the classroom

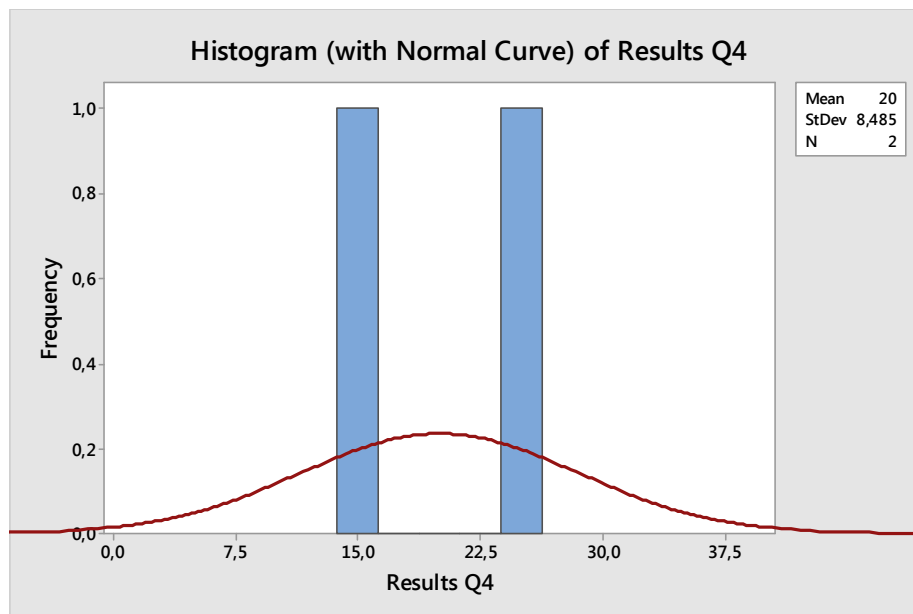


Figure 4: Results of Q4

The data show that the mode is high, and corresponds number of students, who have chosen the second choice. In addition, there is high deviation to this choice. Thus, the students prefer to study, when their mother is present.

The most important question in this questionnaire is the sixth question, which says:

Question 6: Do you think that the first language can influence the use of the target language?

-a- No

-b- yes

The purpose of this question is to investigate whether the students are aware or not about the influence of their mother tongue, in their learning process

The following table illustrates these results:

| Responses | Yes | No |
|--------------------|------|----|
| Respondents | 16 | 24 |
| Mean | 20 | |
| Mode | 24 | |
| Median | 20 | |
| Range | 8 | |
| Standard deviation | 5.66 | |

Table 5: Students' Awareness about Language Transfer

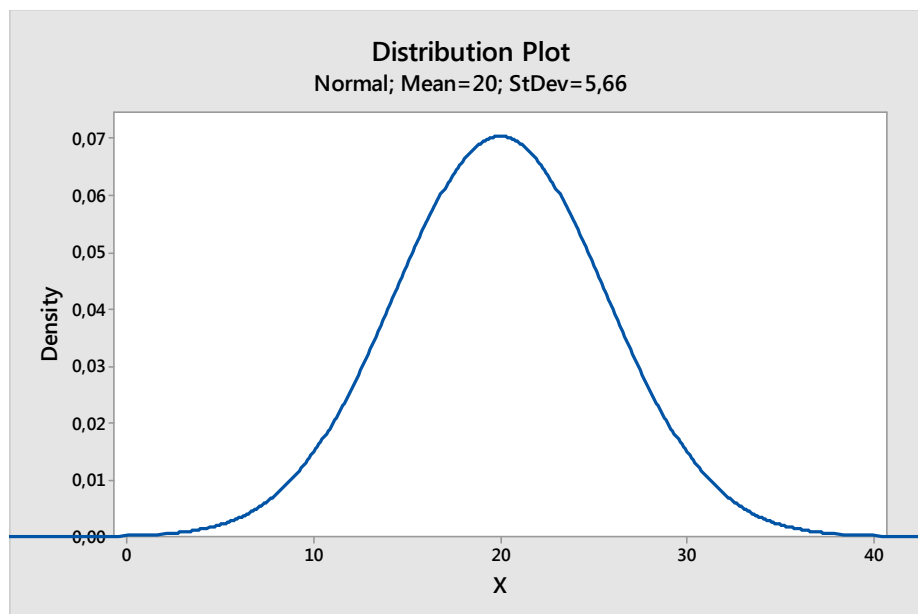


Figure 5: Results of Q 6

From the data presented in the figure and the above table, we can notice that values are closer to the mean. Thus, there is a high deviation within the set values. So,

we can notice that most of students are not aware about the influence of their mother tongue in learning the English language.

The last question of the first part of this questionnaire, that should be analysed is the following one:

Question 7:

In your opinion, can the mother tongue be an obstacle in learning foreign languages?

-a- Yes -b- No

The aim of this question is to investigate, whether they consider their mother tongues as facilitators in their learning of foreign language, or they think that it can be a barrier in their learning process.

