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**UNIVERSITY OF FERHAT ABBAS- SETIF
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**The Effect of French Language
on the Development of English Writing**

**A Case Study of Third Year Pupils at Slimane
Amirat Secondary School-Sétif**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Magister Degree in Applied linguistics and Language Teaching

Submitted by: **KEFFOUS Chahira**

Supervised by: **Pr. KESKES Said**

BOARD OF EXAMINERS

President: Dr. BELOUAHAM Riadh -MCA- Mentouri University- Constantine
Supervisor: Pr. KESKES Said -Professor- Ferhat Abbas University- Sétif
Examiner: Dr. ATAMNA El Khiair - MCA- Mentouri University- Constantine

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DEDICATION

In the Name of God, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful.

All the Praise is Due to God Alone, the Sustainer of all the World.

I dedicate this dissertation:

To my dear parents Zaidi and Dalila LAIB for being so patient and lovely with me,
for being my strength and support during my life and do not let me fall.

To my precious angel “Ouaêl”, who with his sweet smile always brightens my life.

I love you my baby!!

To my husband “DJELILI Aissa” who takes me under his wings when I was just starting out.

For the trust and unconditional love.

To my lovely sisters; Noria and her sweet daughter “Israa” and Hamida

To my kindest brothers; Khaled, Fateh, Aissa and Aymen.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CSR: Confusion of Sense relations

EA: Error Analysis

FL: Foreign Language

FM: Formal Misselection

IL: Interlanguage

L₁: First Language

L₂: Second Language

MT: Mother Tongue

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

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ABSTRACT

The current study aims at analyzing Algerian learners' written production for the purpose of understanding the likely sources of the most frequent lexical errors. Accordingly, it is designed to narrow down learners' errors and, hence, enhancing their vocabulary knowledge in particular and language proficiency in general, starting out from the assumption that French language may influence students to commit these errors i.e., cross-linguistic influence in lexis. The literature review of the study is planned in two chapters where a theoretical background of the research area is discussed. Whereas the practical part, is carried out to explore lexical errors committed in a composition task written by third year students at the secondary school of Slimane Amirat, Sétif. The study is conducted by adopting James' Lexical Error Taxonomy and following the procedures of error analysis (EA): collecting samples of learner language, identifying, describing, explaining and evaluating errors. The analysis of the data indicates that misformation and confusion of sense relation errors (CSR) are the most recurrent ones. The in-depth scrutiny of these types of errors, in turn, reveals that they are either intralingual or interlingual errors. Regarding the former, they are evidence of lack of English vocabulary knowledge. While the latter, they are concerned with interference of prior linguistic background. On the one hand, the overwhelming majority of interlingual misformation errors are originated in the first foreign language (FL₁); French. They can be full transfer; entire words or partial transfer resulted from deceptive cognates or inclusion of some French lexical properties. On the other hand, interlingual CSR errors manifest in lexical mismatching to express the intended meaning result from literal translation of Tamazight or Arabic meaning into English. These findings make judgment about cross-linguistic influence in learning English as the second foreign language (FL₂) in the Algerian context and provide some pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies.

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General Introduction

Background of the Study

Teaching and learning a foreign language (FL) become an important issue inside or outside the educational institutions. The necessity of learning an FL is due to mass exchanges in several domains all around the world and the spread of globalization which in turn has placed English, particularly, in a unique role in many school systems throughout the world (De Jong, 2008: 97). In addition, FLs have a major function in some countries because of historical reasons.

Regardless of the leading causes to learn an FL, it has received a considerable attention in the field of applied linguistics for the purpose of improving the quality of learning by providing effective teaching approaches, methods and learning strategies as well. One of the most essential parts to learn an FL is learning its vocabulary (Hill & Flynn, 2006). Vocabulary, in fact, is a worthy matter of concern since it is so vital to every other aspects of language learning. It is as important as the other skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. To highlight the importance of vocabulary learning, Thornbury (2002) acknowledges that learners can enhance their level of proficiency if they devote most of their time in learning vocabulary rather than learning grammar. According to him, “*without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed*” (p.13). As a matter of fact, mastering any language requires having an extensive amount of its vocabulary knowledge because it is the most crucial element towards proficiency.

Besides, compositions are also one of the most challenging FL tasks either to be implemented or assessed. In an FL leaning environment, the level of proficiency and the quality of language production are directly related to the frequency of lexical errors (Llach,

2007: 64). That is to say, lexical errors have been usually considered as quality predictors and evidence of lack of vocabulary knowledge, in particular, and low language proficiency, in general. Thus, when lexical errors are decreased, the level of proficiency will be developed and language production will be improved.

Yang and Xu (2001) point out that vocabulary was neglected for a long period of time, although the great significance of its learning. However, in the recent years, learning a foreign vocabulary has witnessed a growth of interest, so that numerous researches have been conducted in this area to raise both teachers' and learners' awareness towards the necessity of its learning and to facilitate learning, retaining and retrieving target vocabulary Yang (2010); Nation (1994, 2001); Llach (2005a, 2005b). Nevertheless, FL learners still have problems in improving their vocabulary knowledge. According to Llach (2007) some of these problems can be seen in the large amount of lexical errors learners make while producing the TL.

In this research, interest is given to identify whether French language is one of the possible sources of lexical errors made by the Algerian learners; restrictively the errors which are committed in writing. There are, in fact, a set of reasons that have pushed us to engage in this subject. First of all, foreign vocabulary learning is one of the main areas in an FL learning that has been usually preferred to identify. In addition, it has already been indicated that vocabulary is regarded as the key to reach a high level of proficiency (Thornbury, 2002; Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Then, many scholars such as Ellis (1994); Schmitt (2000); Gass & Selinker (2008: 449) have asserted that lexical errors are the most serious and the most common errors among foreign language learners rather than grammatical ones. Finally, we are inspired by various researches that have been done in this field either in early time or recently, for instance, the empirical investigations of (Klein ,1995; Sanz, 2000, as cited in

Sanz; Bowden & Strafford, 2005: 123-124), (Dewaele, 1998; Herwig, 2001, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008: 21-22) among others.

Statement of the Problem

As far as FL learners are concerned, they may have difficulties in building up their lexical knowledge since learning vocabulary is unlike learning grammar which is based on a set of rules with a coherent structure which can be followed or remembered, therefore, they can commit a lot of lexical errors when practicing speaking or writing activities in the TL. To perceive if the Algerian learners at Slimane Amirat secondary school also have difficulties in learning English vocabulary and make lexical errors, a pre-questionnaire has been administered to teachers of the secondary school where our work will be carried out. It shows that the quality of their learners' written production is not well enough and that lexical errors are frequently occurred in their writing.

Starting from the assumption that language transfer is not placed between the mother tongue (MT) and FL₁ only, but also between FL₁ and FL₂ (Ruzheikova, 2007), as well as, the belief that in FL₂ production, words are transferred from FL₁ rather than from the first language L₁ especially if FL₁ and FL₂ are close to each other and the first language (L₁) is more distant (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Ringbom, 2001) we suggest that the interference from the French language is a source that generates lexical errors made by the Algerian learners because in the Algerian context French is considered as an FL₁ and English as an FL₂ and they are related for they share a great amount of common vocabulary and grammatical features. Moreover, L₁ can be either Arabic or Tamazight and both of them are not closed to English. In other words, we propose that one type of lexical errors the Algerian learners do is interference lexical errors. The latter means any negative transfer of lexical properties from one language to another. In this research we are interested in lexical errors made by third year learners in writing because writing remains the most practical means through which

proficiency is assessed and a complex task to be completed. This research seeks to answer the following questions:

- ❖ Do Algerian learners of English include French lexical features in writing?
- ❖ Does the existing linguistic knowledge of French vocabulary affect the quality of the learners' written production?
- ❖ What kinds of French lexical properties are transferred into learners' written production?

Purpose of the Study

The present work is designed for the purpose of investigating whether the prior knowledge of French vocabulary in the Algerian context affects learners' written production of English. As an illustration, it is intended to analyze lexical errors committed in written materials produced by third year students at a secondary school. We want, interestingly, to envisage to what extent the learners have extended their English vocabulary knowledge since they have been instructed for seven years. In addition, this study is planned to raise teachers' and learners' awareness of the importance of vocabulary and to reconsider some materials and methods that may help teachers of foreign languages, namely English, to enhance teaching and learning target vocabulary. As well as, encouraging learners to adopt some vocabulary learning strategies and develop other personal ones that facilitate learning, storing and remembering vocabulary. Thus, the quality of Algerian learners' written production of English may be improved and their proficiency. Moreover, this study is also planned to stress the importance of explicit teaching of some kinds of vocabulary to diminish lexical errors resulted from negative transfer.

Research Methodology

It is important, as novice researchers, to understand some essential theoretical issues to carry out the study. Therefore, this part concerns knowing the appropriate type of research to

answer the research questions and understanding learners' lexical errors. Also, it notifies how the participants of the sample should be selected i.e., what are the criteria according to which the sample is to be drawn from the population of interest. As well as, this part provides the conditions and the order of procedures to be followed to undertake a scientific and a reliable research.

Research Type

There are certain conditions and procedures to be followed in any scientific research in order to accomplish a reliable work. These conditions are related to the research problem, the method used and the data collected. As far as the research problem is concerned, it should be feasible, testable and requires accessible data to carry out the investigation. Besides the research problem, the selection of the method to be used should depend on the nature of the subject and on the purposes which have to be achieved by the research. In addition, it is important that in any scientific research data have to be collected systematically and should be pertinent to the phenomenon under study. Accordingly, we have tried to follow the criteria of a scientific research as much as possible. Therefore, specific set of procedures are followed while doing this research.

The current research is a case study which is one type of research design and analysis. As indicated by Duff (2008: 21), it is regarded as the most widely used strategy for qualitative and quantitative researches in education. Case study is often used in educational researches for its evident profits; it provides illustrations of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the participants themselves who are part of the phenomenon. In addition, case study research can be concerned with an individual or group of individuals.

Case studies are characterized by specific methodological components and procedures in conducting them. The first step to undertake such a research, after detecting the existence

of the problem in the real context, is identifying the research questions to be answered. A good case in point, the research questions raised in the present work is whether Algerian learners' lexical deviations may result from negative transfer of French lexical properties and if these errors affect the quality of their compositions. The next step in this type of research is choosing the sample from the population. To gain information provided by the participants of the sample, the research needs the suitable nature of data and the appropriate method to analyze it. Finally, the findings of the analysis are evaluated and interpreted according to the researcher's perspective. In case study research, the results obtained after the analysis can not be generalized as they remain limited to the population. The purpose of the present case study is to find out the problematic sources behind learners' lexical errors in writing and whether they can be traced back to the influence of French lexical features. Therefore, this work has a descriptive purpose.

Sample Presentation

Besides the appropriateness of methodology, the quality of a research also stands by the suitability of sampling strategy. A sample is a group or part of the defining population that the research focuses on. Researchers have to work only on a group of a population because there are several factors that prevent them from gaining information from the whole population in the study. According to Cohen, Manian and Morrison (2004), these factors are expense, time and accessibility.

The results obtained from the data of the sample will be generalized on the population of interest. Therefore, researchers have to know the size of the sample and the strategy to be used in selecting the group that they will work with (Cohen, Manian & Morrison, 2004; Singh, 2006). As it has already been mentioned, the present work is about analyzing lexical errors in written production of learners. The concerned population consists of 120

intermediate learners at the secondary school of Sliman Amirat. The school is located North West of the wilaya of Sétif. The 120 learners are distributed on five streams: Experimental Science, Mathematics, Literature and Philosophy, Foreign Languages and Management.

To collect data from the whole population and analyze it carefully take a long time. So, it is necessary to work only with a representative randomized sample having the characteristics of all the population i.e; a mixture of males and females and good and less good learners. Lindell (2008) points that “*random selection means that every member of the population of interest should have an equal probability of being included*” (p. 208). To determine the size of the sample in a descriptive research, the researcher should select 10 to 20% of the accessible population (Singh, 2006: 94). Thus, the study is carried out with 20% (one fifth) of the population i.e., 24 participants. To get a representative sample, a strategy of systematic random sampling has to be followed. Cohen, Manian and Morrison (2004) suggest that to reach the required number of participants in a random systematic sample the frequency interval is needed to be counted by simple statistic: $f = \frac{N}{SN}$

f = the frequency interval

N = the number of the population

SN = the required number of the sample

Hence, the frequency interval of this case is ($f = \frac{120}{24} = 5$), that is, the sample to be worked with is selected from every fifth student in the lists of all the classes.

This sample consists of 07 males and 17 females. The subjects are approximately equal in age, ranging from 18-21 years old. Concerning the linguistic repertoire of the participants, their native language is Tamazight. During infancy they have acquired small amount of knowledge of colloquial Arabic. When they entered the primary school at the age of six, they have learned standard Arabic because all the subject matters are taught in Arabic. At the fourth

year in the primary school, they started to learn French language which is as an FL₁ for the participants of the sample. Whereas English language, it is regarded as their FL₂. They have learned English from their first year at the Basic School. In the Algerian educational system, English is a compulsory school subject at the Basic and Secondary School as well. According to this, the participants have received seven years of instruction in English.

In fact, third year learners are chosen deliberately as the population in this research because it is thought that seven years of learning English are quite enough for FL learners to have an acceptable knowledge of vocabulary with which they are able to write in English correctly, appropriately and with a low frequency of lexical errors. In addition, it is expected that even if they have learned French for ten years, they are now able to differentiate between French lexical properties and English ones.

Data Collection

In order to answer the research questions, data have to be gathered from the selected sample. It provides us with information about the lexical errors made by the participants of the sample. In fact, data needed for the accomplishment of any research can be collected with different strategies and analyzed with different methods. The strategies that are commonly used to gather data can be categorized, according to Cohen, Manian and Morrison (2004), into various types: questionnaires, interviews, tests, observations, personal constructs and accounts. The decision about the appropriate strategy to be used to generate data depends on the nature of the research topic. That is to say, the researcher has to choose the strategy which is capable of producing the information that will answer the research questions.

As regards the current work, it aims at identifying the problems that lead third year learners at the secondary school of Sliman Amirat to commit lexical errors in writing. As well as, to detect whether a negative transfer from French lexical features has been operated. For this reason, the adequate source of learners' lexical errors is written documents (appendix 2).

In other words, the nature of our research subject implies the collection of written materials produced by the participants. The written materials to be analyzed are taken as samples of learner language. A sample of learner language refers to the language used when learners are called on to use the TL either in speech or writing, i.e., “interlanguage” (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

In this work, it has been relied on samples of learner language as data for two reasons. The first one is that investigating learners’ performance can provide insights into how learners develop their competence. This means that the analysis of samples of learner language of the 24 subjects indicates to what extent third year learners have extended their knowledge of English vocabulary during seven years of formal instruction. The second reason is that production has usually been regarded as supplying the clearest evidence of what a learner has learned (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005).

The written samples are the composition task of the second term exam of the academic year of 2010/2011. The compositions are the adequate source of data as they are naturally occurring during exam session. The exam was held on Tuesday 1st March, 2011 by 22 informants only since two learners were absent in the day of the exam. The composition topics were not alike for the students belong to different streams. Therefore, some participants were requested to write a composition about “Astronomy” and others were asked to develop a composition about “The importance of education” or “Giving advice to their classmates”. The exam took two hours. Moreover, the subjects have not been informed that their written productions will undergo study and analysis in this research in order not to disturb them and make data naturally occurred in an exam situation.

The decision about the method to be used to analyze data collected should also be systematic. Since this work is mainly concerned with analyzing lexical errors occurring in the

written samples of intermediate learners, the appropriate method to analyze these samples is errors analysis (EA). It is the best method because the purpose of analyzing lexical errors committed by learners in writing is to explain the different sources of errors and to suggest pedagogical implementations to remedy them.

Data Analysis Procedures

To conduct an EA, the researcher has to go through five stages. These stages, according to Corder (1974, as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) are: “1) *Collection of a sample of learner language*, 2) *Identification of errors*, 3) *Description of errors*, 4) *Explanation of errors* and 5) *Error evaluation*” (p. 57) (see chapter1 pp 22-25). In this study, only 20 students have participated because two of them did not fulfill their composition task. Once the data is collected from the 20 subjects, it is obvious to follow certain procedures in order to analyze them. First of all, the compositions are numbered from 1 to 20 for the purpose of ordering each one with the lexical deviations detected from it. Then, after reading each composition, any lexical deviation occurred in it is identified. That is to say, any lexical feature used by the learner which is not compatible with the English one are detected. Moreover, the compositions have been read more than once to be sure that all the lexical deviations are scrutinized.

In addition, all the lexical deviations are reconstructed into the right version. After that, they have been classified into categories and subcategories (see James’ Taxonomy p. 26). Then, their classification allows us to count the occurrences of each type of deviation. In fact, according to Lennon (1991, as cited in James, 1998: 116), there are several questions which have been raised as regards quantifying errors. These questions are about whether the error analyst should score types or tokens. In other words, it has been questioned whether the repeated occurrences of the same error are counted as one error or as distinct errors.

As far as the analysis of Algerian secondary learners' compositions is concerned, all the detected deviations are counted on the basis of occurrences. That is to say, each occurrence is counted as a single deviation. In addition, if a deviation can be classified into more than one type, all the different classifications are taken into consideration. In the current study errors are counted on the basis of occurrences because we need to know what are the errors frequently made by each learner and by all the participants of the sample.

The next step in analyzing the data is that the occurrences of deviations are transformed into percentages. The percentage of each type of lexical deviations has been calculated by multiplying its number of occurrences by 100 divided on the total number of deviations. Moreover, the findings are described and discussed, as well as, the errors recurrently made by the learners are explained from the perspective of the likely sources that cause the misuse of the English lexical norms.

Finally, the results obtained from the analysis of the data are generalized on the whole population of interest. According to these findings, also, some recommendations are provided to diminish this type of deviations in learners' writings and, hence, help them to enlarge their English lexical knowledge.

Structure of the Study

The aim of this research is to explore lexical errors committed by FL learners of English in writing. Therefore, the dissertation is divided into four chapters. The first one addresses an overview into the field of FL learning by highlighting some important issues to be taken into account when carrying out the present study. At the beginning of this chapter, some key concepts and approaches related to researches in this field such as; language transfer, interlanguage (IL), contrastive analysis (CA) and error analysis (EA) are discussed.

Then, it ends with stating some factors either external or internal that may affect learners' production of a TL.

The second chapter is devoted to teaching and learning FL vocabulary. It presents basic notions pertinent to vocabulary. These notions are discussed in terms of dichotomies, for instance, content / function word, figurative/ literal and receptive/ productive vocabulary. This chapter also deals with explaining two main approaches of teaching an FL vocabulary, as well as, discussing how should the four learning strands of any learning session be organized regarding the objective of teaching vocabulary. After that, this chapter spots the light on the importance of using strategies to facilitate learning and retaining new lexical information. In addition, this chapter discusses the lexical error taxonomy adopted when examining the lexical deviations found in the compositions.

The fourth chapter includes the identification and classification of the lexical deviations. It also gives a detailed description of the results. While the last chapter, is designed to summarize and analyze key findings. Based on the interpretation of the results, some pedagogical implications and propositions for extra researches are provided.

Limitations of the Study

We are perfectly aware that there are other factors that can have an impact on the learners' written production. Such factors are learners' proficiency in one language rather than another, the quality and the quantity of the input, teaching approaches, personal cognitive abilities, lack of efforts, anxiety, textbooks content, gender, etc. Besides, the detected deviations originated in French language can just be mistakes resulted from lack of attention and are not serious errors. Furthermore, the study is concerned with a limited population; therefore, the results obtained are not ready to be generalized unless the same results are obtained through other similar researches conducted under the same circumstances in other Algerian schools.

Introduction

People all around the world become aware of the necessity of learning an FL not just as a pleasing pastime, but often as a means of obtaining an education or securing employment. With the growing interest of FL learning as a matter of concern in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), another dimension in focusing on language learning rather than language teaching has been taken forwards by applied linguists and FL teachers. They were interested in solving problems faced by FL learners (Grabe, 2002). However, this does not mean that language teaching was totally ignored. From this point, a series of empirical researches into learner language for instance Klein (1995; as cited in Sanz et al., 2005); Ellis (1997b) were carried out taking the language learner as a central stone in those investigations.

