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**Department of English**



**An Error Analysis of Noun Phrases in Essay Writing**  
**Case Study: Third Year LMD Students of English at the University of**  
**Mohamed Saddik Ben Yahia - Jijel**

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Master in didactics of Foreign Languages

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## **Declaration**

We hereby declare that the dissertation entitled “An Error Analysis of Noun Phrases in Essay Writing” is our own work and all the sources we have used have been acknowledged by means of references. We also certify that we have not copied or plagiarized the work of other learners or researchers partially or fully. In case any material is not documented, we shall be responsible for the consequences.

Signature

## **Dedication**

To my thoughtful father and sympathetic mother whose love and prayers always strengthened my will.

To my lovely sister Riham.

To my supporting brother Hani and to my best friend Ibtissem whose belief in me is always present.

To all the members of my family BOUTOUR.

To my life partner; K.H for his unweaving support, sincere love and enthusiastic encouragement.

To all my coworkers at Fly High School.

To my High Example: Mr. **Aissam ABDELLOUCHE** whom I heartily wish to make him deeply proud of me.

To all my teachers at Tassoust University.

May Allah bless you all.

Hayeme BOUTOUR

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this work to my parents who have provided me with their encouragement, love and understanding.

To my brothers Zinou and Hamza.

To my sisters Meriem and Linda for their whole-hearted support.

To all my cousins and family

To my partner in crime Hayeme.

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Thank you for your help and encouragement to all those who have been supportive, caring and patient, I dedicate this simple work.

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## **Abstract**

Noun phrases are one of the keystones of academic writing. Research studies have widely identified the need for analyzing noun phrase errors in improving the students' quality of writing. The present study sought to identify, describe and analyze noun phrase errors in essay writing made by third year EFL students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. To fulfill this aim, an error analysis procedure, described by Corder, was conducted on a randomly chosen sample of 20 essays written in the content module exam "Linguistics". To analyze the data, the researchers adopted the descriptive approach, combining qualitative procedures of data gathering and data analysis. The results obtained showed that omission errors (64,5%) were the most common type of error made by students followed by misformation (21%), addition (12,9%) and misorder (1,6%) respectively. Noun phrase errors were also examined at the structure level. They were analyzed with reference to the premodifier, head and postmodifier. The results revealed that most of the identified errors occurred at the premodifier level.

**Keywords:** EFL Students, Error Analysis, Noun Phrase, Noun Phrase Error.

## List of Abbreviations

**AdjPs** : Adjective Phrases

**AdvPs** : Adverbial Phrases

**CA**: Contrastive Analysis

**EA**: Error Analysis

**EFL**: English as a Foreign Language

**FL**: Foreign Language

**H**: Head

**L2**: Second Language

**LMD** : License Master Doctorate

**M**: Modifier

**NP**: Noun Phrase

**NPs** : Noun Phrases

**PPs**: Prepositional Phrases

**Q**:Qualifier

**SLA**: Second Language Acquisition

**SST**: Surface Strategy Taxonomy

**TL**: Target Language

**VPs: Verb Phrases**



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## **General Introduction**

### **1. Introduction**

A good command of writing skill is progressively seen as very important to help learners for success at university. In this regard, Weigle (2002) said: “the ability to write is becoming increasingly important in our global community, and instruction in writing is thus assuming an increasing role of both second- and foreign- language education” (p. 1). Writing is the skill on which most of students’ achievements are evaluated across the English university curriculum. The essay is an important writing genre that is used to evaluate students’ achievements. One of the most crucial, yet challenging, features of successful student essay writing in academic settings is constructing an essay. Writing essays depends, first and foremost, on the writers’ ability to use adequate Noun Phrases (NPs). It is not surprising that this aspect represents one of the most problematic issues in EFL students’ essay performances. In the light of this, the current research aims at analyzing EFL students’ errors in constructing NPs.

### **2. Background of the Study**

The field of Second Language (L2) learning is broad and has been a fertile field for researchers. Error Analysis (EA) is one of the aspects of L2 learning processes that have received much attention (Makoni, 1993; Eun.Py, 2002; & Kasango, 2006). It serves as a fundamental tool for enhancing our understanding of the language learning process. It refers to the identification, classification, and description of errors. Conducting an EA of NPs has been the interest of many researchers.