The results are in the following table

| Responses | Yes | No |
|--------------------|------|----|
| Respondents | 24 | 16 |
| Mean | 20 | |
| Mode | 24 | |
| Median | 20 | |
| Range | 8 | |
| Standard deviation | 5.66 | |

Table 6: Calculating Students' Thinking about L1

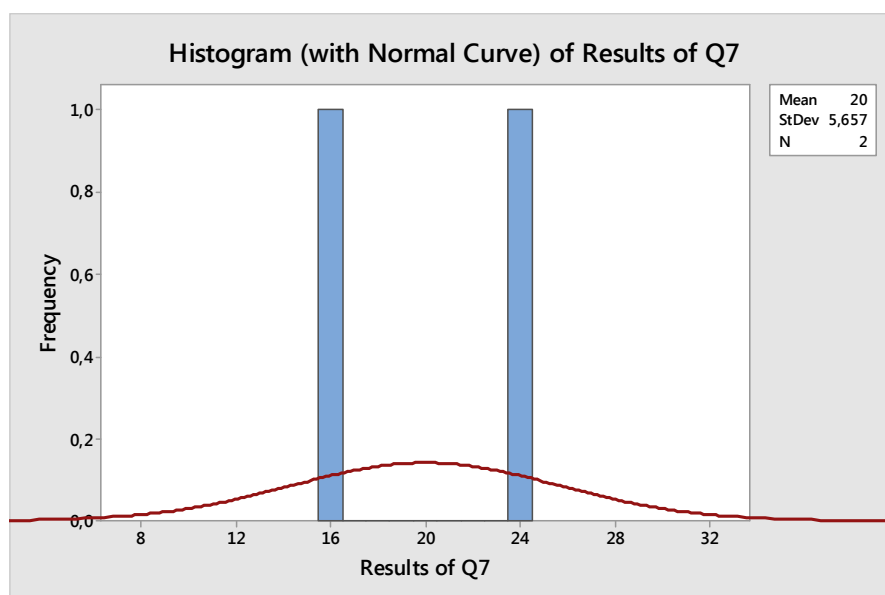


Figure 6: Results of Q7

What we can notice from the collected data of this question is that the mode corresponds the number of students, who think that the mother tongue can be an obstacle in learning a foreign language. Thus, we can say that the students, who are not aware about the influence of their mother tongue find that their mother tongue makes their learning difficult. In fact, from this answer we can say that these student still think in Arabic, since they are unaware about this influence, and this is lead them to see their mother tongue as an obstacle in learning foreign languages.

The second part of the questionnaire consists of five activities. These activities are given in the purpose of determining, where transfer can take place in their use of the English language.

The first activity contains eleven situations. Each situation provides a specific context, where the students are asked to read them and provide their answers in the ‘you section’. In fact, these situations seem very easy for them, because all of them are presented in an easy way. However, behind each situation there is a specific purpose. So, let us move to analyse these situations.

The first situation is as follows:

Situation 1: your friend is explaining his/her point of view.

You say:

The aim of this situation is to investigate how these non native students use the English language in context.

The answers are as follows

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|----------------------|-------------|-------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| Ok, I understand you | 20 | 13.33 | 20 | 13 | 13 | 6.51 |
| I say nothing | 7 | | | | | |
| I see! | 13 | | | | | |

Table 7: Calculating Students’ Use of Language in Context

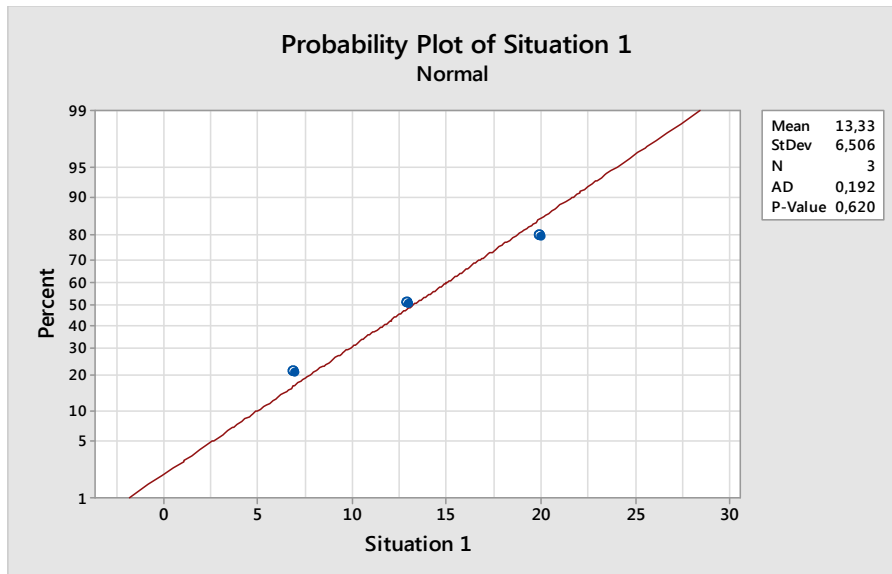


Figure 7: Results of Situation 1

From the result that are illustrated in the above table and figure, we can notice that majority of students face the issue of sociolinguistic transfer. That is to say, these students' production of English language is based on how their social perception. Most of them use 'ok, I understand you' instead of 'I see!', which is the exact answer used by English people.