As novice FL researchers, we intend to investigate the problem of lexical errors committed by Algerian learners, learning English as an FL₂, in writing and provide remedies if possible. Therefore, this chapter overviews the nature of FL learning, what FL researchers should concentrate on to treat certain problems, what is the appropriate method to engage in our research. Also, some related concepts in FL researches such as interlanguage (IL), language transfer and two familiar approaches that have been usually used to investigate learners' errors are discussed as well as some factors that may affect learners' output.

1.1 Key Concepts

Like any field of enquiry, FL learning as a sub-area of SLA is characterized by the ever-growing set of technical terms used to label its knowledge. These terms in Ellis' (1997a) words constitute the goods that are carefully guarded by the practitioners of the field. Some concepts seen as essential elements in describing and analyzing the process of FL learning such as language transfer, IL, EA and contrastive analysis (CA) are debated in this section.

1.1.1 Language Transfer

The study of language transfer has been a long-standing matter in applied linguistics for its huge importance in language pedagogy and the widespread impact it has on learning an additional language. Thus, this issue should be taken into account by FL teachers and curriculum designers. Skehan (2008) defines language transfer as the influence of the MT or any other languages which have been learned. In other words, FL learners transfer some features from MT onto the other language because they face conflicts in language system between the old linguistic knowledge of the native language and the new one of target language. There are many situations in which language transfer manifests. As an illustration, language transfer can appear as positive transfer, negative transfer or cross-linguistic influence.

1.1.1.1 Positive transfer

Positive transfer, generally, implies a process of underlying learning, although, this term is used to refer to the product. It is also known as facilitation. The effects of positive transfer are seen as facilitating FL learning for the existence of similarities between the new and the experienced knowledge. For Wolfram (2007), positive transfer means “*the incorporation of language features into a non-native language based on the occurrence of similar features in the native language.*” (p. 80). Moreover, positive transfer is difficult to be observed for the transferred forms are also correct in the FL.

1.1.1.2 Negative Transfer

It is a widely agreed upon the idea that negative transfer or, in the most common terminology, interference is the faulty application of one's language structures in an FL (Trauth & Kazzazik, 2006). It is, though, the major cause of learning difficulties and errors which in turn inhibits or modifies the learning of TL. That is to say, the FL learners may use the first language (L_1) or other known languages in a non-native language context that leads to

a non-target-like form. Gass and Selinker (2001: 94) suggest two types of interference. The first type is a retroactive inhibition where learning acts return to previously learned material causing someone to forget. Whereas the second one, is a proactive inhibition where a set of responses that already have been learned are likely to appear in situations where a new set is entailed. Negative transfer or interference, in fact, can be resulted in any area of language; pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary.

1.1.1.3 Cross-linguistic Influence

According to Cook (2000, as cited in Skehan, 2008), cross-linguistic influence is another term of language transfer. However, cross-linguistic influence is more appropriate because it is neutral than the active sounding transfer. In addition, Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986, as cited in Cenoz; Hufeisen & Jessner, 2001: 1) have argued that L1 transfer is inadequate. Thus, they have suggested crosslinguistic influence to refer to transfer, interference avoidance, borrowing, and L₂-related aspects of language loss because transfer is closely associated with behaviourist learning theory. Others, for instance Trauth and Kazzik (2006) assign that the phenomenon of cross-linguistic influence appeared in situations when more than two different languages are used together. It is noticed then in the mutual exchanges of those languages used by an individual. That is to say, cross-linguistic influence is the influence of other languages learned for their linguistic closeness or because the individual is proficient in others. Furthermore, there are many factors that might affect this phenomenon. In her discussion about those factors, Cenoz (2001) states that age, context of use, proficiency and linguistic distance have an impact on cross-linguistic influence. She provided empirical evidences that cross-linguistic influence is highly supposed to occur from languages that are learned just before the target one rather than from those that have been learned many years before and that older learners show more linguistic influence than younger children.

1.1.2 Interlanguage

Interlanguage (IL) is another considerable concept to be highlighted for its major importance in the field of second language learning. The term “interlanguage” is initially introduced by the American linguist Larry Selinker during a period of study in the late sixties at the University of Edinburgh. It is used to refer to the separation of second language (L₂) learners system; a system created by learners that has structurally intermediate status between the native and TL. The developing learner language has been postulated for study as a system in its own right rather than studying errors in isolation (Stern, 2001). This system, further, contains elements of both languages and other new forms that have origins neither from the MT nor from the L₂/FL. In other words, the learners themselves impose structures on the available linguistic data and formulate an internalized system. According to McDonough (2002), the concept of “interlanguage” is treated as

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

That is to say, the process of IL is considered as another language different from the native and TL with its own rules of grammar, its own set of vocabulary and its own type of pronunciation. Furthermore, learners tend to go through series of ILs in systematic and predictable ways. That is, learners construct series of mental grammars or ILs as they gradually increase the complexity of their L₂ knowledge. They change their grammar from time to another by adding or deleting rules or even restructuring the whole system. This dynamic system is envisaged as a continuum on which the learner builds up knowledge of the TL in a systematic way.

In fact, there are other terms that explain the learners' underlying knowledge of the TL from different aspects. Littlewood (1998) views some of these terms, for instance, such given by Corder (1967, as cited in Littlewood, 1998:33) as “*Transitional Competence*” to describe a temporary competence that has developed by learners at a particular stage. Corder (1971, as cited in Littlewood, 1998:33) uses another concept; “*Idiosyncratic Dialect*” that is specific to any individual because the learner will operate at any time a self-contained language variety. Littlewood (1998) acknowledges another term used by Nemser (1971, as cited in Littlewood, 1998: 33); “*Approximative System*” to refer to the structural aspects of the learners' developing language which are nearly similar to the TL system.

IL has, interestingly, gained much of concern in the field of SLA for its main importance. It provides information about how language learners develop their learning. As well as analyzing IL gives an explanation of how learners are influenced by their L₁ which in turn is predicted through the analysis of the similarities and the dissimilarities of the native and TL or otherwise through CA.

1.1.3 Contrastive Analysis

The approach of Contrastive Analysis (CA) occupied a central place in the field of applied linguistics as the principle contribution that linguistics could make to language teaching during the heyday of audio-lingual method. It is originally formulated by Fries (1945, as cited in Ellis, 1994) and developed and popularized by Lado (1957, as cited in Ellis, 1994). This approach is represented as a set of procedures for comparing and contrasting the linguistic system of two languages; the phonological, the lexical, and the grammatical system or even comparing between two cultures. CA aims at highlighting the structural similarities and differences between two languages with the ultimate goal of improving classroom materials.

1.1.3.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)

In analyzing learners' IL, results determine that many errors committed by FL learners are the result of negative transfer from their native language. CA, then, hypothesizes that L₁ structures which are similar to those of the TL will facilitate learning. In addition, the degree of differences between the two languages will make difficulties in the FL learning and that learners are supposed to fall in errors in those areas. To predict learners' errors that are subsequently to the native language, a comparison of both languages should be hold. In other words, CA is adopted to predict learners' errors by sorting out the differences between the two languages, as well as, informing FL teachers to help learners to avoid such errors of interference.

With regard to the framework of CAH, two distinct views were developed; strong and weak view. In the strong view, it was maintained that one could make predictions about learning and hence about the success of language teaching materials based on a comparison between two languages. The weak version is that its starting point is an analysis of learners' recurring errors and then attempts to account for those errors. However, learners may not make some errors which are predicted to occur in contrast, they would commit others. The weak view of CAH paved the way to another method to analyze learner language. The new method is known as EA.

1.1.4 Error Analysis

As it has been mentioned above, EA is established, by S. P. Corder and his colleagues, as a reaction to the weak version of CAH. It shows that CA was unable to predict a great majority of errors, although its more valuable aspects have been incorporated into the study of language transfer. The key finding of EA has been highlighted that many learner errors are produced by learners making the faulty inferences about the rules of the new language. It gives a strong emphasis on language learners themselves; the forms they produce, and the

strategies they use to arrive at their IL (Gass & Selinker, 2008). EA, interestingly, is used as a tool for investigating learner language by identifying, describing and explaining learners' errors. It is widely used in the seventies for example, (Richards, 1974; Corder 1981, as cited in Stern, 2001) as a technique of studying the patterns of difficulty in learning an L₂ or an FL. In other words, it is the study of errors that learners make in speech and writing. Before discussing the different procedures of error analysis it is important to give a brief definition of what an error is and what is the obvious distinction between errors and mistakes.

1.1.4.1 Error's Definitions

As indicated by Ellis (1994), an error is a deviation in learner language which results from lack of knowledge of the correct rules. He adds, further, that an error can be overt or covert. By the overt error, Ellis means that the deviation is clearly seen in the surface form of the learner performance. However in the covert error, the deviation is obvious unless the intended meaning is taken into account. An error is defined by Piske and Young-Scholten (2009) as *"a non-target form which represents a systematic stage of development"* (p. 261). In addition, Lennon, (1991, as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) has defined an error as:

"a linguistic form or combination of forms which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts."(p. 182)

In contrast to early views in the field of SLA, errors became a legitimate object of enquiry in 1967 inspired by Corder's positive stance towards errors (as cited in Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009: 4). Sanz (2005) points out that, errors are now seen as a natural and necessary stage in the learners' IL because they provided a window onto this IL. In addition, learners' errors that have been observed are taken as a source of information about how learners are improving their learning and what are the entailed skills and rules that should receive much importance than others. In other words, learners' errors are not all bad, since

they can show the teacher that the learner is progressing normally toward mastery of the whole language system. The definition of errors is regarded as having a bit of ambiguity because the notion of error is often confused with mistake. Thus, it is important to give briefly a distinction between mistakes and errors.

1.1.4.2 Errors vs. Mistakes

All human beings may produce or make incorrect things that are distinct from the ordinary forms. Any spoken or written text also may display items which break the rules of standard language. This rule-breaking is divided into two types by many scholars such as Corder (1967, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008: 102), Ellis (1994), Coulthard (2001), Littlewood (1998) and others: performance mistakes and competence errors. On the one hand, performance mistakes encompass all the rules-breaking that have been consciously done by any speaker or writer under some circumstances. That is to say, speakers/writers know the correct form and they know that they have broken the rule as well. In addition, mistakes are only related to learners' performances which are akin to slips of the tongue, pen or tape resulted from loss of rules, lack of attention, carelessness, tiredness. The learner who makes a mistake is able to recognize the mistake and correct it. According to Ellis (1994), mistakes may happen when learners are not able to use their knowledge of TL rules; consequently they apply other rules which are easier for them to access. Competence errors, on the other hand, are those non-trivial deviations that resulted from a lack of knowledge of the right rules of a FL/L₂. Learners in this case follow non-standard rules constructed by themselves because they have not yet mastered the standard rules of TL. Besides, learner errors are systematic. That is to say, learners repeatedly commit the same deviations and the learner can not realize that those deviations are errors. Errors, in turn, are categorized according to error analysts into two distinct groups.

1.1.4.3 Types of Errors

Unlike CA, EA provides a broader range of possible explanations for errors. Since it seeks to contribute many sources of errors not only to those related to L_1 transfer. Within the framework of EA, errors are considered to occur in two different types: interlingual and intralingual errors.

1.1.4.3.1 Interlingual Errors

Interlingual errors are one type of errors that error analysts have tried to reveal. This kind of errors is typically categorized to contain those errors that can be attributed to native language. In other words, they refer to transferring rules from MT. In addition, they are concerned only with negative influences of L_1 , that's why these errors are also called interference errors.

1.1.4.3.2 Intralingual Errors

As stated by other error analysts for instance Dulay and Burt (1974, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008), the vast majority of errors learners used to fall in are intralingual. Littlewood (1998) claims that errors of this type show that learners are processing the FL/ L_2 in its own terms i.e., independent of the native language. He adds, further, that those errors can be produced by the native speakers of TL. Moreover, intralingual errors can be committed by learners of different first languages (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Transfer from L_1 , in this type, is only of minor importance.

1.1.4.4 Procedures of Error Analysis

In conducting the technique of EA, the investigators should follow a specific set of procedures. First of all, the researcher should collect a sample of learner language with which the analysis of errors will be carried out. Then, when the sample has been gathered the next step is identifying the errors that are produced by learners in it. After that, the errors identified

have to be described in terms of their classification. Finally, the researcher has to explain the causes of the committed errors and quantify their frequency occurrence.

1.1.4.4.1 Collecting a Sample of Learner Language

Collecting a sample of learner language is regarded as a necessary first step in engaging in a research of EA. The latter entails a base data with which error analysts will rely on in acquiring their intended outcomes. The data that are concerned in this case is typically written, although, oral data can be used (Gass & Selinker, 2008). In addition, the required data are provided by collecting samples of learner language because they provide insights into how FL learners use TL in production. Moreover, Ellis (1997a) asserts that collecting and analyzing samples of learner language help researchers to achieve the two essential aims in L_2 learning. The important goals that Ellis means are represented in describing the linguistic systems that are constructed by learners at different stages of development, as well as, explaining the processes and factors influencing L_2 /FL learning.

Ellis and Burkheizen (2005) point out that investigators should be aware that the nature of the sample that is gathered may impact the nature of learner errors and their distribution. This means that errors in samples of learner language can be affected by many factors such as the learner proficiency level, the language being used written or oral, whether it is used in conversation, narrative, essay etc, and if the discourse produced is spontaneously or under certain conditions.

1.1.4.4.2 Identification of Errors

Identification of errors is the next point in EA after the gathering of the necessary data from learners. Identifying and recognizing errors that have been done in the samples include a comparison between what the learner has produced and the standard norm of TL. In other words, an error can be identified if the rules used by learners are not compatible with those used by native speakers of TL or they are not appropriate in a specific context.

1.1.4.4.3 Description of Errors

The following point in EA after the identification of errors is describing them. That is to say, error analysts have to describe the recognized errors in terms of how learners produce TL differently from its native speakers. Throughout the history of EA, two different taxonomies are designed for the description of errors; a linguistic taxonomy and a surface structure taxonomy.

A linguistic taxonomy is perhaps the simplest type of descriptive taxonomy. It is based on the linguistic categories of TL. As an illustration, these categories include passive sentences, the auxiliary system, relative clauses, prepositional phrases, coordinate and subordinate construction. Such taxonomy may concern more general categories: morphology, vocabulary and syntax.

As far as the surface structure taxonomy is concerned, four types have been suggested by Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, as cited in Ellis, 1994) in which learners modify TL forms; for instance, the omission of a morphological or syntactical features such as omitting “ed” of a regular verb in the past or deleting an auxiliary from an utterance. The second type is addition i.e., the presence of other forms that do not appear in the utterance produced by a native speaker. In describing errors, Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, as cited in Ellis, 1994) argue that learners may use the wrong form of the morpheme or structure; misinformation. The latter can be noticed as regularization or archi-forms when the learner uses “me” as a subject and object pronoun as well. It can also be seen as an alternating forms such as the use of (do not + verb) and (no + verb). The other type concerning the description of errors is misordering. That is to say, learners place a morpheme or a set of morphemes incorrectly in an utterance. Besides the four types mentioned above, James (1998) adds, further, a fifth one which he calls blends. This kind of errors reflects the doubt of learners in which form is required to be used.

Furthermore, quantifying errors is another task of error analysts involved in the description of errors. This process requires the recording of error frequency. In other words, calculating how many each type of errors occurs in the sample.

1.1.4.4.4 Explanation of Errors

Explanation of errors is another step of carrying out an EA. It is regarded as the most important stage. Explaining errors accounting for why such errors have been made likewise determining their sources.

Different scholars such as Taylor (1986, as cited in Ellis, 1994), Rampton (1987, as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005), point out that errors committed by learners are derived from many sources. Sources of errors may be psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, epistemic or as they may be placed in the discourse structure. Psycholinguistic sources are related to nature of TL knowledge system and the difficulties learners faced when processing it. However, sociolinguistic sources of errors concern the ability of learners to adapt the FL/L₂ in relation with the social context. By epistemic source, is meant learners' absence of world knowledge. Whereas the discourse source, it includes problems of organizing information coherently.

Although these sources are distinguished, EA concentrate only on the psycholinguistic one i.e., EA has already tried to provide psychological explanation of errors. As indicated by Ellis (1994), errors originated from psycholinguistic sources are of two kinds: competence errors and performance mistakes. In fact, the distinction between errors and mistakes is already explained before. He recognizes two types of performance mistakes: processing problems and communication strategies in which learners try to compensate their lack of knowledge of the target forms. Rather than performance mistakes, error analysts are concerned with competence errors. The latter includes interlingual (interference), interlingual or unique errors that are neither interlingual nor intralingual errors. In other divisions of sources of errors, intralingual is used interchangeably with developmental errors.

1.1.4.4.5 Evaluation of Errors

Since the study of learner errors has a practical significance to language pedagogy, error analysts and teacher as well need to evaluate errors with a view to decide which ones should receive instruction. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), error evaluation involves determining the gravity of different errors because some errors can be considered more serious than others for they are more likely to violate the legibility of learners' production. Ellis (1997b:20) points out that errors are evaluated as being either "*global errors*" or "*local errors*". The former means the most serious errors; however, the latter concerns the least serious ones. Thus, teachers can take decision about which errors that have to be addressed.

In fact, there are different criteria on which the errors are to be judged. The most commonly used criterion is "gravity" i.e., "seriousness", but others can also be used: "intelligibility" or "irritability" (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005: 67). Error evaluation studies have dried up entirely for it is already regarded as a supplementary stage in EA and because of the inconclusive results about the definite scale for predicting error gravity. As the present study is about lexical EA, it is necessary to discuss some different taxonomies which are relevant to this area and to choose the appropriate one to analyze the data collected.

1.1.4.5 Lexical Error Taxonomies

As far as lexical errors are concerned, there are many distinct descriptive error taxonomies which have been designed in an FL context. They are developed in order to describe learners' IL and, hence, finding out what are the most common areas learners have difficulties when producing the TL either in writing or speaking. In describing learners' language, researchers can adopt one of the descriptive taxonomies: the linguistic taxonomy or

the surface structure taxonomy as they can use the combination of the two different types also.

Lexical error taxonomies are not alike according to the analyst's perspective. In fact, there are various kinds of taxonomies which have been used to analyze written compositions produced by learners learning English language as an FL. Yang and Xu (2001: 54), for instance, have categorized lexical errors committed by Chinese learners when writing English from the semantic perspective. They have classified lexical errors into three groups; 1) selection of inappropriate items according to the intended meaning, 2) errors of transitivity/intransitivity and 3) errors of collocation. Another model of classifying lexical errors was used by Ferris (2005, as cited in Hale; Pekkaïm and Carlson, 2008: 101). She has categorized lexical errors into five types; 1) word choice, 2) word form, 3) informal usage, 4) idiom error and 5) pronoun errors. In addition, Llach, Fontecha and Espinosa (2006: 3) have explored lexical errors from two distinct features. They have considered lexical errors as being either spelling errors or word choice errors.

While James (1998), has classified lexical errors into two major categories. His description of learners' lexical errors is seen from two different perspectives; formal and semantic features. As a matter of fact, James' taxonomy of FL learners' lexical errors is compiled from various sources of previous studies. His distinction between formal and semantic errors of lexis, for instance, is based on classic word knowledge framework which was suggested by Richards (1976, as cited in James, 1998: 144). Richards claims that there are seven types of knowledge necessary to know a word; 1) its morphology which includes its spelling and pronunciation, 2) its syntactic behavior, 3) its functional and situational restrictions, 4) its semantic values or denotations, 5) its secondary meaning and connotations, 5) what other words it is associated with and 7) its frequency use.

The two main classes of lexical errors developed by James (1998) are divided into further subgroups. Formal errors of lexis, on the one hand, include three types of errors; formal misselection (FM), misformations and distortions. On the other hand, semantic errors of lexis, according to James, are subcategorized into two categories: confusion of sense relations (CSR) and collocational errors. Besides, each subgroup incorporates certain types of errors. FM errors, for instance, include errors of the malapropism types; confusion between pairs of words that look and sound similar. That is, words which are different only in suffix, prefix, vowel or consonant. As they can be made since learners know the target word, but do not know its derivations, though, they may use a verb rather than a noun for they are similar in form such as (speak and speech). Laufer (1992, as cited in James, 1998:145) prefers to call these errors synforms. Whereas misformation errors are resulted in the production of non-existent words in the FL, they are originated either in learners' MT or created from the TL itself. According to James, FM and misformation errors can be interlingual or intralingual errors; however, distortions are only intralingual errors which are concerned with misapplication of one of these operations; omission, overinclusion, misordering or blending i.e., using more than one at the same time (see p. 24). Regarding CSR errors, they occur for the substitution of the appropriate words to express the intended meaning such as choosing a false near synonym or a general term where a more specific one is needed. They include, also, mismatching of words that fail to function semantically in the context as expected. Collocational errors are made when learners misuse words that normally should keep company with other particular ones. Table (3.1) shows a discrepancy in a number of features of the different lexical error taxonomies discussed above.