Kusuma and Sulistyowati (2013) analyzed NP structure to find out the types of errors performed by Indonesian students. To this end, 97 Fifth Semester students in English education were recruited in the study. However, only 30 of the participants were randomly selected for a writing-



## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

essay test. The students' errors in using NPs in their writing-essay test were analyzed and classified into different types. The Results revealed that omission was the most-often type of errors performed by students. Likewise, Severino and Prim (2018) analyzed NP errors in SMA Nigeria 1 Pahae Jae Students' English writing. They randomly collected 32 drafts written by 32 different Nigerian students. The findings revealed that 119 errors were detected in students' writing. Most of the identified errors were classified into four types namely addition, omission, misformation and misordering.

In a recent study, Azizah (2022) explored not only the types of errors made by third semester English Department Students at the University of UIN Prof. KH. Saifuddin Zuhri Purwokerto, Indonesia. She also studied the factors behind making such errors. For this purpose, 15 students' essays were examined. The results showed that misformation was the type of error that the students often made in constructing NPs. Misformation was related to both interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

Based on the previous research studies, analyzing NP errors made by EFL students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, in their essay writing is the focus of this research. The attempt is to detect the errors in constructing NPs, classifying them into types and suggesting solutions to minimize them.

### **3. Statement of the Problem**

In academic writing, Algerian EFL students' achievements are evaluated via essay writing. During their License course of study within the Licence Master Doctorat (LMD) system, students receive instructions about English grammar for two years. Therefore, third year students of English at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel are supposed to have enough knowledge to use English NPs correctly and appropriately. However, they appear to encounter a number of

challenges as they learn how to use them. This may result in having disconnected essays that are difficult to be considered as discourse.

Based on the aforementioned facts, NPs are a group of words in a sentence that functions as a noun. Three ways of how to form NPs have been distinguished namely modifiers, pre modifiers and post modifiers. Many students still face the problem of using the pre modifier and the post modifier correctly. This may be attributed to the grammar of a language. The grammar of a language is the set of rules that govern its structure. Grammar determines how words are arranged. Hence, the research at hand generally addresses the types of errors that EFL students make in constructing NPs.

#### **4. Aim of the Study**

The research study aims essentially at analyzing Algerian third-year EFL students' errors in constructing NPs in essay writing. It specifically aims at identifying, classifying, and analyzing the types of noun phrase errors. It also intends to suggest proper recommendations for this issue, hoping to improve students' writing at an advanced level.

#### **5. Research Questions**

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of errors related to NPs are produced by Algerian third year EFL students in their essays?
2. How can these errors be classified?

#### **6. Research Methodology and Procedure**

The study adopts a descriptive research design. It aims to identify, classify, and describe EFL students' errors in constructing NPs. The target population of the study is third year EFL students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. Two means of research are selected to answer the research questions: 20 essays written in the subject of Linguistics and a designed checklist.

## 7. Significance of the Research

Language teaching specialists and researchers agree that errors made by language learners are important as they reveal the learners' level of language proficiency. It is claimed that errors are inevitable natural occurrences when learning a language. Theoretically speaking, the findings of this research are expected to bring to light the types of errors that third year students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahya, Jijel make in constructing and using NPs while writing essays. More interestingly, this study gives overt perceptions about the skill of writing. Analyzing errors is beneficial for both language teachers and students; errors represent students' strategies in learning a foreign language. Thus, through EA, teachers can detect the problems with their teaching and they can design better teaching strategies to minimize the occurrence of noun phrase errors.

## 8. Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation consists of two chapters. **Chapter One** is devoted to the theoretical part. It is divided into two sections: (1) Error Analysis and (2) Noun Phrases. The first section discusses the theory of EA, classification of errors, sources of errors, and steps of conducting an EA. The second section describes the notion and classification of phrases in general and NPs in particular. **Chapter Two** is concerned with the practical part; it details the methodology, analyzes data, and discusses the obtained results respectively.