The second situation is as follows:

Situation 2: you and your friend are going to watch a new movie. You invite your new classmate to join you.

You say:

The aim of this situation is to investigate how they use verbs in context. The results are as follows:

| Reponses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|---------------------------------|-------------|-------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| Would you like to go with us? | 6 | 13.33 | 22 | 12 | 16 | 8.08 |
| Can you come with us? | 22 | | | | | |
| Would you like to come with us? | 12 | | | | | |

Table 8: Calculating Students' Use of Verbs

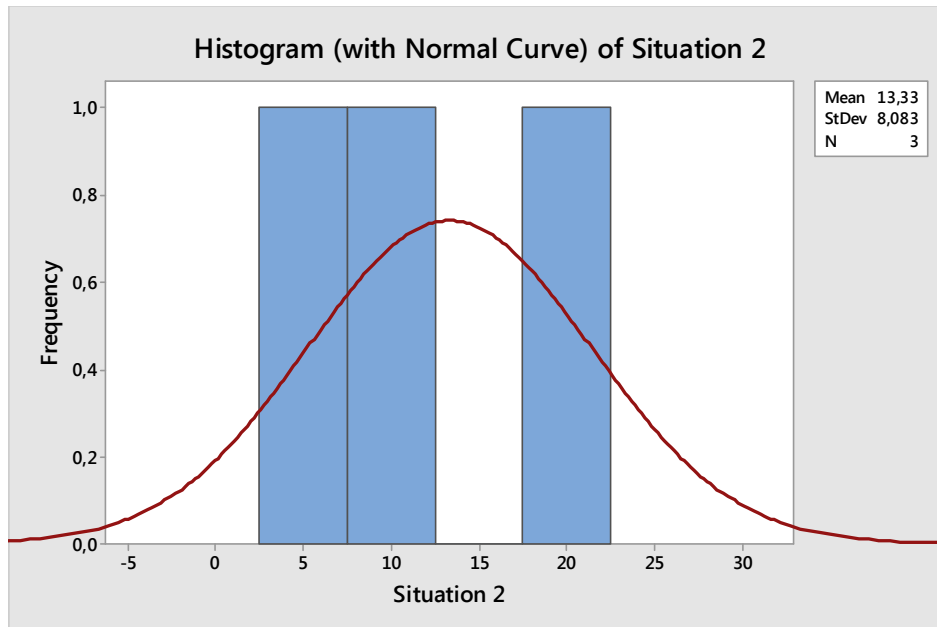


Figure 8: Results of Situation2

If we take a quick look to the above table and figure, we can notice from the mode that most of the students use the verb ‘to come’ instead of ‘to go’, because in Arabic we usually use the former verb in this kind of situations. So, this is one of the kinds of pragmalinguistic transfer.

Situation 4: you invited your friend to dinner. Now, you want to tell him/her to eat.

You say:

The aim of this situation is to investigate the sociolinguistics differences between the native and the non native user of English.

The answers are as follows:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| Eat please, it's made for you | 14 | 8 | 14 | 7 | 9 | 3.54 |
| Don't be shy it's your home | 8 | | | | | |
| Don't be shy, you can eat | 7 | | | | | |
| Start eating, I hope you'll like it | 5 | | | | | |
| Help yourself, please | 6 | | | | | |

Table 9: Calculating the Sociolinguistics Differences between Native and Non-native Students

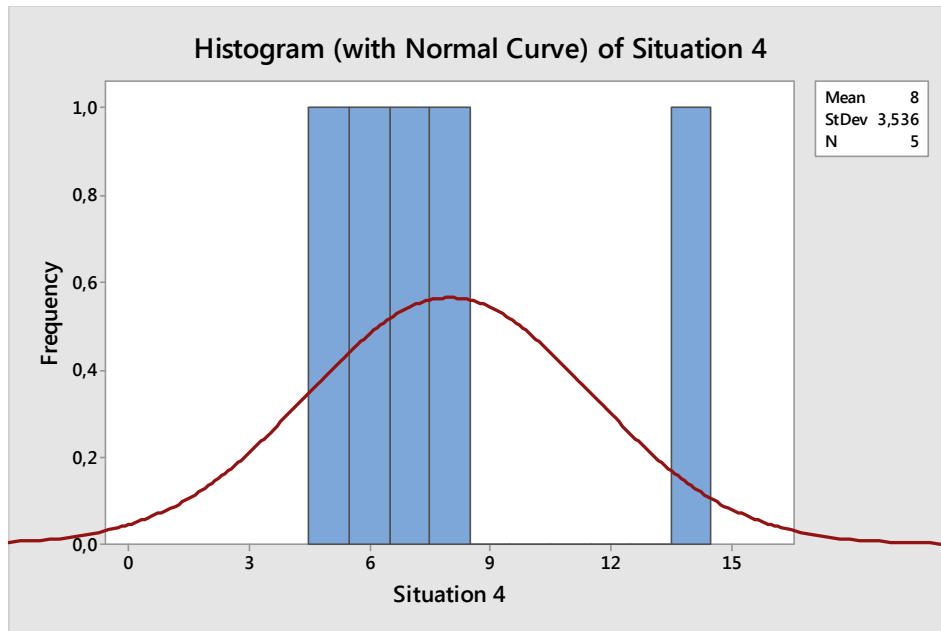


Figure 9: Results of Situation 4

The collected data of this situation shows that the majority of these students produce the English language depending on their sociocultural use. They think that they express purely English sentences, whereas they express them as in Arabic.