Source	Classification
James (1998)	1) Formal errors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) FM errors b) Misformation errors c) Distortions 2) Semantic errors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) CSR errors b) Collocational errors
Yang & Xu (2001)	1) Selection of inappropriate items according to the intended meaning. 2) Errors of transitivity/ intransitivity. 3) Errors of collocation
Ferris (2005)	1) Word choice 2) Word form 3) Informal usage 4) Idiom error 5) Pronoun error
Llach, Fontecha and Espinosa (2006)	1) Spelling errors 2) Word choice errors

Table 1: Lexical Error Taxonomies

As regards the analysis of data collected in this study, a specific taxonomy need to be adopted in order to classify lexical errors made by Algerian secondary school learners when they performed a written task in English. The error taxonomy which we have decided to use is James' Taxonomy (1998).

One of the main distinctive features of the taxonomies stated in Table 1.1 is that James taxonomy is viewed from formal and semantic standpoint unlike Yang and Xu (2001) taxonomy which is approached to semantic direction only. Although the other taxonomies are concerned with word forms, they are not clearly differentiated. In contrast, James has obviously distinguished the different subgroups of formal errors. His taxonomy is seen to be

more appropriate to scrutinize Algerian students' lexical errors and to answer the research concerning the interference of the French language for it gives a detailed explanation about where the influence of the already known languages may lie. Furthermore, recent studies are based on this classification such as Hemchua and Schmitt (2006), Cao and Nishina (2007), Yang (2010) among others.

1.2 FL Learning Factors

Developing TL competence varies among learners. Learners do not equally achieve success in a non-native proficiency. They also differ in how fast they learn an FL. Success or failure in learning TL is, in fact, the result of some factors either external or internal that have a strong influence on learners' outcome.

1.2.1 External Factors

Among the external factors that affect learners' attainment of high level of proficiency in learning a TL are social effects and the effect of different kinds of input that learners receive.

1.2.1.1 Social Effects

Social factors can have a major effect on an FL learning. They have a set of variables that have positive or negative attitudes from the surrounding society. Many sociolinguistic researches such as those of Labov (1972); Taron (1988); Preston (1989); Young (1991) and others (as cited in Sanz, 2005: 9) are interested in the relation between FL learning and the social context where it takes place.

One of the main social factors that has received considerable attention is age. It is a controversial matter since it is questioned whether there is a critical period for FL learning (Ellis, 1994). In their discussion about the effect of age, Sanz et al. (2005) postulate that achieving ultimate level of proficiency in learning a non-native language entails that learning should begin before puberty. It has been claimed that gender is another social factor because

women can understand, for instance, difficult forms more than man. In addition, researches have shown that women are better than men in attaining high level of FL competence. Social factors concerned also the nature of group dynamics in the language classroom and the learners' attitudes towards the language being learned. This means that learners learn TL easily if they are motivated to learn it. Moreover, these factors may affect TL proficiency either in isolation or in interaction with other external or internal factors.

1.2.1.2 Input and Interaction

Other common external factors that influence non-native language learning are input and interaction. It is apparent that different kinds of input and interaction are necessary in facilitating learning (Ellis, 1994). Long (1996, as cited in Sanz et al., 2005: 12) hypothesizes that interaction with native speakers of the language being learned or even with learners' peers provide a comprehensible input that learners require and permit feedbacks which, in turn, help learners to correct their errors, thus, promote their TL competence subsequently. Furthermore, the quantity and quality of input may have an impact on learners' outcome (Sanz, 2005).

1.2.2 Internal Factors

Researches about internal factors in FL learning are concerned with how learners process their input to produce a well-governed language. Individual differences are seen as having great effect on FL learning. These differences are demonstrated at the level of cognitive account of non-primary language learning such as language aptitude, working memory, attention and prior knowledge.

The relation between language aptitude and FL learning success is very important. Language leaning aptitude is the natural ability to learn a non-native language (Gass & Selinker, 2008). This ability is often referred to as intelligence and it is not equal for learners that is why some learners are able to learn FL successfully while others do not. Working

memory is another internal factor related to individual differences which is considered as an integral part of language learning aptitude. Experimental studies have shown evidence of the relationship between working memory capacity and language learning in the sense that to what extent the learners are able to complete correctly tasks and the ability to memorize and recall words in the language being learned (Sanz et al., 2005). As regards internal factors, personality of learners can also affect the level of proficiency in FL learning. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991; as cited in Ellis, 1994: 472) suggest some personality factors that may interact with other variables, for example, self-esteem, extroversion, anxiety, risk-taking, inhibition, sensitivity to rejection and empathy

The degree of influence of these and other factors on the ultimate achievement of FL proficiency may vary from one factor to another or from a learner to another as well. The study of learner factors is still an important matter of concern since it provides a wide range of information about how learners operate on their input. Accordingly, the results of those theoretical and empirical researches will be employed in pedagogical implementations. In other words, the results obtained are beneficial in designing FL curricula and developing new materials.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, this chapter provides beneficial ideas to be taken into account to implement this study. For instance, it shows that learners' output may be affected by cross-linguistic influence as well as by other factors such as input and interaction. In addition, it has been highlighted that the analysis of learners' IL affords insights into the process of learning. Regarding the current study, analysis of learners' IL leads to understand their lexical errors committed in writing. To do so, there are two possible approaches which can be conducted: EA and CA. Despite the fact that CA stands on the point that the comparison between languages is the essential path towards predicting learners' errors, it can not foresee all type of

errors learners may do. Therefore, EA is the appropriate method to be undertaken rather than CA to identify the likely sources of learners' lexical errors since it explores samples of learner language rather than the comparison of languages. Besides, it has been realized, in this chapter, that James' Taxonomy is more appropriate to conduct a lexical EA for it is more detailed and comprehensive than the others. The following chapter is planned to discuss some theoretical issues concerning teaching and learning target vocabulary.

Introduction

Vocabulary is one of language areas besides to grammar and phonology. It is an essential element of language proficiency and provides much of the basis of how well learners listen, speak, read and write (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Throughout the history of language pedagogy, teaching and learning FL vocabulary have been viewed and treated in very different ways. For instance, in the grammar translation method, vocabulary is the core component in the language curriculum. However, the teaching of vocabulary is declined in favor of teaching grammar and pronunciation in the audio-lingual method.

Learning vocabulary is as much important as the learning of grammar for FL learners. McCarthy (1991, as cited in Nyssönen, 2001: 167) suggests that learners are able to behave naturally in an FL if they have a fairly rich vocabulary and the synonyms and antonyms of the words in action. He adds, further, that the *“lexical items and lexical phrases would be easily retrievable, for sustaining talk on different topics, for setting up cohesive links, for signaling effect, for maintaining fluency, etc.”* (p.168). That is to say, knowing a large number of target vocabulary is not enough as learners should know how to use them correctly and appropriately in context. As a result, learners are likely to avoid pragmatic failure because knowing the right and appropriate vocabulary and set phrases is a large part of being able to use the TL. This chapter intends to provide a comprehensive overview of how vocabulary, as a complex subject, enhances FL learning and how it can be taught more effectively. Thus, be able to help learners to enlarge their lexical knowledge.

2.1 Basic Notions Pertinent to the Area of Vocabulary

Tankersley (2003) has defined vocabulary as *“the meaning and pronunciation of words that we use in communication. It is simply the number of words that we understand or can actively use to listen, speak, read, or write.”*(p. 52). As a matter of fact, the word

knowledge of language is associated with special notions which may make vocabulary different even in the same vocabulary. For example, what is useful to explain one idea is useless to explain another. Therefore, it is crucial here to explore some of these concepts before treating the subject of vocabulary within the teaching and learning of an FL programs. As an illustration, it is important to distinguish between receptive/productive vocabulary, content/function words and literal/figurative vocabulary.

2.1.1 Receptive/Productive Vocabulary

Receptive vocabulary refers to the words that are understood when they are heard in speech or reading. Whereas productive or expressive vocabulary, refers to the words that they are used by an individual either in speaking or writing (McShane, 2005). In their discussion about language knowledge, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) claim that the dichotomy of receptive versus productive is very important in the area of vocabulary. It is suggested that any language users, either native or non-native speakers, have much receptive than productive vocabulary. Language learners may understand unintentionally many new words in their contexts, yet they are unable to use them in their speech or writing. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), productive control entails receptive control, but the opposite is not necessarily true. Coady and Haynes (1993, as cited in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2000: 76) claim that in teaching vocabulary it is better to give much concentration on receptive vocabulary because it has been asserted that English learners should be acknowledged with at least 10.000 receptive vocabulary; otherwise, it would be impossible to comprehend, in early stages, the most written English texts. In contrast, only 3000 English words are sufficient for informal conversation.

Nation (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 76) suggests some ways of teaching as much as possible large amounts of receptive vocabulary quickly and more

efficiently; for example, by engaging learners to associate words with meanings out of context by using word lists, vocabulary cards, and so on. Therefore, it has been recognized that the first step of producing a TL is by providing learners with an extensive knowledge of receptive vocabulary (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

2.1.2 Content Words/Function Words

It is useful to differentiate between content and function words in the studies that are based on analyzing vocabulary. Content words represent most of vocabulary items which belong to open word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives and some adverbs. In contrast, function words are defined as the vocabulary items that are classified into closed words vocabulary, prepositions, determiners, and many adverbs. Some scholars, for instance Witalisz (2007), suggest that function words should be taught within the area of grammar whereas content words within the area of vocabulary. This suggestion of division, however, is considered by Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) as being spurious because there should be a close integration of grammar and lexis. In addition, languages are different so what is regarded as grammar in one language may be a part of vocabulary in another language. In addition, it has been asserted that function words are easier to recognize and guess than content words. Thus, beginner learners are able to learn grammatical than lexical knowledge (Lengyel; Navracics & Szilágyi, 2007).

2.1.3 Literal/Figurative Vocabulary

Vocabulary can be literal or figurative. By literal vocabulary, it is meant that the meaning of any sentence or expression is understood by getting the meaning of its individual words. Whereas figurative vocabulary, it is used idiomatically or metaphorically. Thereupon, the literal meaning of the combination of its words may be meaningless or it is different from

the intended one. As an illustration, a sentence like “He got the axe” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2000, 2001) can be literally understood as one male person had the tool for cutting wood. However, figuratively, it means that a male person was dismissed from his job.

Figurative expressions can not be understood out of their context and their culture. Thus, FL learners should learn the target vocabulary and its idioms. The study of target idioms and figurative language have received much consideration in the field of SLA by many scholars such as (Cooper, 1999; Cornel, 1999; Deignan et al, 1997; Lazer, 1996; Lennon, 1998, as cited in Boers; Demecheleer & Eyckmans, 2004: 54) because FL learners need to raise their awareness of the literal origins or source domains of the figurative expression. Consequently, learners become more able to understand and use the language being learned. Moreover, Tankersley (2003) suggests that in teaching figurative vocabulary learners should be asked to make comparison between literal and figurative meanings because learners will enjoy using these colorful words and phrases. In this case, learners are enlarging their vocabulary.

2.2 Target Vocabulary Teaching/ Learning Approaches

Language vocabulary is an important and difficult task for both teachers and learners. Therefore, in order to raise the opportunity to learn as much as possible new vocabulary in a TL, there are three main approaches that have been developed to vocabulary teaching and learning; incidental learning, explicit instruction and independent strategy development (Hunt & Beglar, 2002; Hulstijn, 2001 and Schmitt, 2000). The approaches are not alike in the manner with which vocabulary should be learned and taught.

2.2.1 Incidental Learning

Incidental learning is one of the most important approaches that have been recommended for a vocabulary program. This approach, in fact, is based on teaching

vocabulary implicitly or indirectly to learners not on explicit formal instruction. Advocators of this approach like Schmitt (2000), Hunt and Beglar (2002), Cunningham (2005), Tacač (2008) argue that a substantial amount of vocabulary development occurs through incidental encounters with language.

As regards this approach, Hunt and Beglar (2002) consider that vocabulary is learned while learners are being engaged in doing other things, for instance, reading, listening, speaking or writing activities. In other words, learners can expand their vocabulary sets while reading or listening to the TL. Thus, learners may know the meaning of new words they encounter in different situations and different contexts as well. In addition, it has been indicated by Tacač (2008) that incidental learning is the primary source of learning vocabulary. This natural process is based on large amounts of language input. That is to say, learners are helped by a sufficient quantity of comprehensible linguistic input where they are exposed to the TL. It is through these contexts that learners are able to experiment, confirm, expand or narrow down the vocabulary sets. The role of contexts in L₂/FL vocabulary learning, according to Tacač (2008), is not of a high importance with beginners since they try to learn lexical items deliberately by looking for synonym, definition or translation from L₁. Learners at early stages can not learn vocabulary indirectly because they have not enough linguistic knowledge to start making use of unfamiliar words they encountered in context. That is why, Schmitt (2000) necessitates the explicit teaching of vocabulary for beginners. In contrast, the significance of contexts in an L₂/FL is increased as the learners' linguistic knowledge is grown.

As far as this approach is concerned, the materials that should be used in teaching TL vocabulary are characterized by their authenticity because, as has already been mentioned, during the learning of an additional language, the majority of vocabulary size is enlarged incidentally through exposure to the language. This process, as it has been claimed by

Cunningham (2005), happens via two essential means; exposure to oral language and to written language. The exposure to the TL has good effects on learners' outcome since the authentic contexts that the learners are provided with pave the way to improve the quality of their vocabulary knowledge i.e., to expand what is known about some unknown words when those words are met in different contexts. In addition, the materials that need to be used in the incidental approach help the FL learners to learn the appropriate use, the right pronunciation and the correct writing of the foreign vocabulary by its native speakers. Learners are also helped by extensive exposure to the language to internalize the meaning of new vocabulary in their memory; thus, incorporating them in their lexicon (Schmitt, 2000). According to Hunt and Beglar (2002), learning vocabulary, for natives, from context is a gradual process. They have suggested that native speakers have 10% of chance of learning unknown words from single exposure. Similarly, Hunt and Beglar (2002) estimate also that FL learners can understand the meaning of a word from context through numerous exposures.

Although there are written and oral materials, reading texts as contexts are regarded as the major kind of materials used for incidental vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2000; Bogaards & Laufer, 2004). Moreover, Landauer and Dumais (1997, as cited in Hulstijn, 2001:271) have developed a formal theory; the Latent Semantic Analysis which assumes that incidental vocabulary is simulated from reading. Their argument is that vocabulary growth is largely determined by reading. Besides this theory, supporters of the incidental approach postulate that extensive reading is a key means for vocabulary improvement. In other words, FL learners' vocabulary can be increased if they have practiced, in great amount, reading in the TL. Furthermore, Krashen (2004, as cited in Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008: 17) argues that massive extensive reading can greatly promote FL learning including vocabulary learning. That is why, Pilgreen and Krashen (1993, as cited in Hunt & Beglar, 2002: 259) have

suggested that language teachers should devote some class time to reading to encourage learners to read outside classroom.

As any type of teaching and learning TL approaches, the incidental approach is characterized by some specific features and kinds of tests. As it has been previously defined, the incidental approach of vocabulary learning is concerned with increasing learners' knowledge of target vocabulary as a by-product of doing other tasks such as reading. Although learners are indirectly learning new words, their teachers should test whether learners have retained those words. However, what is special in this approach is that learners are not informed in advance that a test will be administered afterwards about their knowledge. In other words, learners will be tested, unexpectedly, to know to what extent they improved their vocabularies (Hulstijn, 2001). Among the various kinds of activities that the incidental approach is familiar with are the multiple choice, matching or gap-filling exercises (Read, 2004). These types of activities and others are designed to assess how learners develop their vocabulary knowledge without a direct and clear instruction of teaching target vocabulary.

Despite the fact that most vocabulary items can be learned incidentally, this approach is not widely supported. Disadvocators of the incidental approach, although they acknowledge the usefulness of incidental vocabulary learning, claim that teachers should pay their learners' attention to the unfamiliar words. That is to say, while reading or listening to the TL, learners are asked to translate some difficult words into their L₁, look for their meaning in the dictionary or guess their meaning from the context. These oppositions about how FL learners should learn vocabulary lead to another approach different in tendency from the incidental one.

2.2.2 Explicit Instruction

In order to facilitate teaching and improve learning of an FL vocabulary, an explicit

approach has been developed besides the incidental one. The explicit or, as some scholars like Hulstijn (2001), Hiebert and Kamil (2005), Bogaards and Laufer (2004) prefer to label, the intentional approach is widely supported for target vocabulary learning. Concerning the intentional learning of vocabulary early research demonstrates that it is superior to incidental learning (Hulstijn (2001).

Unlike the incidental approach, the explicit one, as it has been indicated by Hulstijn (2001), is typically based on “*any activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory*” (p. 271). That is to say, the explicit approach is different from the incidental approach in the nature of teaching and learning an FL vocabulary. In this approach, teaching vocabulary is clearly structured in the curriculum represented in lessons and activities where learners rely on their vocabulary knowledge to fulfill some tasks. So language teachers have to identify special vocabularies as objectives of any course and learners are aware that they should be able to use these words correctly. According to Hunt and Beglar (2002), information about unfamiliar words, in the explicit approach, is available to learners because it is directly taught and explained by teachers. This is the core point of this approach; words are intended to be taught, clearly and directly explained, on the one hand. On the other hand, McShane (2005) claims that learners should be provided with opportunities for application and should be guided as they are practicing the new words that they have already learned.

Teaching vocabulary through explicit and clear instruction is strongly advocated for many reasons. Scott (2005), for instance, argues that giving explicit clues to unknown words in the surrounding contexts in which learners may understand will enhance learners' knowledge more effectively because learners may have difficulties in inferring meanings of new words. In addition, as it has been mentioned previously (p.36), beginners can not benefit from incidental learning since they have not yet developed their linguistic knowledge so explicit learning is necessary for them (Schmitt, 2000).

As far as the explicit approach is concerned, instructors and teachers should decide about the tasks and words that are necessary to be included in the curriculum. Among the various kinds of words, according to Tankerseley (2003), that teachers should explicitly teach while reading, for example, are words that have multiple meanings for better comprehension of the material they are dealing with. Scientific or special items of certain subject matters have to be taught directly since they are not likely to be used very often either in speech or writing, they are also called low frequency words. According to Boers and Lindstromberg (2008), reaching a high level of proficiency entails a necessary and direct teaching of low frequency words. In addition, words that are different in pronunciation and meaning but they are spelled similarly such as “bow” in a looped knot and “bow” in the front of a boat should be directly taught. Frequency words are also structured to be taught explicitly. High frequency words are all words that are used regularly and likely to be encountered very often such as man, woman, the, etc. Moreover, Schmitt (2000) has suggested that teachers should teach word families rather than individual words to increase vocabulary learning. In other words, when presenting a new word, it is better to present its derivations too. Consequently, learners are able to understand unfamiliar words and retain its derivations.

In teaching new target vocabularies, teachers rely on different techniques that help learners to get the right meaning and become able to remember those words and use them appropriately in other contexts. Since enlarging vocabulary in an L₂/FL is a complex task, teachers aim at using the most common ways in which the meaning of the new words is conveyed. That is to say, in order to explain unfamiliar words that have already been introduced or encountered in the material being presented, teachers use any means to improve comprehension. Some of those techniques are verbal i.e., teachers use synonyms, opposites or even translation into learners' L₁. In contrast, Hunt and Beglar (2002) acknowledge that translation has, indeed, a necessary and useful role, but it can become an obstacle towards

learners' progress, since it can be used as an essential technique and exclude the others. Besides this, learning translations for target words may not guarantee that learners will be successfully able to use them in other contexts. To ensure that learners understand and help them to retain the new words in their mental lexicon, teachers use some visual techniques such as flashcards, photographs, blackboard drawings or present objects if they are concerned with concrete items because Marzano, Pickering and Pollack (2001, as cited in Sprenger, 2005: 66) assume that *"associating an image with a word is the best way to learn it"* (p. 66). Furthermore, effective vocabulary learning requires an extensive amount of continual repetition and providing learners with authentic contexts. In addition, teachers can also use mimes and gestures as other supplement ways to explain target vocabulary.