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## **Chapter One: Error Analysis of Noun Phrases**

### **Introduction**

Writing is an intellectual activity that involves determining how to best convey ideas and thoughts and organizing them into a sentence or paragraph that is easily comprehended (Nunan, 2003). Students are expected to write different forms of texts in their academic writings such as paragraphs, essays, dissertations, etc. Bailey (2003) asserted that good academic English is one of the most challenging tasks students face during the process of writing. For him, academic writing works as an ideal reference guide for students to write independently. In writing tasks, students may encounter a set of difficulties including errors related to the use and structure of NPs. Conducting an error analysis of NPs made by EFL students is the attempt of this research.

This chapter is divided into two sections: (1) Error Analysis and (2) Noun Phrases. **Section One** starts by outlining the historical background of EA. Added to this, it sheds light on the distinction between errors and mistakes. It also discusses the types, theories and sources of EA. Moreover, it provides an explanation of the steps undertaken in conducting an EA and a discussion of its role. **Section Two** generally deals with the notion of phrases, their types and structures. It specifically describes NPs which are the focus of this research.

### **Section One: Error Analysis**

Error is a natural part of language learning. In the process of learning a foreign language, students are expected to make different types of errors. Errors can be phonological, grammatical or semantic. Teachers should realize that the errors made by students need to be examined by conducting EA.

#### **1.1. Historical Background of Error Analysis**

Following World War I, the United States witnessed a remarkable interest in language learning leading to extensive studies in the field of applied linguistics. Contrastive analysis (CA), one

## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

of the most influential theories in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), was developed in the late 1950s by the American linguist Charles Fries. According to CA, errors occur due to interference when the learners transfer native language habits into the L2. In other words, when the Target Language (TL) and the mother tongue are different, a negative transfer happens. In this regard, Nunan (2001) said: “where the first and the second language rules are not the same, errors are likely to occur as a result of interference between the two languages” (p.89). To generate predictions and subsequent explanations of the errors, applied linguistics focuses on comparing the native language and the TL.

CA is an investigative approach that involves a comparison of the systems of two or more languages in terms of grammar, structure, etc, to identify the similarities and differences between them. The attempt is to predict what difficulties learners encounter during the language learning process. Fisiak (1981) defined CA as “a sub-discipline of linguistics concerned with the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of language in order to determine both differences and similarities between them”(p.1).

CA has two versions: the strong version and the weak version. The former, supported by Fries and other linguists such as Lado (1957), claims that the difficulties of a learner can be predicted by a systematic contrastive analysis and teaching material can then be adapted to meet those difficulties. In contrast, the weak version intends to determine which errors are caused by first language interference, and to explain the errors after they have occurred.

Regardless of its popularity, CA has received heavy criticism for its over-predictions and under-predictions. That is, not all the predicted errors are found in students' language and not all the errors found in students' language are predicted. In support of this claim, Mackey (1965) stated that different learners of the same native language make different mistakes. In other words, many errors have no equivalent in the native language. These shortcomings made CA less credible and eventually paved the road for an alternative approach, known as EA, to emerge.



### 1.2. Error Analysis

The field of EA was established in the 1970s by Corder. It is one of the most significant disciplines of SLA. It is a procedure used to analyze L2 data collected from learners' errors. Its attempt is to explain the reasons for making these errors and to enhance the learners' performance.

Crystal (1999) defined EA in language teaching and learning as "a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics"(p.125). It simply refers to the identification, description, and explanation of errors.

EA has two main objectives: one is theoretical and the other is applied. The theoretical objective serves to elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies an L2. And the applied objective enables the learner to learn more efficiently by exploiting the knowledge of his/her dialect for pedagogical purposes. Once L2 errors are analyzed, the nature of the problems and difficulties faced by language learners will be determined (Corder, 1974).

In addition, EA is a diagnostic and prognostic procedure. It is diagnostic in the sense that it can reveal the learners' language proficiency at a given point during the learning process. It is also prognostic because it aids language designers to reorganize the instructional materials.