Situation 6: you want to ask somebody to go first.

You say:.....

The aim of this question also from the sociolinguistic point of view.

The results are as follows:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|------------------------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| You can go first | 11 | 10 | 13 | 11 | 8 | 3.46 |
| After you | 11 | | | | | |
| Go please | 13 | | | | | |
| You may go first if you want | 5 | | | | | |

Table 10: Calculating Students' Use of Language in Relation to Sociolinguistics

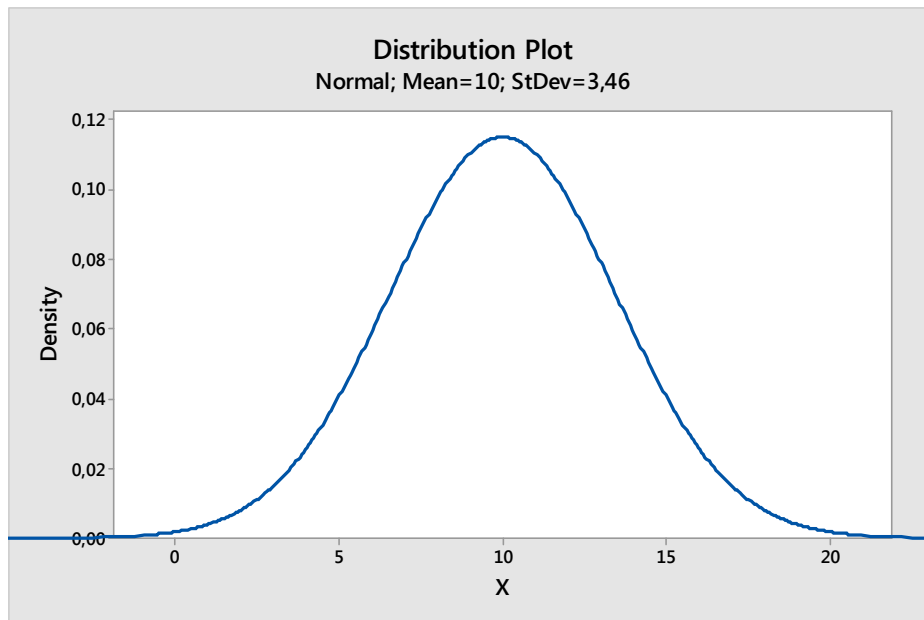


Figure10: Results of Situation 6

The same results are found in this situation. Most of students say ‘you can go first, ‘you may go first if you want’, ‘go please’. Whereas, few students use the exact expression ‘after you’. Thus, the same result is found as the previous situation. It means that the English students produce Arabic expressions with English words.

Situation 7: you are in a room with strange people, and you want to ask someone to close the window.

You say:.....

The aim of this situation is to investigate how to express request. The results are illustrated in the following table:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|---|-------------|-------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| It's very cold here, would you please close the window? | 11 | 13.33 | 18 | 11 | 7 | 4.04 |
| Close the window | 11 | | | | | |
| Sorry, close the window! | 18 | | | | | |

Table 11: Calculating Students' Use of Requests

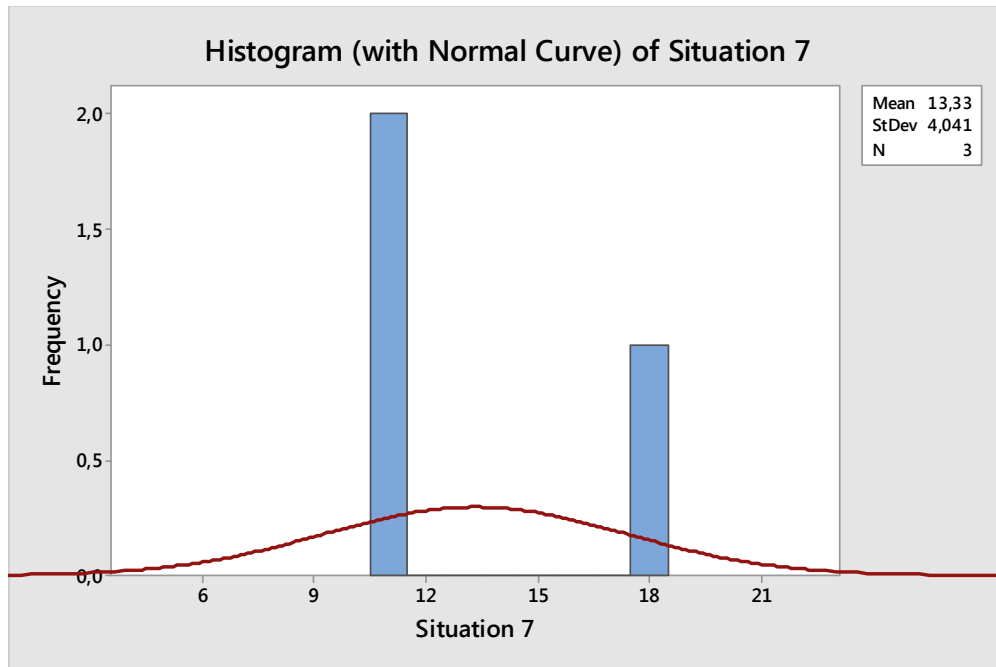


Figure 11: Results of Situation 7

The calculation of the different measures that are used in this questionnaire shows that the mode corresponds the number of the students, who have produced requests form as it is expressed in Arabic. Thus, we a notice that these students produce requests forms in English language the way as they do in Arabic.