As regards the intentional approach, it is not like the incidental one concerning tests. As an illustration, in the intentional approach learners are aware that they will be tested about the lexical knowledge that they have learned. Thus, teachers inform their learners, while teaching certain items, that they will be tested about those new words. Therefore, learners can prepare themselves for expected tests afterwards.

Despite the fact that the explicit approach has many advantages to an L₂/FL vocabulary development, it has been criticized for its drawbacks. Schmitt (2000) points out that the intentional approach alone can not cover all learners' lexical needs. For the information which is available in this approach represents only some elements of vocabulary knowledge. Lexical knowledge, in fact, can not be completely mastered through direct learning since it is impossible to teach all the creative uses of a word. However, improving mental lexicon can be successful only through numerous exposures. For that reason, instructors and teachers should take into consideration the integration of both the incidental and explicit approach in vocabulary programs. Therefore, learners would have the opportunity

to be very skilled in the language being learned. Thus, French interference errors may be reduced from learners' writing.

2.3 Vocabulary and the Four Learning Strands

The two different kinds of approaches regarding teaching and learning target vocabulary, either the incidental or the explicit one discussed previously, have to be integrated in any language course. This integration can be achieved only if they are associated with the four learning strands that are suggested by Nation (2001) to cover all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Nation recognizes that a language course should contain four major strands to be well-balanced. These strands, according to him, are meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, fluency development and language-focused instruction. In order to maximize vocabulary learning, Nation has engaged in a great important research to see how vocabulary should be related with the learning strands, assuming that *“it deserves to be planned for, deliberately controlled and monitored”* (Nation, 2002: 267).

2.3.1 Vocabulary and Meaning-focused Input

In his first strand of language learning, Nation (2001) postulates that meaning-focused input involves getting meaning through listening and reading; from the receptive language. In these receptive skills, learners' focus is directed towards understanding the information conveyed from what they are reading or listening to. In addition, Nation (2001, 2009) has argued that input should not be out of the learners' proficiency level. From the vocabulary perspective, this means that input which is provided from oral or written materials should contain only a small proportion of unfamiliar words. In fact, Nation has based this strand on Krashen's view regarding the comprehensible input. Otherwise, if the input contains plenty of

unknown words, learners struggle to understand it and this will not help them to develop their lexical information in a natural way.

As it has been discussed previously (p. 29), Schmitt (2000), Bogaards and Laufer (2004) and many other researchers acknowledge that reading in an FL is a major source of target vocabulary learning. However, it is indicated that there are some factors which decrease the amount of new items to be learned from reading. For instance, according to Nation (2002), learning vocabulary from written materials is fragile i.e., not in a high quantity and quality if learners have not the opportunity to encounter what they have already learned of new words. Consequently, learners are not able to memorize the vocabulary items that they know. For this reason, input which is truly meaning-focused should be increased in amount and varied in nature to enhance vocabulary growth.

In addition, enriching learners with lexical information from reading and listening or from meaning-focused input depends on their development of the reading skill. The size of learned vocabulary is seen as one of the barriers to reading in an FL. So, the input will be meaning-focused unless learners are supplied, as Hulstijn (1992; as cited in Schmitt, 2000) has suggested, with glossing some unknown words. In contrast, once learners develop the quality of their reading skill, the latter becomes an important means of vocabulary growth.

Another reason which has been considered by Nation (2002) as a cause of fragility in learning vocabulary through meaning-focused input is the type of reading materials that teachers are dealing with. For him the type of reading materials strongly influences vocabulary learning. As an illustration, Nation claims that if teachers most often select their materials from particular areas, their learners will be familiar with those areas. As a result, their learners will have quite enough background knowledge in those areas, when they are reading in a familiar area they may easily decode the meaning of the unknown words.

However, they may not internalize those words because they are not interesting since they understand the general meaning of the context. In contrast, learners will have great chance to retain the new words that they have encountered when they are reading in unfamiliar areas. In this situation, learners are interested in the language used to grasp what they are reading. That's why, teachers should focus on the language as a system not just as messages.

Due to the importance of listening and reading in vocabulary learning, teachers, as stated by Nation (2002: 268), should give considerable attention to the materials that are chosen in any language course to get more benefits from them in teaching vocabulary. Besides this, teachers can reduce the fragility in learning vocabulary through meaning-focused input by presenting vocabulary through various genres of topics that must be of learners' interests, giving language-focused activities to support it and by supplying learners with large quantities of input.

2.3.2 Vocabulary and Meaning-focused Output

Meaning-focused output is another main strand for a balanced language course that is suggested by Nation (2001). Meaning-focused output is concerned with learners' use of the language being learned through speaking and writing when their interests are focused on others for whom they speak or write (Nation, 2009). In fact, the basic point that Nation (2001) has built up regarding the strand of meaning-focused output is the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis. The latter is developed by Swain (1985, as cited in Krashen, 2009: 82) claiming that production is crucial for learning. Swain believes that output is helpful since it provides the opportunity to make learners' knowledge more automatic via practice and opens the chance for error correction (Krashen, 2009).

Nation (2002) has joined vocabulary with learners' output because meaning-focused speaking and writing can expand learners' vocabulary like meaning-focused listening and

reading. In fact, there are numerous researches which are conducted to understand the strong relation between learning vocabulary and the productive skills (Newton, 1995; Joe, 1995; Joe, Nation and Newton, 1996, as cited in Nation, 2002: 269). Learning vocabulary through speaking and writing activities can be improved because while learners concentrate on the information they are trying to convey, they are looking for the appropriate vocabulary until they arrive at the intended meaning. In other words, when the conversational partner does not understand the speakers' language which forces them to adjust their language to make it more comprehensible also, learners may use the vocabulary that they have met through meaning-focused input, consequently, they become part of learners' active vocabulary which will be easily consolidated and used in other situations.

Due to the importance of speaking and writing in increasing learners' lexical knowledge, teachers and course designers should integrate spoken and written tasks where learners are able to negotiate words' meaning with their teachers. As well as, the use of handout sheets should be clearly designed and monitored for spoken tasks (Nation, 2002). In addition, to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge, Schmitt (2000) has pointed out that in teaching speaking and writing, teachers should pay attention to lexical errors not to concentrate only on grammatical ones. He adds, further, that "*lexical errors tend to impede comprehension more than grammatical errors*" (p. 155). Moreover, recycling and elaborating are the most important ways for the receptive vocabulary to be produced either in speech or writing. In the present work lexical errors are taken into consideration especially those related to transfer from the French language.

As far as language-focused input and output, Nation (2001) has stressed that they would be effective for lexical learning if learners have sufficient vocabulary to make these strands truly meaning-focused. In addition, he proclaims that if teachers use activities to

meaning-focused full of unfamiliar words these strands become language-focused rather than meaning-focused.

2.3.3 Vocabulary and Language-focused Instruction

The strand of language-focused instruction or as in Ellis' words (1990, as cited in Nation, 2001) form-focused instruction is different from the two previous strands. In meaning-focused input and output learners' attention is directed towards producing or comprehending a particular message. In other words, as the name indicates, in meaning-focused listening and reading and meaning-focused speaking and writing the main objective is decoding a received language and producing a meaningful language. However in language-focused instruction, learners' attention is diverted towards gaining knowledge about language items as a system of TL. In addition, language-focused learning includes deliberate leaning of language features such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.

Lexically speaking, language-focused learning should involve direct teaching and learning of target vocabulary features both in the context of meaning-focused input and meaning-focused output and in decontextualized learning and teaching. That is to say, FL teacher should devote time to highlight unfamiliar words or some vocabulary features like suffixes and prefixes which are encountered in contexts that are used to support meaning-focused input or output or presenting them out of context.

According to Nation (2001), this strand is very important for a balanced vocabulary course, because to attain high level of proficiency learners need to have strong background knowledge of vocabulary. Moreover, Laufer (2005, as cited in Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008:6) has emphasized that it is hard to learn lexis with the absence of clear form-focused learning. She has postulated that there is empirical evidence that form-focused instruction can foster the learning of TL collocations. Furthermore, Anderson and Nagy (1992, as cited in

Cunningham, 2005: 48) have pointed out that teaching difficult words through direct and systematic instruction is more efficient than waiting for learners to encounter those words in contexts. In addition, language-focused instruction is helpful for a vocabulary growth since learners will be able to do independent word analysis and derive the meaning of unknown words if they have received direct instruction of word relationships and families.

Because of the great effect of vocabulary-focused learning on learners' reception and production of the language being learned, teachers should give enough time during the course to explain or present the lexical features that are necessary for learners to comprehend particular lessons and subject matter. In doing so, Nation (2009) has suggested to ask learners to consult dictionaries in intensive reading and provide them with language-focused feedback on their writing when they practise spelling and when they study grammar and discourse features.

As regards the strand of language-focused vocabulary, there are special conditions which are outlined by Nation (2009) to get more benefits from it. First of all, teachers should raise their learners' awareness of the language features they are presenting. That is to say, learners should deliberately focus on vocabulary features because it is assumed that deliberate learning of vocabulary appears to be more effective than learning the word in context. Then, those features that are taught should be processed in deep and thoughtful ways. Besides this, they should be instructed simply and at learners' stage of development. After that, to benefit from language-focused instruction there should be spaced repetition of attention to those features. Finally, effective vocabulary learning can be achieved when language features that have been instructed should occur often in the other strands of meaning-focused input and meaning-focused output and fluency development at any language course to help learners to retain them better. Consequently, teachers can encourage their learners' vocabulary growth.

2.3.4 Vocabulary and Developing Fluency

The fourth strand that Nation (2001) has considered as an essential part for a well-balanced academic language course is fluency development. Fluency is very important to be considered in language learning because having large amount of lexical knowledge is not sufficient, as learners need also to have access and use this knowledge fluently (Nation, 1994). This strand entails learners' ability to use what they have learned as native speakers of TL. In other words, fluency development requires the best use of what is already known, for example, the ability to read quickly while still keeping good comprehension (Nation, 2009).

Fluency development is unlike the previous strands with regards to vocabulary learning. In the strands of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output and language-focused instruction learners learn new vocabulary items either from guessing their meanings from the context or explicit instruction given by their teacher. In contrast, in fluency development activities learners do not receive lexical knowledge since, as it has been mentioned by Kruidenier (2002, as cited in McShane, 2005: 52), learners are only dealing with repeated reading of passages of texts, words from texts and other text units. For this reason, Nation (2009) claims that teachers and learners do not care about fluency development in courses because they feel that it is necessary to learn always something new.

Although learners consider fluency activities as having no benefit, Nation (2001) asserts that the effectiveness of including fluency element in any language course is to make the learning done in the other strands readily available for normal use. Nation (2002) has argued further that speed and smoothness of delivery can be enhanced when tasks are free from new language items and contain familiar content and discourse types. Moreover, McShane (2005) assumes that improving speed, accuracy or expression can be achieved if fluency activities are regularly instructed in the curriculum. However, the repetition of the

same text or words may create boredom to learners. As a result, different types of strategies have been suggested by Tankersley (2003) to increase learners' interest in fluency tasks and to improve their fluency. Some of these strategies concern in dealing with conversation, dictation, reading with different voices, play characters, etc.

Fluency development, according to Nation (2002), is preferred to be developed under certain learning conditions without which fluency practice has no effects. To achieve good results fluency activities should contain only lexical information that have been already learned and within the experience of the learners. That is to say, the materials which learners are provided with to develop fluency should have no new language items. Besides, learners should not neglect the meaning of the message while focusing on practising to speak speedily, accurately, easily and smoothly. Another condition to practice fluency is that teachers should devote enough time to this element like the other strands and to encourage learners to reach a high level of performance through the use of various kinds of leaning strategies.

2.4 Vocabulary Learning Strategies

In fact, language learning strategies are defined from different perspectives by numerous researchers Oxford (2001); Schmitt (2000); Ellis, 1995; Cohen, 1998 (as cited in Tacač, 2008: 49) among others. They are considered as actions, mental or behavioural activities, techniques and sometimes as processes used by learners in learning any language. For instance, language learning strategies have been defined by Oxford (2001) as those

“operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval and the use of information, specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations.”(p. 166)

While Cohen (1998, as cited in Takač, 2008), has defined language learning strategies as “*actions that learners consciously select to improve the learning of L_2 , the use of it or both*” (p. 49).

Vocabulary learning strategies, therefore, are deductively the techniques used by learners in attempting to learn, consolidate or recall target words. They are applied by learners to decrease the difficulties they face and to increase also their lexical knowledge of the language being learned. In addition, learners use vocabulary learning strategies to develop their proficiency level, to enhance self-efficacy and become more autonomous in their learning. Some kinds of these techniques or strategies are guessing meaning from context, keyword, word cards, etc.

As far as vocabulary learning strategies are concerned, they are categorized into various types; cognitive, metacognitive, social, affective, compensatory, memory or mnemonic strategies. The cognitive strategies are mental actions which help learners to restructure information and make relations between new and already known information (Oxford, 2001). Such strategies are taking notes, verbal or written repetition, etc. The metacognitive strategies are employed when learners are conscious of the learning process and they are able to decide the most efficient methods of learning, for example, by using songs or movies to learn new words or test oneself with word tests. Another type of vocabulary learning strategies is mnemonic strategies such as the keyword technique. These strategies are used when the new word is difficult to be retained and retrieved. So, learners link the target word with something they know or with another word that rhymed or spelled quite similarly in their L_1 . As an illustration, English speakers who attempt to learn the Thai phrase “khaaw saan” which means “uncooked rice” relate it with the English word “council” because they sound alike and then form a mental image of members of a council eating uncooked rice (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). This association helps them to remember the

meaning of this Thai phrase. Schmitt (2000) points out that forming associations and using the keyword method are better for retention rather than rote memorization. Among the other strategies that learners can use to enlarge their vocabulary knowledge there are also social and affective strategies. The former is concerned with the interaction with other people such as asking the teacher or the class-mates for meaning. Whereas the latter, it is concerned with learners' use of some techniques of relaxation and self encouragement to understand and control their feelings. The affective strategies, according to Tacač (2008), can affect learning indirectly, but they are still regarded as important in language learning. In addition to the previous kinds of vocabulary learning strategies, learners may have lack of knowledge when they want to speak or write which leads them to use compensatory or communicative strategies. These strategies include the use of synonyms, gestures, circumlocution to express the intended meaning. Although these strategies are only deployed in language production, they simultaneously aid language learning because they provide an opportunity for incidental learning (Oxford, 2001).

To improve language learning proficiency, vocabulary learning strategies should be instructed as a regular part of the language class. Teachers should explicitly teach learning strategies and train their learners to use them more effectively. Oxford (2001) claims that it is already indicated that high level of proficiency is often related with greater use of language learning strategies. Training learners to employ strategies successfully is very beneficial in reducing anxiety, increasing motivation and enhancing self-efficacy. Moreover, in Thornbury's (2002) discussion of training good vocabulary learners, it has been mentioned that vocabulary is learned by individuals and teachers should help learners by giving them ideas about how to learn and encourage them to develop personal strategies and decrease hesitation in learning. Besides, Nation (1990, as cited in Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 73) postulates that the most important ways of learning vocabulary are those strategies learners

use independently of a teacher. He adds further that thousands of words can be coped with by mastering few strategies.

Conclusion

This chapter is devoted to address some theoretical views regarding FL vocabulary. We have looked at some pertinent matters in teaching and learning target vocabulary with an eye to find out some helpful points that may aid FL learners to enlarge their vocabulary knowledge and narrowing down lexical errors that are originated in French transfer. For example, the two first sections are useful to recognize that certain features of target vocabulary should be taught explicitly, such as the figurative vocabulary, the function words and the importance of receptive vocabulary through extensive reading in learning vocabulary incidentally. In the third section, it has been assumed that teaching vocabulary should not be neglected in any part of language lesson. Besides, it has been realized in the fourth section the importance of teaching and training learners to adopt vocabulary learning strategies which help them to learn, retrieve and use the target vocabulary and encouraging them to create personal strategies as well.

Introduction

This chapter consists of three main sections. The first one is about detecting any lexical deviation occurred in the compositions written by the participants of the sample. In the second section, the identified deviations are reconstructed and classified into groups and subgroups according to James' (1998) Lexical Error Taxonomy. Also, the errors occurred in each group and subgroup are counted and converted into percentage. The last one reports a description of the findings in each sample.

3.1 Detecting Lexical Errors

As it has already been mentioned, this study is an attempt to gain more insights into the various types of lexical errors and their frequency of Algerian secondary school learners. To explore errors occurred in the data collected from the participants chosen to carry out the present work, it is obvious to start with identifying all the lexical deviations made.

To sort out the learners' lexical deviations, the compositions are read more than twice. In this study, lexical deviations are taken as the deviations from the lexical norm. That is to say, they are regarded as the wrong form or use of vocabulary items in any way i.e., at the orthographic, morphological, syntactical, semantic and the pragmatic level. The lexical deviations are scrutinized from different levels for the purpose to understand at which level Algerian learners have difficulties in using English vocabulary.

In fact, detecting learners' errors is not an easy task as it seems to be. We have, sometimes, faced difficulties in deciphering what the learner wants to say because of the illegible handwriting.

3.2 Classifying Lexical Errors

The next step in undertaking a lexical error EA is the classification of the identified

deviations which have been produced by the participants while they were caring out their compositions during the exam. Lexical deviations are categorized according to James' Taxonomy (1998). In cases where learners produce one word with more than one type of lexical errors, all the different types are taken into consideration. As an illustration, the use of the word "the important" is regarded as a misformation error and as an FM error since the learner does not know the correct spelling of "important", as well as, the noun "importance" is the right word in this case instead of the adjective "important".

As regards the lexical deviations made by the participants, they are also corrected according to the English lexical norms. The lexical deviations occurred in each composition are classified in two tables; one for formal errors of lexis and another one for semantic errors of lexis (appendix 2).

3.3 Description of Results

In this part of the study, all the lexical deviations occurred in every student's composition are counted and translated into percentage according to each subgroup. Then, the results are organized in tables and accompanied with a detailed description.

Composition N° 1

This table summarizes the occurrences of lexical deviations in the first composition.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	10	03	10	02	28
Percentage	10.71 %	35.71 %	10.71 %	35.71 %	7.14 %	100 %

Table 2: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 1

When reading this composition at the first time, the meaning of the message can not be conveyed. For the student does not understand the topic she is writing about or she has not

enough information about “Astronomy”. In addition, the composition is not well organized; there is no coherence and the sentences overlap each other since there is no punctuation. Besides, there are many lexical deviations that distort the meaning of her intended thoughts. The total number of these deviations is 28 errors distributed in the 11 lines of the composition. The most frequent lexical errors committed by the student are misformation and CSR errors corresponding to **35.71 %** for each subcategory. Misformation errors, on the one hand, are non-English words borrowed from French such as “exemple” for the English word “example” or rented from Arabic like “فصول” rather than “seasons”. Also, the student uses non-target words created by herself. These words can be generated from French, but with different spelling because of the confusion between the similar form of words in both languages. For instance, “cominic” which is taken from the French word “communiquer” instead of “communicate”, as they can be the result of misspelling of English words like “vree” to replace “very” or they are written as they are pronounced such as “ol” for “all”.

On the other hand, the student makes a lot of CSR errors because in most cases she does not know how to organize words into a meaningful sentence. That is, the meaning of the selected words becomes vague. For example, “ol this she rol on life”, “he give famous”, “hove these can people cominic”. In addition, the students can not make a connection between the pronouns and to what they refer to. As an illustration, she replaces “planets, stars and galaxiz” with “she” and “the Sun” with “she”.

Moreover, there are also other types of lexical errors in this composition. For example, FM errors represent **10.71 %**, they may result from a wrong choice of parts of speech such as the use of “importance” as a substitute for “important” and “having” rather than “to have”. The analysis of this composition shows that, occasionally, the student is aware that some words exist in English, but she misses their spellings, which leads her to commit **10.71 %** of distortions errors like in “tilivision” and “satilit” for “television” and “satellite”. Collocational

errors are also found in the composition, they have a percentage of **7.14 %** of the total lexical deviations. These errors are originated either in the misuse of the right preposition that should go together with the word “life” i.e., the participant prefers to write “on life” instead of the appropriate collocation “in life” or they are derived from the omission of the definite article “the” before the unique noun “Sun”.