According to EA, errors are not only due to the transfer of the learners' first language. Indeed, they can be described in terms of the TL without referring to the first language system. Although many researchers have proved the validity of this approach, others have criticized it for its poor statistical interference and for covering only a partial picture of learner production. That is, it has a substantive nature in that it ignores the 'avoidance strategy'. The avoidance strategy enables the learner to use his/her own words and structures in case he/she faces problems and difficulties in the TL.

### 1.3. Error vs. Mistake

When they come to learn an L2, learners sometimes do something wrong, which is either called a mistake or an error. The terms “*error*” and “*mistake*” are seen by many as synonymous. In order to analyze a learner language in an adequate perspective, researchers are required to identify learners’ errors by making a distinction between errors and mistakes. Despite the fact that both errors and mistakes exist in the learning process, the two terms have been distinguished by researchers.

According to Corder (1967), the term *error* signifies something erroneous, related to the essential knowledge of the language. Hence, an error shows the present level of a learner’s language development of a particular language. However, the term *mistake* is used for situations in which the learner produces incorrect form due to a slip of the tongue, stress, tiredness and lack of concentration. In the same context, Ellis (1997) stated: "mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance" (p.17). That is, mistakes occur because the learner is unable to apply what he or she has learned. He introduces an example of an apparent mistake in Jean's speech. He said: “the big of them *contained* a snake”. In this sentence, the past tense of “*contain*” is used correctly. In another sentence, however, he said: “the basket *contains* a snake”. His failure to say “*contained*” in the second sentence, making a tense error, might then be considered as a “*mistake*”. Unlike mistakes, "errors reflect gaps in a learners' knowledge; errors occur because the learner does not know what is correct" (Ellis, 1997, p.19). This means that learners make errors because of the lack of knowledge.

James (1998) added that the differences between mistakes and errors are related to the correction ability. For him, a mistake is a fault in a learner’s statement that he/she is able and willing to correct. On the contrary, an error is something that a learner is neither able nor inclined to correct. In this research, the differences between English and learners’ native language (Arabic) invite difficulties in learning English. Then, the differences might cause errors.

#### 1.4. Theories Underlying Errors of EFL Learners

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in analyzing errors that EFL students usually make. In order to study and analyze the students' errors, two main approaches have emerged, namely CA and EA (Keshavarz, 1999). What these approaches share in common is that they attempt to identify the nature of errors and their possible cognitive, psychological, or sociolinguistic sources. Corder's Model (1981) is one of the prominent models of EA.

##### 1.4.1. Corder's Model (1981) of Error Analysis

Because the identification of an error is different from explaining what an error is, Corder (1981) provided a common model for identifying errors in the utterances of L2/FL learners. According to this model "every sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise" (p.21). It distinguishes between "*overt errors*" and "*covert errors*". If a sentence is ill-formed in terms of the TL rules, it will be regarded as "*overtly idiosyncratic*". Whereas, if the sentence that is superficially well-formed but does not mean what the learner intends to express, it will be described as "*covertly idiosyncratic*". The following example clearly demonstrates this point.

A: Who are you?

B: *I am fine.*

Both sentences "A" and "B" are grammatically correct, but they are covert. The reason is that the answer is inappropriate for the question "A".

##### 1.4.1.1. Types of Errors

Learners' language is characterized by errors. Corder (1973) classified errors into four main types, including the omission of some required elements, addition of some unnecessary elements, selection of incorrect elements, and misordering elements. Dulay et al. (1982) proposed a similar classification of errors that is based on the Surface Strategy Taxonomy (SST). The SST provides a description about the cognitive processes that highlight the learner's construction of the new

language or the language being learned. According to this strategy, errors are categorized into omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.

**1.4.1.1.1. Omission Errors:** Omission errors are characterized by the absence of linguistic items that must appear in a well- formed utterance. Learners of an L2 may delete certain linguistic forms whenever they find difficulty in producing them. In other words, omission errors refer to the exclusion of some language forms that are required at the morphological level. They may occur because of their complexity as seen in examples 1 and 2 in which the determiners “*the*” and “*a*” are omitted.