Situation 8: your friend asks you about how Diana comes to the university. You know that she has a car.

You say:

The aim of this situation is to investigate how they use prepositions. The results are as follows:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|----------------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| She comes by car | 12 | 10 | 15 | 12 | 14 | 6.16 |
| She comes on car | 15 | | | | | |
| She comes with a car | 1 | | | | | |
| She comes in her car | 12 | | | | | |

Table 12: Calculating Students' Use of Preposition

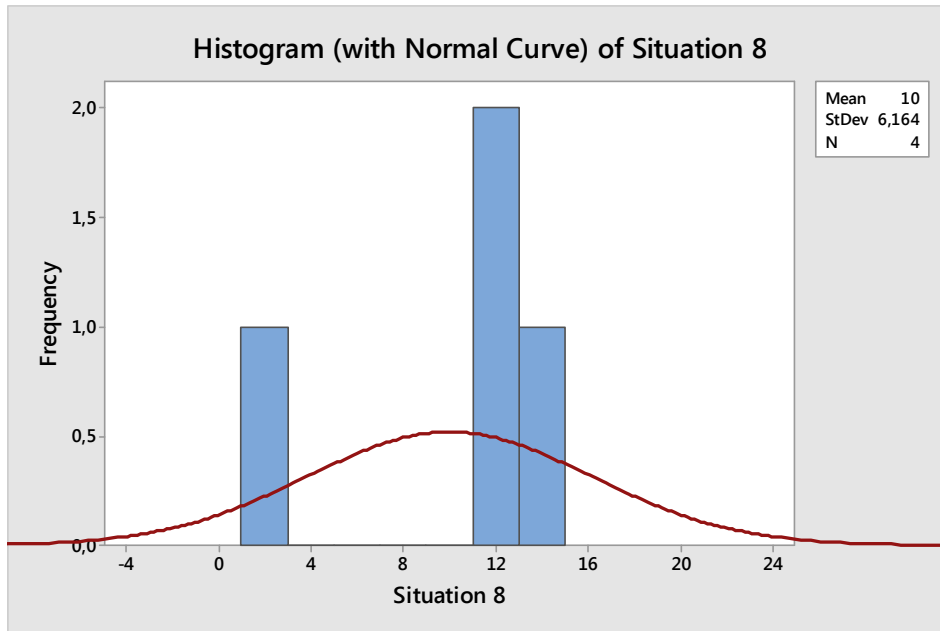


Figure 12: Results of Situation 8

The results show that students use different prepositions in the wrong place. They use the preposition ‘in’, ‘on’, and ‘with’ instead of the preposition ‘by’. Thus, these students face the issue of negative transfer, when it comes to the use of preposition.

Situation 9: your classmate knows many things in a particular subject.

You say:

Situation 11: all of your teachers give you homework to do, and your friend asks you to go to the cinema.

You say:

The aim of these two situations is to check how these students use the singular and the plural form. the results are mentioned in the following tables:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|--------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| information | 15 | 20 | 25 | 20 | 10 | 7.07 |
| informations | 25 | | | | | |

Table 13: Calculating Students Use of Uncountable Words

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|-----------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------|----|----|----|----|---|------|
| Homework | 18 | 20 | 22 | 20 | 4 | 2.83 |
| Homeworks | 22 | | | | | |

Table 14: Calculating Students' Use of Singular and Plural forms

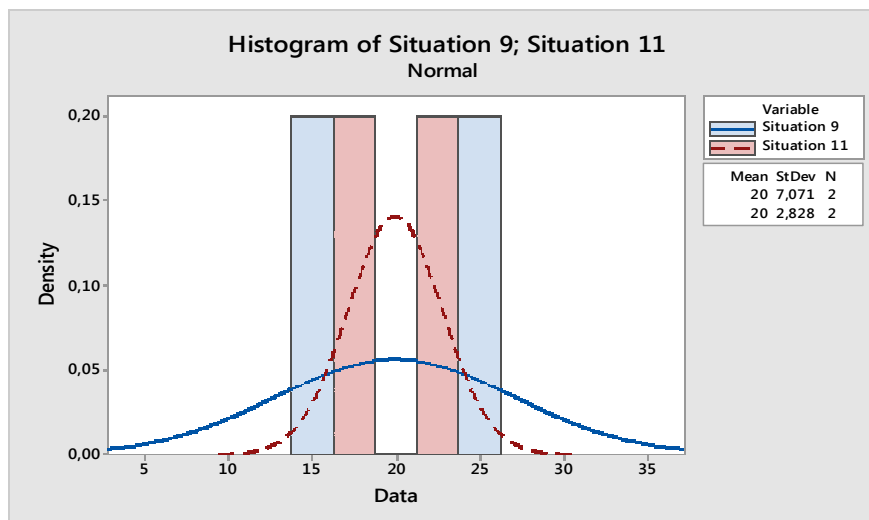


Figure 13: Results of Situation 9 and 11

The date of these two situations shows that many students add the 's' of plural for uncountable words. As the results show that many students use "informations" and 'homeworks', whereas these two words have no plural form.