Composition N° 2

The lexical deviations detected from the second composition are counted and transformed into the following table

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	04	06	03	15	05	33
Percentage	12.12%	18.18 %	09.09 %	45.45 %	15.15 %	100 %

Table 3: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 2

The topic of the second composition is different from the first one; it is about “Giving advice to classmates”. According to Llach, Fontecha and Espinosa (2005), the quantity and the quality of lexical errors are varied from one learner to another as regards response to different composition topics. Although the composition contains many lexical deviations, we do not face difficulties to grasp the meaning of the message. It is organized into a topic sentence, a set of advice and ends with a conclusion.

The identification of lexical deviations that occurred in this composition reveals 33 errors which include all the subtypes of formal and semantic errors of lexis. Regarding FM errors they make a percentage of **12.12 %**. They can result from a resemblance of form or pronunciation of two words, for example, she uses “same” as an alternation to “some”, as they can be derived from ignorance of the right form like in “years” to substitute “year” and “person’s” for “persons”. Misformation errors are found six times in the composition. They

are equivalent to **18.18 %** of all lexical deviations. Whereas distortions ones represent only **09.09 %**. Concerning distortions and misformation errors, they indicate that the student knows that these words exist in English, but she forgets their written forms such as “frainds” and “blieve”. However, CSR errors seem to be more problematic for the student since they correspond to **45.15 %** of all errors. They are caused by choosing a near synonym where a specific term is entailed, for instance, the choice of “pupil” as a replacement for “student” and “criminal” instead of “bad”. The student also commits collocational errors because she lacks knowledge of word combination such as in “a contrast” rather than “in contrast” and “a good frainds” for “good friends”. Although, there are many lexical deviations detected from this sample, there is no one believed to be resulted from French interference.

Composition N° 3

This table presents the percentage of each subgroup of lexical deviations found in composition N° 3.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	06	06	11	06	06	35
Percentage	17.14 %	17.14 %	31.42 %	17.14 %	17.14 %	100 %

Table 4: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 3

This composition is a little bit longer than the previous compositions; it consists of 29 lines. The total number of lexical deviations sorted out is 35 errors, this means approximately one deviation per line. A percentage of **17.14 %** is equivalent to FM, misformation, CSR and collocational errors. However, distortions have the highest frequency as regards the other subgroups. They are corresponding to **31.42 %** of all lexical errors. FM errors are related to grammar since the learner has used very often “give” instead of “gives” and “stady” for “studies” with the third singular pronoun. Also, he confuses between the verb “to advise” and

the noun “advice”. Thus, he substitutes “advise” with “advice”, this type of errors is also called “*synforms*”. In addition, misinformation errors have been done because of the disagreement between the pronunciation and the orthographic form of a word which are supposed to be derived from French interference. For instance, the student translates the sound /□/ into the letter “a” in “stady” rather than “study” and the sound /i/ into the letter “i” in “ani” instead of writing “any”, also, the student uses the French word “fentastique” as a replacement for the English word “fantastic”. These errors are considered as misinformation errors resulted from the influence of the learner’s FL₁. As far as distortions are concerned, they are committed since the student is not sure about the spelling of certain words. As an example, the adverb “well” is written with two distinct structures; “welle” and “wel”. CSR errors in this composition have been done because of the wrong choice of words to express the intended meaning like in “that last” for “the latter” and in “about this one” to refer to “about it”. Moreover, the unique words in the composition are not combined with the definite article “the”, which are accounted as collocational errors such as “earth” and “solar system”.

Composition N°4

The frequencies of lexical deviations counted in the fourth composition are given in the table below:

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	07	06	03	07	04	27
Percentage	25.92 %	22.22 %	11.11 %	25.92 %	14.81 %	100 %

Table 5: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 4

The fourth composition analyzed is about “Astronomy”. There are 27 lexical deviations committed in it. The frequencies of errors varied according to each subcategory

except CSR and FM errors which represent the same percentage; **25.92 %**. However, there is a slight difference between the other subgroups.

FM errors indicate that this student is like the previous students since she is also unable to decide about the appropriate part of speech to be used. For example, she replaces “shows” with “show” and “watching” with “witch”. Besides, the student does not master the use of superlative comparison, for instance, the sentence “one of the very biggest” is substituted with “one of the very big”.

The composition also includes CSR errors which are most of the time concerned with near synonyms. As an exemplification, the student has altered the noun “largeness” with “biggest” and used “famous” rather than “interesting”. Regarding misinformation errors (**22.22 %**), they are all French words used because the student misses the English word such as “meteo” which refers to “weather forecast” or because of the similarity of form which creates confusion about the right word such as “theorie” and “sûr” that resemble to the English words “theory” and “sur” accordingly. These deviations, in fact, affect the participant writing for the inclusion of non- English words. Moreover, distortions represent **11.11 %** of the total number of lexical deviations. in the three cases, they are done for the omission of one letter like in “bigest” and “explan” rather than “biggest” and “explain”. Concerning collocational errors, they occurred four times in the composition that makes up a percentage of **14.81 %**.

Composition N°5

The subsequent table shows the percentages of each subgroup of lexical deviations counted in the fifth composition.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	07	03	04	01	18
Percentage	16.66 %	38.88 %	16.66 %	22.22 %	05.55 %	100 %

Table 6: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 5

It was not easy to understand what the learner wants to say from the first reading. The composition is completely disordered; not coherent, no punctuation and the handwriting is illegible. Once the composition has been read more than once, 18 lexical deviations are sorted out. The most noticeable thing is that this composition contains a small number of errors compared to the previous ones, which may lead to think that length of a composition may affect the quantity of lexical deviations.

The 18 lexical deviations are distributed as follows: FM **16.66 %**, misformation **38.88 %**, distortions **16.66 %**, CSR **22.22 %** and collocational errors **05.55 %**. FM errors are always related students' ignorance of the placement of part of speech as the substitution of the adjective "obligatory" by the noun "obligation". Also, he confuses between the modal verb "may" and the pronoun "my". Misformation errors indicate that the student is not sure about his lexical information since he writes the word "because" differently sometimes "boccasse" and in other cases "beçause", as he loans the French lexical feature "accent" in the word "généralise" to write "generalize". That is to say, the effect of French language in this composition is quiet noticeable. In addition, distortions detected from this composition belong to the same category; omission like in "cultur" for "culture".

In the composition, we find also, that the student translates a colloquial Arabic expression. Consequently, the translation brings about a CSR error since the selected words fail to function semantically as expected; "bocasse the time defecat" which is transformed from "الوقت صعب". Another type of CSR errors is the selection of a near synonym like

“obligation” where “necessary” is more appropriate. Collocational errors occurred only one time; it is concerned with “information in the astronomy”, because “information” and “in” can not combined together, but it is better to say “information about astronomy”.

Composition N° 6

The frequencies of lexical deviations made in Composition N°6 are organized in this table according to subgroups.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	collocation	Total
Number	04	00	02	05	07	18
Percentage	22.22%	00%	11.11%	27.77%	38.88%	100 %

Table 7: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 6

After the identification and classification of the lexical deviations, we have noticed that there is no misformation errors, this means that the student has used only English words. The result implies that the student may have sufficient knowledge of English words as she may avoid unknown words unlike the previous students who have interfered French words in their writings.

Regarding the other subcategories they differ in their frequencies. FM errors, for instance, occur four times in the composition out of 18 errors which are equivalent to **22.22 %**. They are concerned with misselection of words that sound similarly; she puts the conjunction “as” into the place of the pronoun “us”. As well as, she replaces the adjective “general” with the adverb “generally”. Moreover, the student does not make a difference between the possessive adjective “its”, as in this case, and the contraction of “it is”; “it’s”.

Distortions in this composition represent only **11.11 %** of the total errors, where the student omits one letter in the two cases. The omitted letters are silent in “roles” and “which”

which are written “rols” and “wich”. However, collocational errors committed are registered as with the adjective “many” with a singular noun; “many domain” rather than “many domains”. They represent **38.88 %** of the total errors and seem to be the most problematic error for the student. Concerning CSR, which correspond to **27.77 %**, they have been made because of literal translation from Arabic like in “all that’s we lived today” which is transferred from the Arabic expression “كل ما نعيشه اليوم”, as they can be resulted from the use of words that do not express the intended meaning. However, there is no French interference in this sample which may assume that the subject is not influenced by the experienced French lexical knowledge.

Composition N° 7

The following table illustrates the occurrences of lexical errors in Composition N° 7.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	07	01	07	02	20
Percentage	15 %	35 %	05 %	35 %	10 %	100 %

Table 8: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 7

Like some previous compositions, this one also lacks punctuation. It seems that the 11 lines are one sentence. Moreover, most of the expressions are incorrect for the interference of non-English words or for the incompatibility of the words used. Also, there are some expressions whose meaning is very ambiguous.

The analysis of the composition detects 20 lexical deviations. The most frequent errors committed are misformation and CSR errors which are equivalent to **35 %**. On the one hand, misformation errors are found to be French words such as “petit” and “sourtou” for “surtout” or words which are written as they are pronounced like “persen” or “fiyne”. On the other

hand, CSR errors can be derived from transfer of Arabic or Tamazight meaning, for instance, “do not read the school” (لا يقرؤون في المدرسة) or they are meaningless sentences like “the school the give more problem”.

In addition, the student makes only one distortion i.e., 5 % of all the deviations when she deletes the first letter in the word “write”, may be because it is soundless. Regarding FM errors, they are 15 % of the total deviations. One of those errors is that she does not know how to derive a noun from the verb “leave”; she expresses in her composition “of the leave” instead of “leaving”. Whereas collocational errors, they represent 10 % of all the lexical deviations occurred in the composition. Regarding French interference, there is no deviation that may be resulted from it in this composition.

Composition N° 8

The results obtained from the analysis of composition N° 8 concerning the occurrences of lexical deviations are displayed in the table below.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	06	01	03	07	20
Percentage	15 %	30 %	05 %	15 %	35 %	100 %

Table 9: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 8

Unlike the preceding compositions, this one is the easiest to analyze as it is well organized; the ideas are cohesive and coherent. Besides, punctuation is well used. However, there are some errors which reflect the student’s knowledge of English rules. Lexical errors, for example, occur in 20 cases and incorporate the different subtypes of lexical errors organized by James (1998).

The table above demonstrates that collocation and word formation are the problematic areas of vocabulary for the student since 11 errors out of 20 are misformation and

collocation errors corresponded to **30 %** and **35 %** respectively. As regards collocational errors, are mostly derived from joining two words that normally do not go together; for instance, she constructs “turned about” and “every planet have” instead of “turn around” and “every planet has”, accordingly. Also, collocational errors are in other cases considered as the exclusion of the definite article “the” when mentioning “the sun”. Whereas misformation errors, they are manifested in the use of some French words that look like English ones such as “exemple” for “example”, “centre” for “center” and “caracteres” instead of “characteristics”. In addition, this subgroup of errors encompasses those cases where the student is mistaken by the sound /en/ since she changes “an” in “distance” with “en” to create a word that does not exist in English.

Furthermore, FM errors identified from the composition are **15 %** of the total number of lexical deviations. They include the substitution of parts of speech such as the replacement of the noun “difference” with the adjective “different”. They incorporate, also, the uncertainty between words that sound similarly. Accordingly, she uses “thinks” as replacement for “thanks”.

In the composition, distortions seem to result only from lack of attention or slip of pen as they corresponded to **5 %** only. As far as CSR errors are concerned, they are equivalent to **15 %**, they are summarized in the misconnection between nouns and their pronouns, for example, the student has employed the pronoun “him” to refer to “the universe” rather than “it”. Another type of CSR is the choice of the inappropriate word in “they are all the same system” where “have” is the suitable word instead of “are”.

Composition N° 9

The analysis of composition N° 9 yielded 22 lexical deviations encompassing the five subgroups of lexical errors as they are presented in the next table.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	10	03	03	03	22
Percentage	13.63 %	45.45 %	13.63 %	13.63 %	13.63 %	100 %

Table 10: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 9

The composition is among the shortest compositions in terms of data. It consists of 07 lines with 22 lexical deviations, that is, 03 errors is the mean of lexical errors per line. In this composition, the student misses punctuation and illustration. Besides, the participant has just set some ideas, but they are not developed.

Because of the likeness among French and English words, this creates confusion for the student, misformation errors are the overwhelming majority of lexical errors in this composition. Their percentage is **45.45 %** of all the 22 deviations. As an exemplification, the French word “espace” is used frequently for the English one “space”. Moreover, it is noticed that the word “other” has been written wrongly because the participant is mystified by its corresponded French word “autre”, so he produces incorrect word “outre”. As regards French language, it seems that it has a significant influence on Algerian learners’ written production of English. A good case in point, the French verb “chercher” was transferred into the composition, but it was dressed with the English morpheme “ed” as a regular verb in the past.

Apropos the other subtypes of lexical errors identified from the composition, they have the same frequency of occurrences; since there are 03 errors for each one corresponding to **13.63 %**. FM errors, for instance, are concerned with the final “s”, that is to say, the student has used “give” and “planet” where the final “S” is taken off because “gives” and “planets” are more adequate in that context. Whereas distortions errors are related to overinclusion of the silent “e” at the end of “problem”, “earth” and “exist”. In addition, CSR errors are committed as “men” and “this time” which are chosen as near synonyms for “man”

and “the present time”; also, they are the result of choosing inappropriate words to convey the intended meaning like when “cherched as led the life exsiste” is used to express “researchers have found that life exists”. Finally, collocational errors in this composition concern the unique noun “the earth” where it is almost used without the definite article. Collocational errors are also about the combination of the preposition “for” with “information” since information is better accompanied with “about”.

Composition N° 10

The occurrences of lexical deviations detected in composition N° 10 are presented in the table below.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	00	06	03	03	04	16
Percentage	00 %	37.5 %	18.75 %	18.75 %	25 %	100 %

Table 11: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 10

This is a three sentences composition: one for the introduction, one for topic development and the other one is for the conclusion. The analysis identifies 16 lexical deviations. Accordingly, it contains a small number of errors compared to what have been analyzed, although, judgment about the participant’s proficiency can not be made since the composition is too short. In addition, what makes this composition distinct from the other ones is that there is FM error; this may be due to awareness of parts of speech or avoidance of words that resemble in pronunciation.

The most erroneous lexical deviations for the student are misformation errors. They have the high frequency; **37.5 %** of the total number of errors. All misformation errors are more or less a result from the disagreement between the phonetic and the orthographic

systems of English. As an illustration, the student seems to be doubtful about how the word “contain” is spelt as it is written with two different forms: “cntayne” and “contane”. That is to say, the student is not sure about the written form of the diphthong /eɪ/ “contain”. Also, the sound /en/ is transformed into “en” rather than “an” in “important”.

Regarding distortions and CSR errors, they have been done three times for each, thus, each subcategory represents **18.75 %** of all lexical deviations, as shown in Table 3.10. On the one hand, distortions also identified in that the final “e” is removed from “large” and “universe”. In fact, the omission of the final “e” from “universe” is believed to result from French language “univers” for their formal similarity which creates uncertainty for the learner. Concerning this example, it is the only case detected as French interference. On the other hand, CSR errors are found to be the consequence of a false alternation of the noun “universe” with the pronoun “they”; where “it” is the appropriate pronoun to be used, as they are derived from uttering incorrect expressions such as “our planet is contane in this universe”; however, the sentence can be better formulated as “our planet is a part of the universe”. The last subtype of lexical errors is collocational errors, they correspond to **25 %** which place them the second frequent errors committed in the composition. They are related to the omission of the articles “a” and “the” before nouns like in “very larg space” and “one of mithod” rather than “a very large space” and “one of the method”.

Composition N° 11

The following table illustrates the collected data from the analysis of composition N° 11; lexical deviations are counted and translated into percentage according to each subgroup.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	12	18	06	14	11	61
Percentage	19.67 %	29.50 %	09.83 %	22.95 %	18.03 %	100 %

Table 12: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 11

As a matter of fact, composition N° 11 takes too much time while analyzing it; it is plenty of meaningless utterances. The student's teacher has commented that she does not understand the subject for she should compare between literate and illiterate person, but not two educational systems. Nevertheless, the remark is not taken into account because we are not interested in the topic in itself.

As far as the analysis is concerned, it is observed that this composition contains the largest amount of lexical deviations; there are 61 errors detected from it. Lexical deviations are classified from the most frequent to the least frequent errors, as follows; misformation errors **29.50 %**, CSR errors **22.95 %**, FM errors **19.67 %**, collocational errors **18.03 %** and then distortions **09.83 %**.

As regards misformation errors, they usually distort the meaning of the message especially those words with difficult meaning such as "ley" and "shey". They include also the interference of the French words "système" for "system" and "peiture" which may be taken from "peinture" as a replacement for "paint". Besides, some misformation errors are represented by the production of ill-formed words, for example, "midal", "premany", "enest", etc. for "middle", "primary", "honest".

CSR errors are most of the time related to wrong choice of words. As an exemplification, the student lacks the employment of the suitable words as in "there is large different in the système education betwn Algerian and Bitan" where it is more appropriate to use "big", "between" and "of" instead of "large", "in" and "betwn". However, formal

misselection errors are often originated either from unawareness of applying an adjective or an adverb like in the use of “different”, “education” as an alternation for “difference”, “educational” or from the confusion of two words that are alike in form ,which is manifested in this composition by the substitution of “some” by “same”.

Furthermore, the analysis of lexical deviations indicates that collocational errors are related to associating two words together which are normally accompanied with other words; for instance, “same thank” and “go at iniversity” are used for “something” and “go to the university”. Concerning the least frequent errors; distortions, they are about overincluding or deleting some letters such as “betwn”, “finially” for “between”, “finally”.

Composition N° 12

The occurrences of lexical deviations sorted out from composition N° 12 are shown in the table below.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	07	00	03	06	08	24
Percentage	29.16 %	00 %	12.50 %	25 %	33.33 %	100 %

Table 13: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 12

Coherence, cohesiveness and the use of punctuation are the first things noticed while reading the composition at the first time. They give good insights into the learner’s knowledge of an FL. These characteristics are often neglected in the students’ compositions.

The analysis of the composition reveals 24 lexical deviations distributed on the subgroups except misformation, absent from the diagnosis. However, collocational errors seem to be problematic for the participant because they equal **33.33 %** of the total amount of lexical errors. The reason behind such errors is that the student, in some cases for example, combines

the adjective “many” with the singular noun “scientist” rather than the plural one “scientists”. Also, she considers “every” as a meaning of a group not an individual; thus, “every planet have” and “everthing turn” have been done instead of “every planet has” and “everything turns” correspondingly.

Following collocational errors, FM errors correspond to **29.16 %** and they are concerned with conjugating verbs in the present tense with the third singular person rather than the plural one as in “there are our solar system” for “there is our solar system” or they are derived from the use of singular nouns as a replacement for the plural ones such as “there is also other planet” instead of “there is also other planets”.

Concerning CSR errors, they occur 06 times, in this composition, which represent **25 %** of all deviations. They are made because of the substitution of one word with its near synonym, for example, the participant has used the adjective “big” to describe the universe where the adjective “large” is more appropriate. In addition, the other subtype of lexical deviations; distortions **12.50 %** appeared in the omission of the letters “y”, “r” and “t” from “everything”, “researches” and “still” respectively. As regards French language, there is no inclusion of its lexical properties in this composition. That is to say, all lexical deviations detected do not result from French interference.

Composition N° 13

The following table reveals the number and percentage of each subtype of lexical errors identified in composition N° 13.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	10	01	04	02	04	21
Percentage	47.61 %	04.76 %	19.04 %	09.52 %	19.04 %	100 %

Table 14: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 13

Although the task is about writing a composition, this sample of learner language is a dialogue not a composition. This implies that the student has not yet understood or mastered the structure of a composition. However, this copy is not neglected from the data for that the evaluation of the composition writing skill is not a matter of concern in this study.

The total number of lexical deviations committed in this document is 21. They encompass all the subcategories, but with a slight variation. According to the results introduced in the table above, the amount of FM errors is extremely large; they represent about half of all errors **47.61 %**. The identification of these errors provides that there may be three major causes which lead to such errors. The first one is because of the ignorance that the verb should be connected with its subject; so, in the present tense, the verb has to have an “s” with the third singular person. For example, the verb “consist”, in the sample, should have a final “s” to be related to its subject “the solar system”. Second, they are caused by the replacement of the personal pronoun “I” by the possessive adjective “my”. The other cause of FM errors is the literal translation from Arabic, thus, she uses the pronoun “he” (“هو” in Arabic) rather than “it” to refer to “the universe”.