1. *I went to movie.* (the)\*

2. *My mother is doctor.*(a)\*

**1.4.1.1.2. Addition Errors:** They are characterized by the presence of an item which must not appear in a well formed utterance (Dulay et al., 1982). Obviously, there are three types of addition namely; double markings, regularizations and simple additions. Double marking error is regarded as using two items which indicate the same feature. For example: “Ahmed did not *attended the festival*”. In this sentence, there is an unnecessary addition that is manifested by adding the “*ed*” at the end of the verb “*attend*” where it should be omitted and written like: “*Ahmed did not attend the festival*”. The sentence uses double marking to indicate past form by representing both auxiliary and the verb. Another type of addition, which is separated to double markings, is regularization. It appears when adding a typical marker to a linguistic item as a result of spreading a given rule where they should not be applied. For example: “*He putted his book on the table.*” Instead of saying: “*He put his book on the table*”. Simple addition is the last category of addition errors. It refers to any additional use of an item as the inclusion of the indefinite article ‘*a*’ in this sentence “*A my friend travelled to Dubai*”.

**1.4.1.1.3. Misformation (Selection) Errors :** They refer to the use of the wrong form of a structure or morpheme (Dulay et al., 1982). That is to say, an error of selection occurs when the learner uses the wrong item in the right place. It is characterized by using incorrect words or structures as using a wrong tense instead of another or using a wrong word in the right place. For instance, the word “*bald*” in this sentence “Amal has *a bald* clothes” is placed correctly functioning as an adjective, however it is wrongly used.

Unlike omission errors which happen unconsciously, misformation errors happen intentionally. Regularizations, archi-forms, and alternating are the typical forms of misformation. Archi-form is one type of misformation error. It is related to the use of one member of a class form in place of others in the same class (Dulay et al., 1982). The form selected by a learner is considered an arch-form when she/he uses one member of a class of personal pronouns to function as others in class such as: “*pass me that*” and “*me hungry*”. Also, regularization can be recognized by using a regular marker in the place of an irregular one such as: *goose* for *geese*. A different type of misformation error is alternating form. It is tied with the use of archi-forms which gives the way to the seemingly fairly free alternation of various members of class with each other.

**1.4.1.1.4. Misordering Errors:** Misordering refers to the incorrect placement of a morpheme or a group of morphemes in an utterance (Dulay et al., 1982). For example, instead of saying “*significant*” a speaker could say “*fignisicant*.” At the morphological level, mis-ordering of bound morphemes in English is perhaps less constant. In the example “*he’s get upp*ing* now*”, the learner attaches the inflection “*ing*” to the verb “*get up*”. At the syntactic level, misordering is much more common as seen in the sentence “*he’s a dear to me friend*”. At the lexical level, a learner might, for instance, reverse the parts of a compound word like “*car key*” may become “*key car*”.

### 1.5. Sources of Errors

In learning a foreign language, students frequently make errors. The reason is that errors are common features of learning a new foreign or L2. Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) assumed that EA is not only about identifying and detecting errors, but also about attempting to explain why they are committed. Errors, made by foreign language learners or L2 learners while learning a TL, have several sources. Richards (1974) related errors to two main sources, namely interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

#### 1.5.1. Interlingual (Interference) Errors

It is thought that most linguistic errors are caused by transformation from one language to another. Interlingual errors are caused by the native language which interferes with the TL learning. Richards (1974) stated that “if the learner of a foreign language makes a mistake in the target language by effect of his mother tongue that is called inter-lingual” (p. 173). Errors of this nature are common regardless of the learner’s language background. For example, learners may simply write “*The ball big blue*”, instead of “*the big blue ball*”. In this example, the negative interference of the mother tongue affects the TL.

#### 1.5.2. Intralingual Errors

Intralingual errors are similar to those produced by the child when acquiring his mother tongue. They are deviations resulting from the process of learning itself. They are caused by the non-assimilation of the rules of the TL. In Richards’ words (1984), intralingual errors are those “which reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply ” (p.174). He listed the following intralingual errors on the basis of their characteristics.