The second activity in the second part of the questionnaire is about translation. Students are given two sentences, and they are asked to translate it to Arabic, which are:

His family told him to break a leg before he went up on stage.

My English teacher is the best one. She always went the extra miles for us.

The aim of this activity is to provide students with another way of thinking, which is different from our mother tongue. The differences are in the use of 'break a leg' and 'went the extra miles'.

The results of the translation of 'break a leg' are illustrated in the following table:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|-------------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| Prepare good | 10 | 10 | 13 | 10 | 6 | 2,45 |
| Good luck | 7 | | | | | |
| Literally meaning | 13 | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|----|--|--|--|--|--|
| No translation | 10 | | | | | |
|----------------|----|--|--|--|--|--|

Table 15: Calculating Students' Translation

The results of 'went the extra mile' are as follows:

| Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|---------------------------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| She helps us | 10 | 10 | 16 | 9 | 10 | 4,32 |
| She does a lot of efforts | 6 | | | | | |
| Literally meaning | 16 | | | | | |
| No translation | 8 | | | | | |

Table 16: Calculating Students' Translation

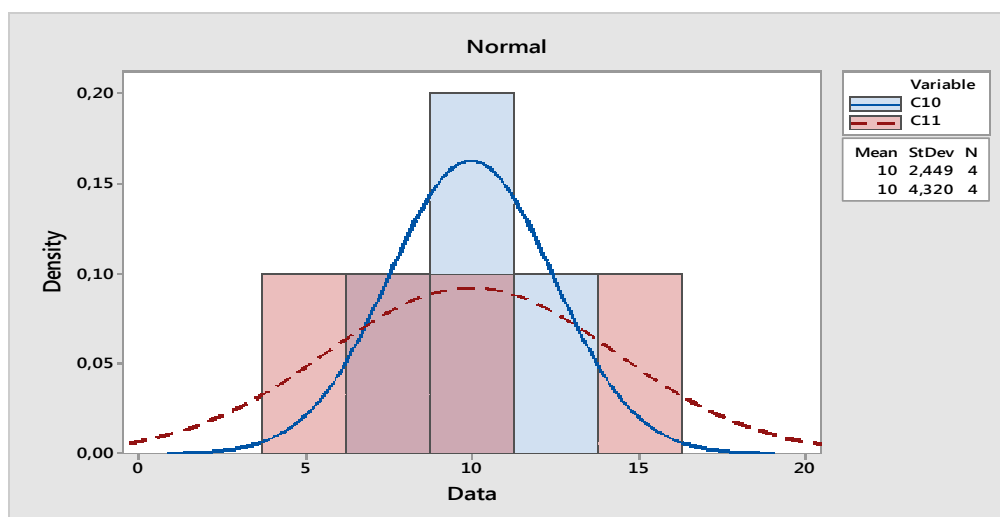


Figure 14: Results of Second Activity

From this activity, we can notice that few of students, who have given the right answer. Whereas, the majority of students do not know how to translate these sentences, and they have given literally translation as it is shown by the mode. Thus, we can confirm that the more two languages are different, the most interference take place.

In the next activity, students are asked to give the equivalents of some idioms. These idioms are:

1. Better late than never
2. Actions speak louder than words
3. Ball is in your court

The results of the students, who give the right equivalents are as follows:

| | | | | | | | |
|----------|--|----|-------|----|----|----|------|
| Alcohol | $\frac{1}{200000} \sqrt[2]{217}$ | 18 | 20 | 22 | 20 | 4 | 2,83 |
| | $\square \square \sqrt[2]{21}$ | 22 | | | | | |
| | $\square \sqrt[2]{217} \square \frac{1}{12}$ | | | | | | |
| | $\equiv \sqrt[2]{21}$ | | | | | | |
| Prussian | $4 \sqrt[12]{18} \square \square \sqrt[4]{5}$ | 15 | 13,33 | 19 | 15 | 13 | 6,66 |
| | $4 \sqrt[12]{18} \frac{1}{12} \equiv \square$ | 6 | | | | | |
| | $\sqrt[4]{5}$ | 19 | | | | | |
| | $4 \sqrt[12]{18} \square \frac{1}{10} \sqrt[4]{5}$ | 19 | | | | | |
| Russia | $\sqrt[18]{\square \square \sqrt[4]{5}}$ | 22 | 20 | 22 | 20 | 4 | 2,83 |
| | $\sqrt[18]{\square \frac{1}{10} \sqrt[4]{5}}$ | 18 | | | | | |