Concerning distortions and collocational errors, they have an equal percentage **19.04 %**. The former is about writing English words with a bit difference; by removing or adding extra letters such as “the univers” and “aske” for “the universe” and “ask” accordingly which may result from French language for the subject uses the French word “univers” and a French lexical feature i.e., adding “e” at the end of “ask”. Whereas the latter is derived from misapplication of grammar rules, for instance, the noun “object” and the auxiliary “are” should not be combined together since in that context “are” has to be accompanied with “objects”.

The other lexical subtypes; CSR and misinformation are equivalent to **19.04 %** and **04.76 %**. CSR errors have been done because some chosen words have mystified the intended

meaning as when the student produces this utterance “he is object are” instead of “these objects are”. However, a misformation error is committed only when the word “gravit” is created to mean “gravitation”.

Composition N° 14

Regarding the identification and classification of lexical deviations made in composition N° 14, this table demonstrates the frequency of each subtype of deviations.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	08	04	02	05	22
Percentage	13.63 %	36.36 %	18.18 %	09.09 %	22.72 %	100 %

Table 15: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 14

As it is indicated in the table above, there are 22 lexical deviations detected from this composition. Yet, the student’s ideas are clear and coherent strengthened by the appropriate use of the transitions. Misformation errors are found to be the most frequent errors; they make up a percentage of **36.36 %** of the whole number of errors. Most of them are derived either from lack of knowledge about the written form of English words such as “scheuld” for “should” and “seleve” for “selves” or from the confusion between the pronunciation and the spelling, for instance, of the word “efforts” (/eferts/) which is written in this composition as “efferts”.

As regards collocational errors, they are the second frequent errors made by the participant which represent **22.72 %**. Some of these errors are caused by ignorance of word combination like in “you seleve” instead of “yourselves”. Besides, they are committed as a result of modifying the fixed expression “at the beginning” since the student has changed it into “in the beginning”.

Whereas distortions, they are manifested in four deviations corresponding to **18.18%**. They almost originated by deleting a silent or double letters as in “mats” and “chose” for “mates” and “choose” successively. However, FM errors in the composition are equivalent to **13.63 %**. According to what we have noticed in the preceding composition, nearly all the subjects have lack of knowledge regarding the selection of the adequate part of speech and neglect the relation between verb and its subject or between noun and the pronoun that refers to. A good case in point, this participant, for example, chooses the noun “confidence” as a replacement to the adjective “confident” and substitute the verb “want” with “wants” where the subject is “you”.

Less numerous errors are CSR representing **09.09 %** of the total number of lexical deviations. As illustration, the student is mistaken about which word should occur in the plural form. So, she writes “the outhers exam” instead of “the other exams”. As a matter of fact, there is no French language properties in this composition which means that the participants may be able to keep away the background knowledge of French language when writing English.

Composition N° 15

Table below represents the occurrences of lexical deviations committed in this sample of learner language.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	06	07	06	03	04	27
Percentage	22.22 %	25.92 %	22.22 %	11.11 %	14.81 %	100 %

Table 16: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 15

In the table above, the results demonstrate that formal errors, including the three

subcategories, are extremely the most serious errors in the composition. They represent **74.04 %** of all deviations compared to semantic errors which are equivalent to **25.96 %**.

A propos formal errors, misinformation are often committed by the student **25.92%**. In most cases they have been made because the student can not recall the correct form of words such as “stelate”, “discover”, “hwman” for “satellite”, “discover”, “human”. They are committed since the pronunciation of some words influences the student’s interpretation of their spellings. That is to say, the participant writes “must” and “other” as “mast” and “ather” accordingly since the letters “u” and “o” in these words are sounded like the letter “a” in French which represent little French interference.

Concerning distortions and FM errors, they are seen to have the same rate corresponding to **22.22 %** for each subgroup. With reference to distortions, they are about omitting or affixing a final letter like in “mor”, “withe” for “more” and “with” accordingly. As regards FM errors, they are affected by words’ likeliness of form and pronunciation but vary in meaning. Therefore, the word “think” is employed as an alternation to the right word “thank”. In addition, FM errors in this sample are the consequence of lack of knowledge about the application of comparative or superlative form of adjectives. Thus, the student makes a lexical deviation when choosing the comparative form “biger” rather than the correct form “biggest”.

This composition also includes collocational errors which are equivalent to **14.81%**. Among these errors committed there are “it’s self” and “earth” instead of “itself” and “the earth”. The less frequent errors are CSR rated **11.11 %** of all deviations. Their analysis shows that these errors are represented in the use of a general term where a specific one is needed like in the use of “men” rather than “the scientist” and in the choice of a near synonym, for

example, the modal verb “should”, in the composition context, should be used instead of “must” since there is no authority between the classmates.

Composition N° 16

The lexical deviations sorted out from this sample are counted, translated into percentage and summed up in the next table.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	04	02	06	05	05	22
Percentage	18.18 %	09.09 %	27.27 %	22.72 %	22.72%	100 %

Table 17: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 16

As a matter of fact, this sample is the best composition in the data. It is marked 04 out of 06 points. Nevertheless, there are 22 lexical deviations. As it has been noticed in the table above, formal and semantic errors equal in number.

The most frequent errors are distortions; corresponding to **27.27 %** of the whole number of errors. They are concerned with insufficient knowledge of English vocabulary forms. As an illustration, distortions are done since some letters are removed and others are included as in “teory”, “travele” for “theory” and “travel”.

Following distortions, CSR and collocational errors are the second recurrent subtypes **22.72 %** for both of them. First, CSR errors resulted from using inappropriate words as in “during the time”, “the person to use” for “through time” and “the person who uses”. Second, collocational errors in this composition are like the others; derived from the omission of the definite article “the” before “earth” and “space”.

Moreover, FM errors are also similar to those encountered in the preceding samples. Some of these errors are concerned with misselection of the adjective “small” since the

superlative form “smaller” is chosen. Also, they are derived from the wrong conjugation of verbs, for instance, the verbs “study” and “use” have been put into their infinitives rather than “studies” and “uses” in the simple present. Furthermore, misformation errors are the least committed errors **09.09 %**. They are the consequence of changing some letters which lead to create non-English words, for example, “fabelous” and “discover” instead of “fabulous” and “discover”. In fact, there is no deviation originated in French language in this sample.

Composition N° 17

The occurrences of lexical deviations in this composition are displayed in the following table.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	06	04	04	05	22
Percentage	13.63 %	27.27 %	18.18 %	18.18 %	22.72 %	100 %

Table 18: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 17

As indicated in table above, the analysis of this composition yielded 22 lexical deviations. That is, two errors per line is the mean of lexical deviations in the sample since it consists of 11 lines. Among these errors there are **27.27 %** for misformation, **22.72 %** for collocational errors, **18.18%** for both distortions and CSR errors and **13.63 %** for FM errors.

For misformation errors, they are done, for example, because of the influence of the pronunciation of the French word “répond” that confuses the student to write “repand” instead of “respond” and for the disagreement between the orthographic form and the pronunciation in English. Therefore, the word “any” is written “eny”. Also, they are committed since the participant does not know the right form of some words as “stedent”, “puple” for “student” and “pupil”.

Some of the collocational errors detected in the sample are related to using inadequate

words together such as producing “think of” where “think about” is more appropriate. They are also found in certain cases when a singular noun is used with the adjective “many”. Regarding distortions, they are concerned with modifying the correct form of words by adding or taking off some letters like in “reade”, “futur” rather than “read” and “future”.

With reference to FM errors, they are all caused by putting the verbs into the wrong form with the third person singular in the simple present. To exemplify, “give”, “do not” are used instead of “gives” and “does not”. Whereas CSR errors are the consequence of either choosing a near synonym as in using “pupel” instead of “student” or selecting a specific item where a general one is entailed such in employing “pupel” rather than “people”.

Composition N° 18

The table below contains the results obtained after the analysis of Composition N° 18.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	03	00	01	06	04	14
Percentage	21.42 %	00%	07.14 %	42.85 %	28.57 %	100 %

Table 19: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 18

In fact, there is no coherence and cohesiveness in this sample. Besides, it contains some ambiguous sentences; their meaning is not obviously understood. According to the table above, lexical deviations occurred in 14 cases. However, there is no case found to be related to misformation errors.

Among the 14 errors, CSR errors seem to be erroneous for the student **42.85 %**. Their identification implies that the participant can not choose the appropriate pronoun to refer to something. As an illustration, he uses the pronoun “he” to replace “the universe” instead of “it” and employs the relative pronoun “who” to refer to “the solar system” rather than

“which”. On other occasions, CSR errors are the consequence of selecting a near synonym like in “this last” that is used as an alternation to “the latter”.

Regarding collocational errors **28.57 %**, they are encountered in cases where the student misses the right word to be accompanied with certain words; for instance, “composed to”, “around to the sun” are collocated instead of “composed of”, “turn around the sun” accordingly. Collocational errors are, also, resulted from taking off the definite article before “the solar system” and “the sun”.

FM errors **21.42 %** detected in this sample are caused either by using the superlative form “larger” rather than “large” or by putting the verbs into inappropriate forms such as “make”, “use” for “makes” and “uses”. Whereas distortions errors **07.14 %**, only one case is found to be related to the removal of the last letter from “universe” which is believed to be the consequence of the similarity with the French word “univers”.

Composition N° 19

The frequencies of errors according to each subgroup of lexical errors are summarized in the table below.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocation	Total
Number	04	03	03	05	06	21
Percentage	19.04 %	14.28 %	14.28 %	23.80 %	28.57 %	100 %

Table 20: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 19

Regardless the number of lexical deviations (21) that occurred in the composition, it is one of the few good samples found in the data. It is cohesive for the appropriate use of transitions and well organized either in form or content.

The most frequent errors committed in the composition are collocational errors. They are equivalent to **28.57 %** of the total number of lexical deviations. For example, they are almost made because the student does not pay attention to the final “Ss” since they are put where they should not and omitted when necessary. Some of them occurred in these examples; “one of the main solution”, “can provides” as an alternation of “one of the main solutions” and “can provide”.

The second recurrent type after collocational errors is CSR errors corresponding to **23.80 %**. They resulted from choosing a near synonym such as using “shape”, “pupils” where “plan” and “people” are required. They are also done when selecting unsuitable words in a specific context, for instance, “educational people” is used rather than “educated people”.

In addition, FM errors are also encountered in this sample. They are found in three cases representing **19.04 %** of all errors. They are generated either from the wrong form of the verb used like “help”, “fighting” instead of “helps” and “to fight” or from the inappropriate part of speech selected, for example, the adjective “confident” is “replaced by the noun “confidence”.

Regarding the two least frequent errors; distortions and misformation errors, they correspond to 14.28 %. Misformation errors are manifested in writing the wrong form of some words as in “peapls”, “pouch” for “people” and “push” respectively. Whereas distortions ones are concerned with adding extra letters in “develope”, “bettween” for “develop” and “between” accordingly. As regards French language, this composition is bare of French vocabulary features.

Composition N° 20

The next table introduces the occurrences of lexical deviations committed in this sample.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocational	Total
Number	03	03	02	01	01	10
Percentage	30 %	30 %	20 %	10 %	10 %	100 %

Table 21: Occurrences of Lexical Deviations in Composition N° 20

This sample is quiet good, but unlike all the others as it contains the smallest number of lexical deviations; 10 cases. They are distributed as follows; regarding FM errors, they represent **30 %**. Their analysis reveals that they are derived from lack of awareness about the right word to be chosen like when “not”, “phenomena” are employed rather than “no” and “phenomenon”. As far as misformation errors are concerned, they are equivalent to **30 %**. They resulted from missing the correct word like “an other”, “themselves” instead of “another” and “themselves” accordingly.

Besides, distortions errors correspond to **20 %**. They are done in two situations where the participant includes or deletes certain letters, for example, “peacefull”, “guaranting” for “peaceful” and “guaranteeing”. Moreover, collocational and CSR errors are encountered only in one case for each one **10 %**. Concerning the former, it has been done when the student modifies a fixed expression; “in an other hand” rather than “on the other hand”. As regards the latter, it is committed since the intended meaning is not clearly expressed; “they are the responsibility of their teachers” for “they are under the responsibility of their teachers”. All the deviations diagnosed above have no relation with French language since the subject does not interfere any French vocabulary features.

Conclusion

To sum up, the participants' compositions have been scrutinized for lexical deviations which have been classified into groups and subgroups according to James' Taxonomy (1998). As regards the results obtained, each sample is described with reference to the deviations occurred in it. Their description shows that the students make similar types of errors, but vary in frequency. Besides, the analysis of the participants' Compositions reveals that there are 14 students out of 20 interfere some French vocabulary features in their writing. For this reason, it is necessary to know whether the overwhelming majority of lexical errors committed by the subjects originated in French language.

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to answer the question concerning whether French language can be one of the causes that lead Algerian learners to commit lexical errors in written production. That is to say, it is concerned with discussing the results acquired in the previous chapter. Through the analysis of the data, it will be possible to identify the problems behind committing the most common lexical errors. The chapter ends with some recommendations to learners, teachers of English and course designers, in order to help improving the quality of learners' written production and achieve a high level of proficiency in learning English as an FL.

4.1 Discussion of Key Findings

At first glance, the variation of the compositions' length has been noticed, which reflects on some occasions the number of lexical deviations committed. Also, the types of errors frequently done differ. In addition, the analysis of the data has revealed that most of the students lack the structure of a composition.

The 20 compositions written by a sample of third year Algerian learners at the secondary school of Sliman Amirat totaled up to 480 lexical deviations. As a matter of fact, the lexical error types are approximately common to all the participants. The 480 deviations include two types of lexical error: formal errors and semantic errors. The subjects of the sample made 275 formal errors and 205 semantic errors as have been shown in the following table.

	Number	Percentage
Formal errors	275	57.29 %
Semantic errors	205	42.71 %

Table 22: Distribution of Lexical Deviations

The number and the percentage of frequencies of formal and semantic errors are converted into the following diagram.

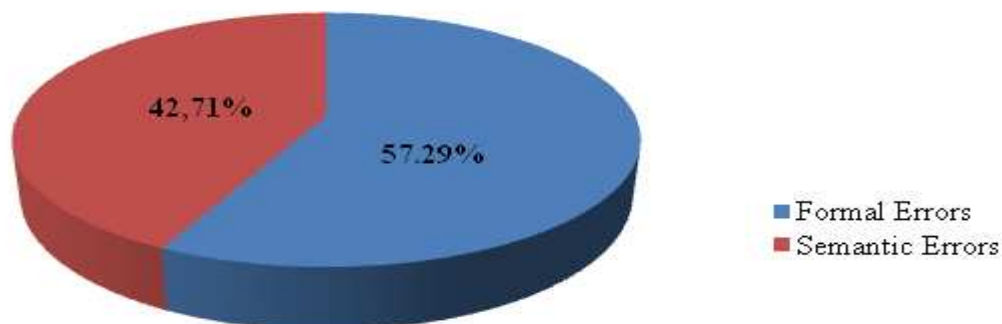


Diagram 1: Total Number of Lexical Deviations

4.1.1 Formal Errors

As far as formal errors are concerned, they represent **57.29 %** of all errors. That is to say, they are the most problematic error category in the data. The learners committed all the error types of formal errors, as indicated in the following table and diagram.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions
Number	91	114	70
Percentage	33.09 %	41.46 %	25.45 %

Table 23: Frequency of Formal Errors

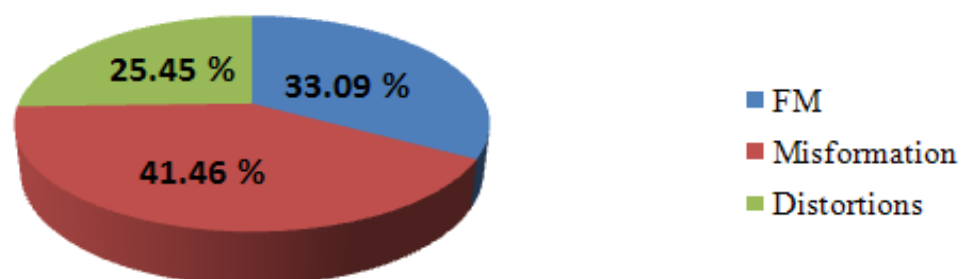


Diagram 2: Distribution of Formal Errors

4.1.1.1 Misformation Errors

The classification of formal errors into subcategories shows that misformation errors represent the overwhelming majority, for the participants committed 114 misformation errors among 275 formal errors. Moreover, misformation errors have the high ratio as regards the other types. This type of errors represents **41.46 %** of all formal errors and **23.76 %** of the total number of lexical deviations made by the learners. This result shows that the Algerian learners even if they have been instructed in English during, approximately, seven years they still poor at vocabulary. The learners have used words which do not exist in English. Misformation errors can be the result of lack of English lexical knowledge, therefore, they create ill-formed words by themselves or they can be influenced by what they have learned and acquired in other languages i.e.; cross-linguistic influence. As regards French language, there are many cases of misformation errors found in the compositions believed to be French interference. These identified errors are either entire French words or represent just features such as “fentastique”, “système” and “because” instead of “fantastic”, “system” and “because”.

4.1.1.2 Formal Misselection Errors

As it has been indicated in the analysis of the data, misformation errors are followed by FM errors with a percentage of **33.09 %** according to formal errors and **18.96 %** of the total number of lexical deviations. The occurrence of FM errors is due to the similarity of form and inappropriate choice of parts of speech. In other words, FM errors derived from the similarity in form between noun and adjective or noun and verb. The finding indicates that the Algerian learners are still unable to distinguish between parts of speech or they do not know the right placement of the parts of speech in the sentence. As an illustration, some learners can not differentiate, for example, between the noun “importance” and the adjective “important”, and between “education” and “educational”.

The reason why learners did misselection errors is that they do not have enough knowledge of word family, as well as, they confuse between word which are similar in pronunciation or spelling such as the confusion between “advice” and “advise”, “some” and “same”. Whatever the reasons behind the FM errors, this means that the writing of the Algerian learners is still weak because they are deficient in English. However, it has been noticed that there is no FM errors resulted from French language.

4.1.1.3 Distortions

Concerning the last subcategory of formal errors; distortions equal **25.45 %** of formal errors and **14.58 %** of the total errors. According to James (1998), distortions are intralingual errors. That is to say, when learners do errors of this type this means that their lexical knowledge of TL is not well developed enough. As far as the analysis of the data is concerned, it shows that the participants of the sample have problems of writing correct English words. This problem may be due to the concentration on finding the right words not on how they are spelt. Furthermore, the commitment of such type of errors is perhaps derived from anxiety during the exam or the fear of not completing the composition task. In addition, these errors are also done, in some occasion, because of the similarity between French and English words “the universe” which is written as in French “univers”.

4.1.2 Semantic Errors

The number of semantic errors equals 205 errors. This number represents **42.71 %** of all lexical deviations detected from the data. They encompass the two subcategories of semantic errors in lexis as they are classified by James (1998): CSR errors and collocational errors. The following table presents the obtained result.

	CSR	Collocation
Number	111	94
Percentage	54.15 %	45.85 %

Table 24: Frequencies of Semantic Errors

The findings concerning the distribution of semantic errors are displayed in the following diagram.

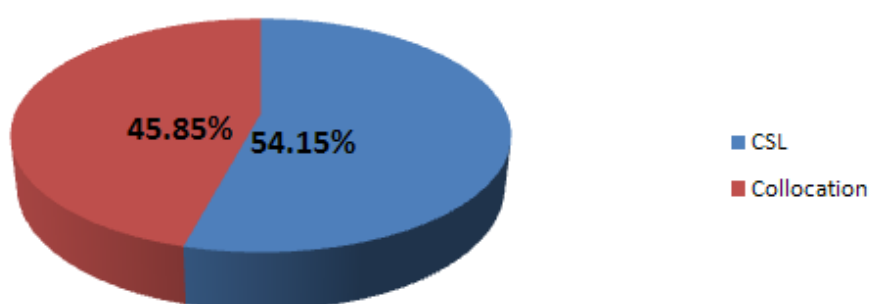


Diagram 3: Frequencies of Semantic Errors

4.1.2.1 Confusion of Sense Relations Errors

The analysis of the learners' compositions reveals that the participants have a serious problem of confusion of sense relations in their writings. CSR errors are the most frequent type representing **54.15 %** of the semantic errors and **23.12 %** of the total number of the identified lexical deviations. That is to say, CSR errors are the second type of errors after misinformation, which are problematic for the subjects in writing.