Table 18: Calculating Students' Pronunciation

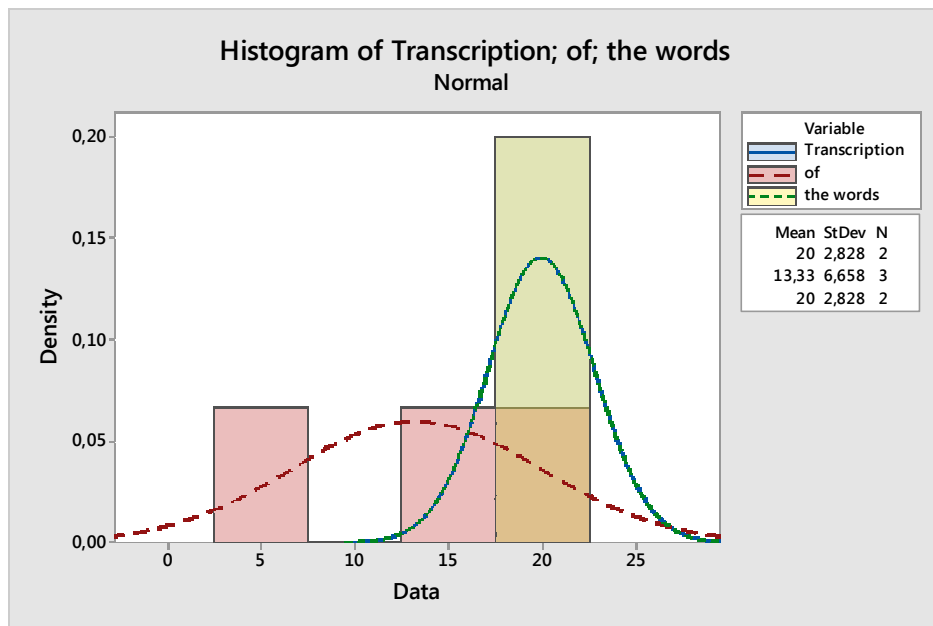


Figure 16: Results of the Third Activity

The mode of the results reflects the number of the students, who have given particular transcriptions. We can notice from the modes' results, that the majority of students pronounce the /s/ sound instead of the / $\square \rightarrow$ and the $\square \equiv$ sound instead of the \square sound. Thus, these students face the issue of interference in the pronunciation, because it is pronounced differently in Arabic.

The last activity is about intonations. The students are given one declarative sentence and two questions, and they are asked to mention whether the arrow is rise or a fall. the aim of this activity is to check if they take into consideration the English' intonations, or they utter them as they do in Arabic. The results are illustrated in the following table:

| Sentences | Responses | Respondents | Mean | Mode | Median | Range | Standard deviation |
|---|-----------|-------------|------|------|--------|-------|--------------------|
| The conference was very boring | Rise | 21 | 20 | 21 | 20 | 2 | 1,41 |
| | Fall | 19 | | | | | |
| Could you open the window, please? | Rise | 18 | 20 | 22 | 20 | 4 | 2,83 |
| | Fall | 22 | | | | | |
| Excuse me? | Rise | 16 | 20 | 24 | 20 | 8 | 5,66 |
| | fall | 24 | | | | | |

Table 19: Calculating Students' Intonation

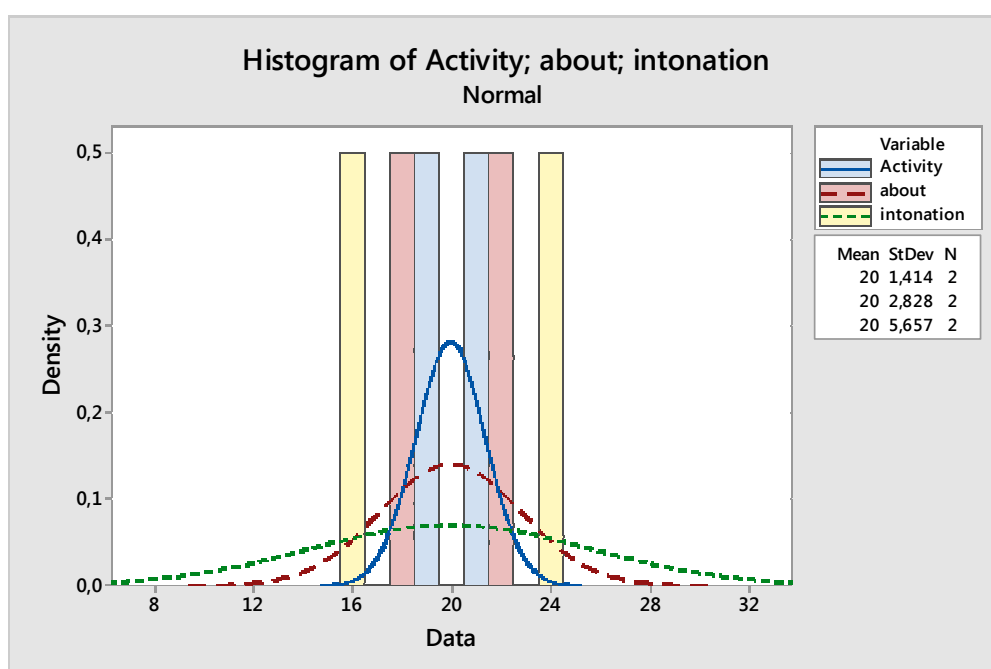


Figure 17: Results of the Last Activity

From the above results, we can notice that students do not differentiate between how utter some specific utterances, where there is an emphatic stress (usually to single out, compare, correct, etc.) in the English language and Arabic. Like the first sentences, where the majority of students have put rise arrows as it is illustrated by the mode. This happens because in Arabic usually people utter this kind of utterances with rising intonation. In addition, many students (the mode and the median are 20)use falling intonation, when it comes to yes/no questions. This is because they usually utter this kind of questions with falling intonation in Arabic.

3. Recommendations

Basing on analysis of the investigation throughout the questionnaire, we need to take into consideration the following:

- Raising learners' awareness about the influence of the mother tongue on learning foreign languages, by providing them with translation activities, where they can figure out this influence from the errors they make.
- Providing students with classes on communicative and idiomatic expressions, in order to avoid misinterpretations in communication.
- Students should read different books as much as they can, in order to be aware about the differences between the mother tongue and the foreign language.
- Raising learners' awareness about the cultural specific rules, that what may occur in one language may not occur in another one.
- Students should be aware that they display a different pragmatic system from the native users one.
- Teacher should raise students' awareness, that having a grammatical competence is insufficient. Thus, the need to have also a pragmatic competence for a successful communication.

To sum up, the questionnaire's analyses of this research work confirms the existence of the influence of the mother tongue on learning a foreign language. This influence takes place at different levels in a positive type and in a negative one. For that reasons, foreign language learners should be aware about the influence of their mother tongue in order to avoid producing errors in the target language.

Conclusion

As it is mentioned in the introduction of this research work, learning foreign languages is a complex task. In fact, the analysis of the students' questionnaire confirms that the first language can influence the foreign language learning at any level. In addition, the influence of the mother tongue can take place in both the comprehension and the production of a target language. Thus, learners can face misinterpretation and producing errors in a target language. Hence, foreign language learners should be aware about this influence, in order to avoid producing errors and have a successful communication. Moreover, mastering a foreign language requires both grammatical competence and pragmatic competence. Besides, dealing with interlanguage pragmatics allows the language users to be aware about the target language that they are dealing with.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

The objective of this questionnaire is to examine how Algerian English students learn this foreign language, and how they use it as foreign language learners to express themselves. By answering the following questions, you will help me to improve the content of my dissertation. Moreover, your answers will be used only for research purposes. So, thank you for being a part of this research work._

University of :

Level:

Gender: Male Female

Part I

Question1: Did you choose to study English because:

- a- It was your only choice.
- b- You need it just for a job.
- c- It is an international language.

Question 2: How would you evaluate your present level of English?

- a- Low
- b- Average
- c- Good

Question 3: What do you do when you face difficulties in understanding English?

- a- Ignore it.
- b- Check the difficult words in the dictionary.
- c- Try to understand the context by translating it into your mother tongue.

Question 4: Do you feel more comfortable when the teacher explains the lesson

- a- By using only, the English language.
- b- When the teacher uses both English and Arabic.

Question 5: when attempting to speak the English language, score yourself between 0 to 100%

- a- I can introduce myself.
- b- I can explain my points of view.
- c- I can interact in an English conversation.
- d- I go back to my mother tongue to understand and communicate.

Question 6: Do you think that the first language can influence the use of the target language?

- a- No
- b- Yes

Question 7: In your opinion, can the mother tongue be an obstacle in learning foreign languages?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Question 8: In your opinion, to know about the target language culture is important in learning foreign languages? And why?

- a- Yes
- b- No

Because.....

Part II

A- Read the situations below and provide your answer in the 'you say' section.

Situation 1: Your friend is explaining his / her point of view.

You say:

Situation 2: You and your friends are going to watch a new movie. You invite your new classmate to join you.

You say:

Situation 3: your classmate borrows your pen, and then returns it to you.

You say:

Situation 4: you invited your friend to dinner. Now, you want to tell him/ her to eat.

You say:

Situation 5: your friend was absent, and you want to inform him/her about last week's lessons.

You say:

Situation 6: you want to ask somebody to go first.

You say:

Situation 7: you are in a room with strange people, and you want to ask someone to close the window.

You say:.....

Situation 8: your friend asks you about how Diana comes to the university. You know that she has a car.

You say:.....

Situation 9: your classmate knows many things in a particular subject.

You say:

Situation 10: when you promise yourself

You say:

Situation 11: All of your teachers give you homework to do, and your friend asks you to go to the cinema.

You say:

B- Translate the following expression

- His family told him to break a leg right before he went up on stage.

.....
- My English teacher was the best one. She always went the extra miles for us.
.....

A- Give the equivalent idioms in Arabic

- Better late than never.

- Actions speak louder than words.

- Ball is in your court.

A- Transcribe the following words (write each word as you pronounce it).

Alcohol

Prussian

Russia

B- Put the right intonation arrows in the following sentences (fall or rise)

The conference was very boring.

Could you open the window, please?

Excuse me?