The description of CSR errors indicates that the participants are not able to produce simple sentences to convey the intended meaning. They have constructed sentences neither grammatical nor meaningful. The result reflects that the third year learners do not extend their linguistic background in English well enough. As an exemplification, they write "places ley have", "he give famous", "cherched as led", "is contane in this universe", etc. In addition,

most of the subjects can not distinguish where to use, for instance, the pronouns “she”, “it”, “who”. They may choose the wrong word since a near synonym or a more specific term is better to be selected. A good case in point, some learners use the word “a pupil” rather than “a student” to talk about a learner at the university. Besides, they sometimes use the pronoun “she” to refer to the “sun” or “he” to refer to the “moon”. This finding shows that they can not transmit their message through writing which implies that they are not proficient in English. This problem may be due to neglecting the importance of vocabulary in learning an FL or they are not trained how to use strategies to cover lack of knowledge in certain situations. In all these situations, there no deviation supposed to derive from French language.

4.1.2.2 Collocational Errors

Collocational errors make up to of **45.85 %** of semantic errors and **19.58 %** of the total number of errors. In fact, collocations are said to be difficult for FL learners. The most frequent collational errors found in the compositions of the participants are related to the collocation of verb and noun, verb and pronoun, and the association of two words that can not normally be combined together or the omission of one item that should be kept company with another one. The analysis of collocational errors, indeed, demonstrates that the learners produce these errors as a result of a lack of grammatical knowledge. As an illustration, among the numerous examples of collocational errors which have been detected from the data there, “travele around the sun” rather than “turn around the sun”, “in an other hand” instead of “on the other hand”, “ the univer consist of” rather than “the universe consists of”, etc.

The distribution of all the lexical deviations is summarized in the following table.

	FM	Misformation	Distortions	CSR	Collocational	Total
Number	91	114	70	111	94	480
Percentage	18.96%	23.76%	14.58%	23.12%	19.58%	100%

Table 25: Percentages of the Different Subgroups of Lexical Deviations.

To make clear the difference between all subcategories of lexical deviations detected from the data in this study, the following diagram includes the results achieved.

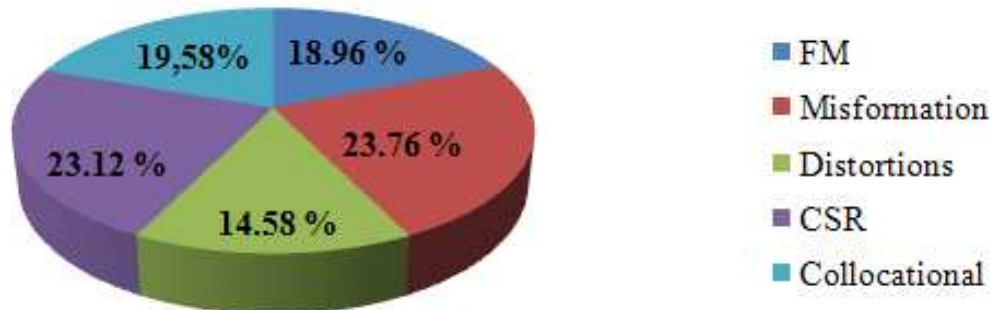


Diagram 4: Distribution of Lexical Deviations into Subgroups

4.2 Sources of the Most Frequent Errors

As noticed during the description of learners' lexical errors, misformation and CSR are the extremely recurrent errors. They represent **23.76 %** and **23.12 %** respectively of the total number of lexical deviations. The result deduced is that the participants speaking Tamazight and Arabic as L_1 / L_2 and have learned French and English as an FL_1 / FL_2 lack English vocabulary knowledge in form and meaning as well. For this reason and for the purpose of providing pedagogical implications to teachers, learners, as well as course designers, it is necessary to understand the sources of these errors to be able to suggest remedies.

Starting from the assumption that lexical transfer is one the main causes that influences the production of TL especially if TL and other languages known by the learners are typically related (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Ringbom, 2001; LLach, 2010 among others), we suggest that misformation and CSR errors may be generated from French. In other words, we predict that lexical interference from FL_1 can be a reason behind the most frequent lexical

errors identified from the learners' compositions is the i.e., cross-linguistic influence in lexis for the similarity between French and English words either in spelling or pronunciation.

According to Arabski (2006); Bouvy (2000), (as cited in Llach, 2010) language transfer is not equal in all language areas. Lexis, for instance, is considered to be more sensitive to cross-linguistic influence. Lexical transfer and especially the negative one is a matter of interest for a long time. Furthermore, lexical transfer can be either a transfer of form or a transfer of meaning (Ringbom (2001); Llach (2010). Among the various examples that illustrate the phenomenon of lexical transfer, as they have been explained by James (1998) and Llach (2010), "*lexical borrowing*" or "*code-switching*", alternation of words from previous known languages according to the rules of TL i.e., "*coinage*", as well as, the use of "*deceptive cognates*"; words which have a similar root but whose endings vary from one language to another (Wlosowicz, 2010) and "*calques*", that is to say, literal translation of other language words into TL language structure.

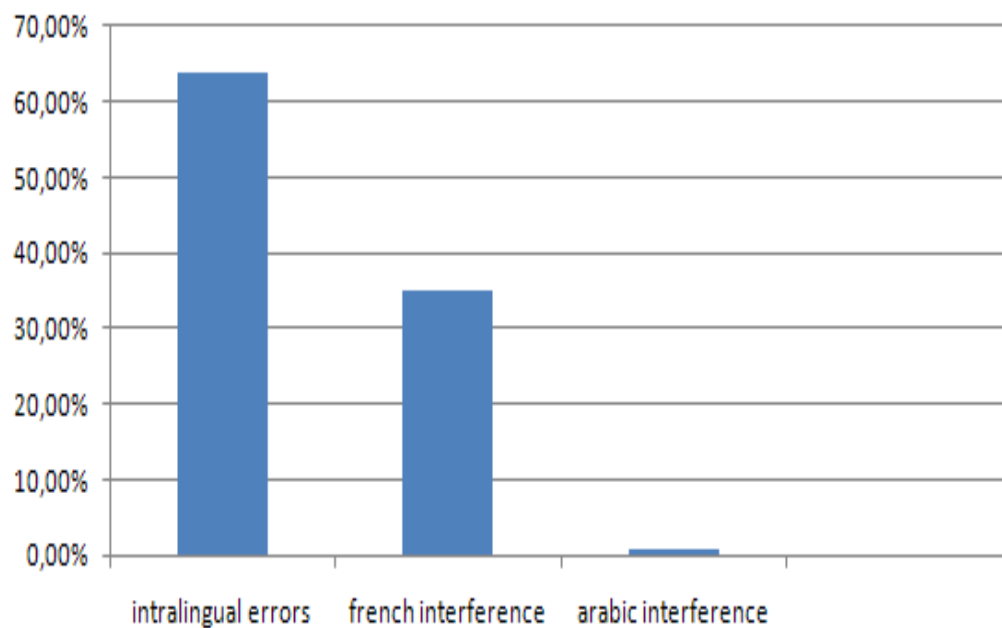
To confirm or disconfirm the first assumptions concerning the source of the most frequent lexical deviations i.e., French lexical interference, it is necessary to carry out an in-depth analysis of misformation and CSR errors. Therefore, we have classified the two lexical error types into interlingual and intralingual errors. As it has been explained in chapter 1, intralingual errors are those errors resulted from incomplete knowledge of TL which can be done by different learners with different linguistic background and even by the native speakers of the language. However, interlingual errors are generated from the influence of the learners' prior knowledge of other languages.

The classification of misformation and CSR errors into interlingual and intralingual errors points out that there is a lexical interference from the learners' background knowledge on the other languages. As far as misformation errors are concerned, we have found **41** cases

of lexical interference out of **114** misformation deviations. They represent **35.96 %** of the misformation errors. The lexical transfer errors identified are all derived from French language for example, “théorie”, “meteo” and “système” except one case which is a word borrowed from Arabic language; “فصول”. Thus, French lexical interference makes up a percentage of **35.08 %** of all misformation errors as presented in the following table and histogram:

	Intralingual Errors	Arabic Interference	French Interference	Total
Number	73	01	40	114
percentage	64.04 %	0.88 %	35.08 %	100 %

Table 26: Categories of Misformation Errors and Their Frequencies



Graph 1: Categories of Misformation Errors

This analysis reveals that when the Algerian learners have insufficient knowledge of English vocabulary they borrow words from French language instead of the intended words to

overcome this gap of knowledge. For example, some participants in the study used the French words “meteo”, “système”, “petit”, etc. In addition, sometimes they used French words and modified them to be compatible with the English structures such as the word “cherched” that was use to mean “searched”. In this case, they have used the French verb “chercher” and formed it as regular English verb in the past by adding the morpheme “ed”. Moreover, the participants in this study committed misinformation errors because of the deceptive cognates like (centre/center), (theorie/theory). The other category of lexical transfer detected from the data is calques. In other words, some learners translate the sound /en/ like in the French words “main”, “fain” when writing the same sound in the English word “friend”, so, they wrote “frainds”.

According to what we noticed, it seems that the Algerian learners of English used different types of lexical transfer when they have insufficient lexical information of English or when they are confused because of the formal similarity between French and English words. In addition, most of the cases of French transfer are content words. They can be full transfer; entire French words such as “espace”, “sûr” or partial transfer i.e., the transfer of some French lexical features such as the letter “ç” in “beçause”. Thus, the deep analysis of the misinformation errors shows that they are generated from two sources. They are intralingual or interlingual errors resulted from cross-linguistic influence.

As regards CSR errors, they need to be analyzed in order to understand their origin because they are problematic for the participants of the sample in completing their compositions. CSR errors represent **23.12 %** of the total number of the lexical deviations. They are, in turn, classified into intralingual and interlingual errors. Once the classification done, **17** cases of errors are found to be interlingual. In these cases the learners tried to recall some information they have in their L₂ or L₁ concerning the topic of the composition and then reformulate them by using their existing knowledge of English vocabulary. In other words,

they transferred meaning from Arabic or Tamazight into English by using its lexical features. As a result, they occasionally committed CSR errors which may be due to their proficiency in the L_2 / L_1 or because of the dissimilarity of word combination and sentence structure in Arabic and English.

All the interlingual errors of this type of lexical deviations believed to originate from Arabic or Tamazight not from their FL_1 because learners have acquired the two languages since infancy so, they surely have enough knowledge rather than in French. Moreover, transfer of French meaning can not be clearly distinguished for the similarity between French and English lexical structure. As an illustration, the following examples show the Arabic transfer of meaning:

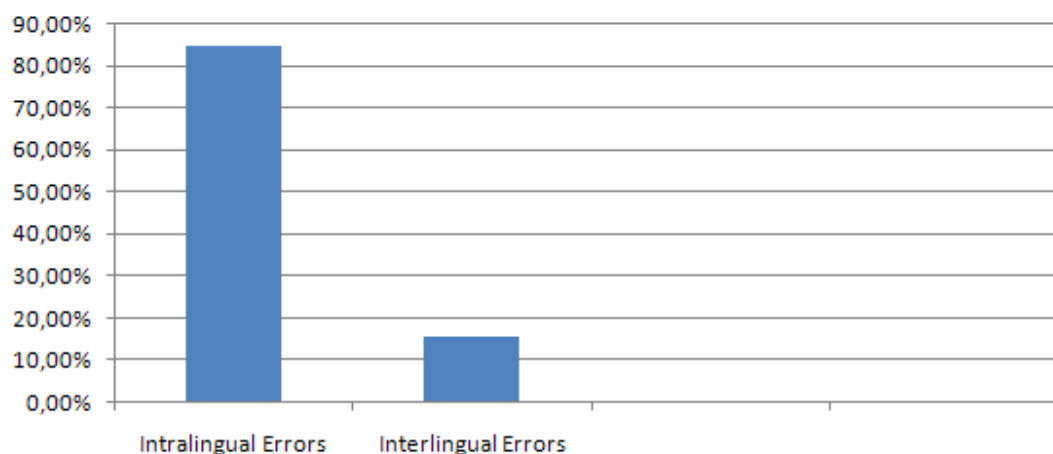
- In university (في الجامعة)
- Was pass his exam (من اجتاز اختباراه)
- Do not read the school (لا يقرؤون في المدرسة) (colloquial Arabic)
- All that's we lived today (كل ما نعيشه اليوم)

The results obtained after the analysis of CSR errors are summarized in the following table.

Then, the percentages of the subtypes are interpreted in the next histogram.

	Intalingual Errors	Interlingual Errors	Total
Number	94	17	111
Percentage	84.68%	15.32 %	100 %

Table 27: Confusion of Sense Relations Errors



Graph 2: Confusion of Sense Relations Errors

As far as the current study is concerned, the analysis of lexical deviations reveals that there are two types of errors frequently made by the learners: misinformation and CSR errors. The former is characterized by French interference. However, an Arabic or Tamazight interference have also been noticed in the latter type. The two types of errors contain intralingual errors resulting from incomplete knowledge of English vocabulary. The analysis implies that the participants transferred FL₁ lexical forms to fill in the gap that exists in the form of English vocabulary and transfer meaning from L₁ or L₂, but expresses it in English lexis.

4.3 Pedagogical Implications

As regards the findings of the study reported previously on lexical error production by Algerian secondary school learners, misinformation and CSR errors are the most frequent errors. These errors tend to originate in the interference from their FL₁, L₁ or L₂. That is to say, lack of English lexical knowledge, the disagreement in English between spelling and pronunciation together with the similarity of English and French word forms and differences in the syllable patterning of French, Arabic, Tamazight and English are potential sources of these types of lexical errors.

Starting from the assumption that lexical errors are one of the criteria for assessing writing, it is reasonable to provide some recommendations to be taken into account in teaching and learning situations. These suggestions are not planned to be used only at secondary levels, but at all levels of teaching and learning English as an FL in the Algerian context since the results obtained are the consequence of learning English for seven years of instruction. The major implications which are seen to be significant are as follows:

- Both teachers and learners should not neglect vocabulary in favor of grammar, for instance, while learning or teaching English. Also, curriculum designers have to increase vocabulary lessons and activities in textbooks.
- Vocabulary should be taught explicitly especially when a new item is needed or encountered.
- Teachers have to discuss with their students the word-family when introducing unfamiliar words, raise students' awareness of multi-word meaning, figurative expressions, words that may affect the spelling or the meaning of the new word for their likeliness in pronunciation or orthographic systems or if it is possible to give a comparison with its French equivalent if they are similar in form and meaning to facilitate retention and to avoid confusion if they are different i.e., false friends.
- French teachers, in turn, can help learners of English to improve their English lexical knowledge by paying their attention to certain French lexical features that exist in French such as the diacritic symbol over "e"; "é", "è" or "ê", the morpheme "que" particularly at the end of adjectives, the sign "ç".
- Reading has been extensively regarded as a primary source of learning vocabulary. Thus, English teachers should encourage their students to read outside classrooms and use dictionaries.

- The students have to be asked to implement some tasks to improve their vocabulary knowledge such as reading a story, summarize it or write their own and read it to their classmates. This activity provide a powerful opportunity to learn new words, correct and extend language in both spoken and written forms by sharing conference with their teachers. In addition, teachers may reward the students' works by creating, for instance, a school magazine to publish the best works or displaying them on a wall.
- Vocabulary should fit the four learning strands; meaning-focused input/output, language-focused instruction and fluency development in all lessons for their significant role in learning and retaining new vocabulary.
- Teachers should use various techniques and materials to teach vocabulary, for example, pictures, sounds, role play, dictation, translation, ask students to break up words into syllables to aid their retention of new words. They should, also, train them to use learning strategies such as compensation, paraphrase, synonyms to overcome lack of vocabulary in writing.
- Learners have to adopt some strategies that help them to store new vocabularies with their forms and meanings in their mental lexicon and to be able to recall them correctly such as taking notes, repetition, games, songs, guessing meaning from context, making a list of French and English words that may create confusion for them and try to sort out the similarities and differences.
- Receptive vocabulary items have to be turned into productive ones. That is to say, lexical information learned when listening or reading English should be used in writing or speaking it for better learning.
- Authentic materials have to be used in teaching vocabulary, so the students can store large chunks of vocabulary which they can employ in their writings without reference to prior linguistic knowledge of other languages.

- Teachers should give enough time to written tasks, supply the student with guidelines about how to construct a composition because the more students are guided to write, the better they write. And encourage them to think in English while writing to avoid CSR errors. They should, also, pay attention to lexical errors and provide them with immediate feedback because it is necessary for the students to be aware of their errors and notice the correct spelling.
- Teachers can plan for EA in their classes to understand where the main problems lie, and what should be placed more emphasis on in teaching.

4.4 Suggestions for Further Studies

Data of the present research points the fact that Algerian secondary school learners do interfere French lexical features in their writings which result misformation errors. CSR errors can be traced back to Arabic or Tamazight. It also provides some suggestions for further researches such as:

- Undertaking a study with large samples, different lexical error taxonomies and in different contexts, for instance, at the university where we lack exhaustive investigations about lexical errors.
- Exploring specific subcategories of lexical errors such as lexical formal misselection and collocations.
- Other studies have to tackle Algerian learners' errors in different areas; grammar, syntax, phonology. As such concrete conclusions may be drawn from the results of the analyses concerning how to design textbooks for Algerian learners and how an FL can be more effectively learned and taught or how existing methods of teaching and learning can be improved as regards learners' background knowledge.
- Planning for contrastive studies between English/French, English/Arabic and English/Tamazight to illustrate the possible interference from these languages in English

to help teachers to see clearly some of the problems that students may encounter and to find out those correlated features between languages, which facilitate rather than hinder learning i.e., positive transfer.

Conclusion

This chapter has addressed the investigation of the sources of the most recurrent errors committed by the learners. The analysis of the data reveals that the participants of the sample made the two types of lexical errors: formal and semantic errors. In addition, counting errors of each subgroup demonstrates that misinformation and CSR errors occurred very often in the students' compositions.

Moreover, an in-depth analysis of these kinds of errors has identified that they can be interlingual or intralingual errors. Concerning interlingual errors, the results implies that learners interfere entire French words; full transfer or interfere only some French lexical features; partial transfer. Besides, they may transfer Arabic or Tamazight meaning when expressing their thoughts in English. That is to say, the students apply transfer of form from French and transfer of meaning from Arabic or Tamazight. Furthermore, the findings of the study indicate that misinformation and CSR interlingual errors have been done as a result of insufficient knowledge of English vocabulary.

General Conclusion

As a conclusion, the study is designed to identify the likely causes of lexical errors in writing English as an FL₂ in the Algerian context. The major goal of undertaking such a research is that learning a target vocabulary and mastering writing skill is a disputing task for FL learners. These assignments require communicate competence i.e., the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately. That is, FL learners should be communicative when implementing compositions. As a matter of fact, lexical errors are important assessment criteria and signs of proficiency since they are more serious than the other types of errors. Lexical errors destroy the communicative competence needed. Accordingly, providing remedies to these errors improve learners' writing quality, thus, enhance their proficiency of the TL.

Carrying out this research has been set up from the standpoint that lexical errors made by Algerian learners in writing are derived from the influence of FL₁. As discussed in the first chapter, language transfer is a natural phenomenon in the process of learning an additional language. And as it can originate in learners' MT, language transfer may also occur from other languages already learned. Besides, there are few studies concentrating on this issue in favor of L₁ influence.

Studying learners' IL through scrutinizing their errors provide insights into the process of learning and the main problems that they may face. Consequently, solutions and remedies can be offered to make learning easier. Therefore, lexical EA is conducted in this study rather than CA to investigate cross-linguistic influence in lexis by understanding learners' errors.

Regarding the practical part of this research, it is concerned with collecting samples of learner language; students' compositions, describing and analyzing them. To explore errors occurred in the data; James (1998) error taxonomy is followed with a slight modification related to subtypes of errors included. This taxonomy is developed from two perspectives;

formal and semantic errors. Formal errors incorporate FM, misinformation and distortions. While semantic errors, encompass CSR and collocations.

The analysis of the students' compositions demonstrate that misinformation errors represent the overwhelming majority of lexical errors committed by the students and that CSR is the second frequent type of errors done. To perceive the possible sources of these errors, they are classified into intralingual and interlingual errors. The findings obtained from the in-depth analysis indicate that background linguistic knowledge of FL₁, L₁ and L₂ has been found to interfere in English writing. That is to say, when the learners are confused with the similarity between French and English words or have insufficient information of English vocabulary, they borrow the equivalent French word or transfer only some features. However, when they want to produce an utterance, for instance, they translate Arabic or Tamazight meaning into English with its vocabulary, which is illustrated in the mismatching or misusing of words to express the intended meaning. Accordingly, the conclusion that might be deduced in this case is that Algerian learners of English interfere French when they lack the form of words for their closeness and transfer meaning from languages that they are more proficient in: Arabic and Tamazight.

Based on the findings of the study, vocabulary should be explicitly taught to students and explained if possible relying on the differences with other languages. A variety of material and techniques have to be used to help learners learn, store and retrieve target vocabulary. Besides, learners ought to be trained in strategies to facilitate learning and overpass their lack of knowledge. Learners need to be provided with instructions that guide them in writing. Finally, further contrastive studies can find some correlated features between languages that may help teaching and learning English in Algeria.

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Appendix 1: Teachers' Pre-questionnaire

Q1 : How do your learners retrieve new English words ?

☐ Quickly ☐ Slowly ☐ Very slowly

Q2: Are your students eager to learn new vocabularies ?

☐ Very much ☐ Somehow ☐ Not at all

Q3: How can you evaluate the quality of your learners' written production?

☐ Good ☐ Well ☐ Bad ☐ Very bad

Q4: what are the most common errors your learners do in writing?

☐ Grammatical ☐ Syntactical ☐ Semantic ☐ Lexical

Q5: Do your students employ new learned vocabularies in writing?

☐ All of the time ☐ Sometimes ☐ Never

Thank you very much for your help

Appendix 2: Students' Compositions and Lexical Deviations Committed

Composition N° 1:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Galaxiz	misformation	Galaxies
Ol	Misformation +distortions	All
Rol	Distortions	Role
Exemple	Misformation	Example
He give	FM	He gives
فصول	Misformation	Seasons
Neith	Misformation+ distortions	Night
Cominic	Misformation	Communicate
Hove	misformation	have
Thes	misformation	this
Satilit	misformation	Satellite
Tilivision	misformation	Television
Internt	Distortions	Internet
Vree	Misformation	Very
Importance	FM	important
Having	FM	to have

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Ol this she rol	CSR	All of them have a role in
On life	Collocational	In life
He give famous	CSR	It is interesting
Neith and morning	CSR	Night and day
Hove thes can people	CSR	According to astronomy
Cominic		people can communicate
		From place to another
Place in place	CSR	
Sun she is	Collocational	The sun is
The cause	CSR	The reason
For live	CSR	To live
Live in good	CSR	Live better
His vree importance of	CSR	It is very important to

Composition N° 2:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Thise	Misformation	These
He repeate	FM+ distortions	He repeats
The person's who	FM	The person
Same	FM	Some
Frainds	Misformation	Friends
Person's	FM	Persons
Thurdly	Misformation	Thirdly
Bleive	Distortions+ misformation	Believe
Finally	Distortions	Finally
Shange	Misformation	Change

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The third years student	Collocational	The third year student
People	CSR	Students
This years	Collocational	This year
The person's	CSR	The student
Was pass his exam	CSR	succeeded in his exam
Must respect	CSR	Should respect
Pupils	CSR	Students
Pass	CSR	succeed
His	Collocational	their
Musn't forget	CSR	should not forget
Must select	CSR	should select
A good frainds	Collocational	good friends
In university	CSR	at university
Person's	CSR	students
Criminal person's	CSR	bad students
Must not believe	CSR	should not believe
Not blieve	CSR	not think
A contrast	Collocational	in contrast
Must learn	CSR	should learn
You must learn more than Secondary schools	CSR	you should continue your studies beyond the secondary level

Composition N° 3:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Science	Distortions	Science
Ho	misformation	Who
Stady	Misformation+ FM	Studies
Nowaday	Distortions	Nowadays
Verry	Distortions	very
It give	FM	It gives
Informations	Distortions	Information
Wather	Distortions	Weather
Supose	Distortions	suppose
Obout	Misformation	about
It give	Distortions	it gives
Climat	FM	climate
Hote	Distortions	hot
Your's	FM	yours
Wel	Distortions	well
Having	FM	have
Fentastique	Misformation	fantastic
Ani	Misformation	any
Verry	Distortions	very
Welle	Distortions	well
I advice	FM	i advise
Obout	Misformation	about

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The sience ho	Collocational	The science which
Solar system	Collocational	The solar system
You would know the information	CSR	You want to know the information
Obout this one	CSR	About it
Information of	Collocational	Information about
Hote place	Collocational	A hot place
The place corresponded	CSR	The other place
You must know	CSR	You should know
That last	CSR	The latter
One different from the other	CSR	Each one is different from the other
Earth the best one	Collocational	The earth is the best one
Many information	Collocational	A lot of information

Composition N° 4:**1)- Formal Errors of Lexis**

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Indispensible	Misformation	Indispensable
Bigest	Distortions+ FM	Bigness
Explan	Distortions	Explain
What	FM	That
Spécification	Misformation	Specification
Show	FM	Shows
One of the very big	FM	One of the vey biggest
Who make	FM	Which makes
Sûr	Misformation	Sure
Theorie	Misformation	Theory
Watching	FM	Watch
Preseve	Distortions+ FM	Preserves
Meteo	Misformation	Weather forecast
Meteo	misformation	Weather forecast

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Biggest	CSR	Largeness
His	CSR	Its
Can explan before	CSR	Have explained in the past
Sun	Collocational	The sun
We turn around sun	CSR	The earth turns around the sun
Sun	Collocational	The sun
Big reaction	Collocational	Strong reaction
Who	CSR	Which
In to	CSR	Into
It is a famous science	CSR	It is an interesting science
By meteo	Collocational	Through the weather forecast

Composition N° 5:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
May friends	FM	My friends
It is obligation	FM	It is obligatory
Defecat	Misformation	Difficult
Bocasse	Misformation	Because
Give	FM	Given
Ths	Distortions	This
Sance	Misformation	Science
Cultur	Distortions	Culture
Généralise	Misformation	Generalize
The word	Distortions	The world
It's Nessirtye	Misformation	It is necessary
To oformation	Misformation	To have information
Beçause	misformation	because

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
It is obligation to give importance to	CSR	It is necessary to give importance to
Bocasse the time defecat	CSR	Because it is difficult nowadays
Do not care give	CSR	There no care given to
To oformation in astronomy	Collocational	To have information about astronomy
In other example	CSR	In other words

Composition N° 6:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
As	FM	Us
Wich	distortions	Which
Rols	distortions	Roles
Play	FM	Plays
It's	FM	It
Generally	FM	general

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Important to many	Collocational	Important for many
Many domain	Collocational	Many domains
Should have a knowledge	Collocational	Should have knowledge
All that's we lived today	CSR	All what we have today
From the astronomy	Collocational	From astronomy
You don't ask any day	CSR	You have never asked
All this	Collocational	All of these
Where we give all this	CSR	From where all of these are sent
All this	Collocational	All of these
We give it from astronomy	CSR	We have gained them from astronomy
So for this	CSR	For these reasons
It's contribution for	Collocational	Its contribution to

Composition N° 7:**1)- Formal Errors of Lexis**

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Of the leave	FM	Of leaving
Sourtou	Misformation	Especially
Petit	Misformation	early
Rite	Misformation	write
Travel	misformation	work
The persen	Misformation	the person
Fiyne	Misformation	fine
Persen	Misformation	person
Persen	Misformation	person
Master	FM	magister

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The school the give more problem	CSR	The problem we have in school
It is false	CSR	It is not right
Do not read the school	CSR	Do not go to school
The people stop	CSR	The students who stop
In year petit	CSR	At an early age
Give travel of the people	CSR	Give work to the people
More problem	Collocational	Many problems
First name	Collocational	The first name
More the good life	CSR	In better life

Composition N° 8:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Contain	FM	Contains
Astroids	Distortions	Asteroids
Centre	Misformation	Center
Different	FM	Difference
exemple	misformation	example
Distance	Misformation	Distance
Thinks	FM	Thanks
Caracteres	misformation	Characteristics
Exemple	Misformation	Example
Discever	Misformation	Discover

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Sun	Collocational	The sun
Turned about	Collocational	Turn around
Him	CSR	It
Every planet have	Collocational	Every planet has
The distance to the sun	Collocational	The distance from the sun
They are all the same system	CSR	They have all the same system
Thinks for	Collocational	Thanks to
The scientist invent	Collocational	The scientists invent
We like discever	Collocational	We like to discover
him	CSR	it

Composition N° 9:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Espace	Misformation	Space
Give	FM	Gives
Anformation	Misformation	Information
Outre	Misformation	Other
Planet	FM	Planets
Give	FM	Gives
The solostion	Misformation	The solution
Probleme	Distortions	Problem
Espace	Misformation	Space
Earthe	Distortions	Earth
Teme	Misformation	Time
Exisete	Distortions	Exist
Outr	Misformation	Other
Astronome	Misformation	Astronomy
Developents	Misformation	Developement
Cherched	misformation	Researchers

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The astronomy	Collocational	Astronomy
The anformation for	Collocational	Information about
Earthe	Collocational	The earth
Men	CSR	Man
In this time	CSR	In the present time
Cherched as led the life	CSR	Researchers have found that
Exisete		life exists

Composition N° 10:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Larg	Distortions	Large
Contayne	Misformation	Contain
Contane	Misformation	Contain
The univers	distortions	The universe
Espac	Misformation	Space
Prevere	Misformation	Prefer
The univers	Distortions	The universe
Importent	misformation	important
Mithod	misformation	method

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Very larg space	Collocational	A very large space
They	CSR	It
Is contane in this universe	CSR	Is a part of the universe
Very extraordinary espac	Collocational	A very extraordinary space
Many of student	CSR	Many students
Prevere learn	Collocational	Prefer to learn
Is one of mithod	Collocational	Is one of the method

Composition N° 11:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Different	FM	Difference
Système	Misformation	System
Education	FM	Educational
Betwn	Distortions	Between
Algerian	FM	Algeria
Britan	Distortions	Britain
Systeme	Distortions	System
In algerien	Misformation + FM	Algeria
Bat	Misformation	Bad
Lovelay	Misformation	Lovely
Premany	Misformation	Primary
Medal	Misformation	Middle
Finially	Distortions	Finally
Iniversites	Misformation	Universities
Midal	Misformation	Middle
Same	FM	Some
Bat	Misformation	Bad
Leiter	Misformation	Later
Same	FM	Some
Classess	Distortions	Classes
Algerien	Misformation + FM	Algeria
Shey	Misformation	They
Peiture	Misformation	A paint
Enest	Misformation	Honest
Britan	Distortion	Britain
Teacher	FM	Teachers
Betin	Misformation	Between
The good	FM	The best
Iniversity	Misformation	University
Ley	Misformation	They
Same	FM	Some
Different	FM	A difference
Système	Misformation	System
Education	FM	Educational

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Large different	CSR + Collocational	A big difference
Système education	Collocational	The educational system
In	CSR	Between
Betwn	CSR	Of
She	CSR	The
Systeme education	Collocational	The educational system
The lovelay school is long	CSR	The period of schooling is long
Lovely of teacher	CSL	Lovely teachers
Have a bat information	Collocational + CSR	Have not enough information
There are	CSR	They are
There are leiter 35 and 55 years	CSR	They are between 35 and 55 years
In order go	Collocational	In order to go
Go do	Collocational	Go to do
Same thank	Collocational	Something
The classess	CSR	The classrooms
Many the system education	Collocational	The educational system
Lovely of school	CSR	A lovely school
An very formed	CSR	Are well formed
The good of the is	CSR	The best thing is
Go at iniversity	Collocational	Go to the university
Very long	CSR	Very large
Places ley have	Collocational	They have places
The système education	Collocational	The educational system

Composition N° 12:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Are	FM	is
Have	FM	Has
This	FM	These
Everthing	Distortions	Everything
Turn	FM	Turns
Take	FM	Takes
Planet	FM	Planets
Scientist	FM	Scientists
Reseaches	Distortions	Researches
Sill	distortions	Still

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
A big world	CSR	A large world
Every planet have	Collocational	Every planet has
His	CSR	Its
A lot	Collocational	A lot of moons
All this bodies	Collocational	All these bodies
Travel around	CSR	Turn around
The center of universe	Collocational	The center of the universe
Everthing turn	Collcational	Everything turns
Other planet	Collocational	Other planets
Our solar system	Collocational	The solar system
Everyone	CSR	Each one
Everyone has a speed and the same all time	CSR	Each one has its regular speed
Many scientist	Collocational	Many scientists
The is	CSR	There is

Composition N° 13:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Aske	Distortions	Ask
The univers	Distortions	The universe
Thing	FM	Things
them	FM	Me
My	FM	Me
Consist	FM	Consists
Gravit	Misformation	Gravitation
My	FM	Me
He	FM	It
Foromed	Distortions	Formed
Smaller	FM	Small
Object	FM	Objects
The astriod	Distortions	The asteroid
My	FM	Me
Comprising	FM	Comprises

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
I aske by some people	CSR	I ask some people
Thing and objects	Collocational	Things and objects
The solar system consist	Collocational	The solar system consists
A giant molecular	Collocational	A molecular giant
He is object are	CSR + Collocational	These objects are

Composition N° 14:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Is	FM	Are
Mats	Distortions	Mates
Scheuld	Misformation	Should
Outhers	Distortions	Other
Confidence	FM	Confident
Sleeve	Misformation	Self
Banic	misformation	Panic
Beging	distortions	Beginning
Efferts	misformation	Efforts
Forgat	misformation	Forget
Affirs	misformation	School things
Chose	distortions	Choose
Wants	FM	want
Gat	Misformation	Get
gat	misformation	Get

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
All of students	CSR	All the students
The outhers exam	CSR	The other exams
Be confidence	Collocational	Be confident
You seleve	Collocational	Yourself
In the beging	Collocational	At the beginning
A more efforts	Collocational	More efforts
You wants	Collocational	Want

Composition N° 15:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The univer	Distortions	The universe
Consist	FM	Consists
It's	FM	It
Withe	Distortions	With
Satelat	Misformation	Satellite
Mor	Distortions	More
Biger	FM+ distortions	Biggest
Use	FM	Uses
Men	FM	Man
Ho	misformation	Who
Helpe	Distortions	Help
Discover	Misformation	Discover
Hwman	misformation	Human
The univer	Distortions	The universe
Mast	Misformation	Must
Think	FM	Thank
Hem	Misformation	Him
Ather	misformation	Other

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The univer consist	Collocational	The universe consists
It's self	Collocational	Itself
Earth	Collocational	The earth
The skies	CSR	The sky
The men	CSR	The scientist
Mast	CSR	Should
It mast to think hem	Collocational	We should thank him

Composition N° 16:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Travele	Distortions	Travel
Countains	Distortions	Contains
Smaller	FM	Small
Study	FM	Studies
Use	FM	Uses
Devellopment	Distortions	Development
Teory	Distortions	Theory
instering	Distortions	Interesting
Teory	Distortions	Theory
This	FM	The
Fabelous	Misformation	Fabulous
discover	misformation	Discover

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Earth	Collocational	The earth
In universe	Collocational	In the universe
In our solar system	CSR	In the solar system
In space	Collocational	In the space
The science which study	Collocational	The science which studies
During the time	CSR	Through the time
The person to use	CSR	The person who uses
The skies	CSR	The sky
Very interstingteory	Collocational	A very interesting.... theory
There is still a lot of things to discover	CSR	There are a lot of things still to be discovered

Composition N° 17:**1)- Formal Errors of Lexis**

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Deos	Distortions	Does
Deos	FM	Do
Reband	Misformation	Respond
Eny	Misformation	Any
Stedent	Misformation	Student
Give	FM	Gives
Intelegant	Misformation	Intelligent
Puple	distortions	Pupil
Do not	FM	Does not
Pupel	Misformation	Pupil
Futur	Distortions	Future
Pupel	Misformation	Pupil
Deos	Misformation	Does
Reade	Distortions	Read

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Know read	Collocational	Know to read
Reband	CSR	Answer
Very intelegant than	Collocational	More intelligent than
Puple	CSL	Student
Many pupel	Collocational. + CSR	Many students
Think of	Collocational	Think about
Pupel	CSR	People
Know write	Collocational	Know to write

Composition N° 18:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
The univers	Distortions	The universe
Larger	FM	Large
Make	FM	Makes
Use	FM	Uses

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
He	CSR	It
Composed to	Collocational	Composed of
Sun	Collocational	The sun
This last	CSR	The latter
He	CSR	It
Solar system	Collocational	The solar system
Who	CSR	Which
Around to the sun	Collocational	Turn around the sun
Is as to many	CSR	Like others
The skies	CSR	The sky

Composition N° 19:

1)- Formal Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Sollution	Distortions	Solution
Help	FM	Helps
Fighting	FM	To fight
Peapls	Misformation	People
Pouch	Misformation + FM	Pushes
Develop	Distortions	Develop
Knowledgs	Misformation	Knowledge
Bettween	Distortions	Between
Confidence	FM	confident

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
One of the main solution	Collocational	One of the main solutions
Education.....that help	Collocational	Education.....that helps
That help for fighting	Collocational	That helps to fight
Can provides	Collocational	Can provide
Educational peapls	CSR	Educated people
Pupils	CSR	People
By education	Collocational	With education
We can feel more confidence in ourselves	CSR	We feel more self-confident
A shape for our future life	CSR	A plan for our future life
A chances	Collocational	Chances
Developing societies	CSR	The development of societies

Composition N° 20:**1)- Formal Errors of Lexis**

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
Not	FM	No
Don't	FM	Does not
Phenomena	FM	Phenomenon
Faught	Misformation	Fought
Guaranting	Distortions	Guaranteeing
Peacefull	Distortions	Peaceful
An other	Misformation	Another
Theirselves	misformation	Themselves

2)- Semantic Errors of Lexis

Lexical Deviation	Type	Correction
In an other hand	Collocational	On the other hand
They are responsibility of their teachers	CSR	They are under the responsibility of their teachers

French Summary

Cette étude vise à identifier certaines causes potentielles des erreurs que commettent les élèves dans leurs productions écrites en deuxième langue étrangère à savoir l'anglais en supposant qu'elles proviennent de l'influence de la première langue étrangère qui est le français . Cette recherche se divise en deux parties principales : théorique et pratique. Pour vérifier le bien fondé ou non de cette hypothèse, une analyse a été faite sur des échantillons de productions écrites par des élèves de troisième année du lycée Slimane Amirat de Sétif. Les erreurs identifiées ont été classées selon la Taxonomie de James (1998), ce qui a révélé que les élèves, lorsqu'ils écrivent, font des empreintes de mots entiers, ou partiellement lorsqu'ils oublient, manquent de mot recherché en Anglais ou quand ils confondent ce dernier avec un autre de la langue française car les deux mots présentent certaines ressemblances. L'analyse a montré aussi que les apprenants se trompent dans le choix du lexique adéquat étant donné qu'ils traduisent littéralement de l'Arabe ou de Tamazight le sens qu'ils envisagent en Anglais. Ces résultats ont permis d'avancer quelques recommandations, voire même l'ouverture de certaines pistes de recherches qui pourraient apporter une aide aux élèves afin qu'ils puissent dépasser leurs difficultés et ainsi réduire le nombre des erreurs qu'ils commettent dans leurs productions écrites.

Arabic Summary

تتطرق هذه الدراسة إلى البحث عن بعض الأسباب الخفية التي يمكن أن تؤثر على تلاميذ اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية ثانية في الجزائر و التي يمكن أن ينجم عنها أخطاء لغوية. يتناول البحث في جزئيه الأول و الثاني بعض الجوانب النظرية المتعلقة بهذا المجال. أما الجزء الآخر يهتم بدراسة تلك الأخطاء اللغوية التي تم الكشف عنها في عينات من التعبير الكتابي لبعض تلاميذ الأقسام النهائية من مختلف الشعب لثانوية سليمان عميرات – سطيف – الأخطاء الأكثر شيوعا في العينات المدروسة تتمثل في استعمال بعض مفردات اللغة الفرنسية أو أجزاء منها عند نسيان أو افتقار التلاميذ للكلمات الصحيحة أو لتشابهها شكلا مع مرادفتها في اللغة الانجليزية. إضافة إلى هذا فقد تبين أن معظم التلاميذ يفشلون أحيانا في اختيار الكلمات المناسبة للتعبير عن المعنى المراد و ذلك نتيجة ترجمة أفكارهم من اللغة العربية أو الامازيغية . انطلاقا من ما توصلت إليه هذه الدراسة تم اقتراح بعض التوجيهات التي من شأنها المساعدة في تقليص هذه الأخطاء.