##### 1.5.2.1. Overgeneralization Errors

According to Richards (1974) overgeneralization happens when L2 learners make overgeneralizations by applying their understanding of grammatical rules and various forms in given

contexts to other contexts where those rules and forms do not apply. Attempting, for instance, to conjugate the past simple form of 'eat', learners may erroneously use 'eated' instead of 'ate'. They do not consider that there are exceptions to rules which take other forms when conjugating verbs in the simple past such as: "she *came*", "she *wrote*", "she *drank*".

### 1.5.2.2. Ignorance of Rule Restriction

Ignorance of rule restriction errors occur as a result of failure to observe the restrictions or existing structures; L2 learners use the rule in inappropriate context (Richard, 1974). The failure of observing the rule restrictions may lead to analogy. That is, learners may justify a deviant usage from their previous experience of English because of ignorance of rule restrictions e.g., saying "*He made me to write it*". In this case, the learner ignores the restrictions on the use of the verb "*to make*" which is rightly not followed by *to* and a verb as it is the case in "*He asked me to go*".

### 1.5.2.3. Incomplete Application of Rules

Richards (1980) mentioned that incomplete application of rules emanates when the learner does not fully develop a certain structure required for generating adequate sentences. Such an error occurs once the learner fails to learn more complex types of structure because he assumes that basic rules are sufficient for communication. For example, saying: "*how you say it in French?*" the learner omits the auxiliary "*do*" which is necessarily placed before the subject.

### 1.5.2.4. False Concept Hypothesis

False concept hypothesis is sometimes described as a semantic error. It is considered as the incorrect comprehensible distinction in the TL. That is to say, they can create faulty hypotheses about a certain rule. Actually, these particular errors are frequently the outcome of poor gradation of teaching. Touchie (1986) stated that learners may learn the present tense of the verb "*to be*" including "*am, are, and is*" and the past tense "*was and were*". They might erroneously believe that "*was*" and "*were*" are markers of the past and that "*am*" "*are*" and "*is*" are markers of the present. Hence, they say "*he is play with his friend*", "*I am go to the park*", and "*it was happened yesterday*".

### **1.5.2.5. Fossilization**

Fossilized errors are interrelated with faulty teaching. L2 teachers make some errors which their learners inherit. Over time, these errors become persistent and very difficult for L2 learners to get rid of. For instance, learners may eventually pick up on and develop fossilized pronunciation errors from their teachers.

To sum up, these are the main sources of errors made by learners in the process of L2 learning. Relating errors to different sources requires the researcher to follow certain steps of analysis.

## **1.6. The Steps of Analyzing Errors**

For conducting an EA, Corder (1974) suggested these consecutive steps: collecting samples of the learner language, identifying errors, describing errors, explaining errors, and finally evaluating errors

### **1.6.1. Collecting Samples of the Learner Language**

The first procedure of EA is to collect samples of the learner language. It consists of two steps. First, the analyst should decide on the sample size (number of participants) to provide data and the sample's homogeneity (such as the participants' age and educational background). Second, he/she needs to determine the methodology for collecting the samples (e.g., conducting interviews or discussions if the data is oral).

### **1.6.2. Identifying Errors**

After collecting a corpus of the learner language, the errors therein are specified. Error identification initially involves differentiating between an error and a mistake. Then, it involves a comparison between learners' sentences and correct standard sentences produced by native speakers in the same context. After that the researcher can identify the problems with wrong sentences.



### **1.6.3. Describing Errors**

The third phase is devoted to describing the identified errors. It requires paying attention to the surface properties of the learners' utterances (Ellis, 1994). For this purpose, it is necessary to establish a systematic arrangement of errors (commonly referred to as taxonomy). Two taxonomies are frequently utilized in describing errors: linguistic category taxonomy and surface structure taxonomy.

#### **1.6.3.1. Error Based on Linguistic Category Taxonomy**

Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) declared that there are different error taxonomies which are based on the linguistic item that is affected by an error. These linguistic category taxonomies classify linguistic deviations according to the language components including phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary) and discourse (style) with other linguistic constituents that the error affects.

#### **1.6.3.2. Error Based on Surface Strategy Taxonomy**

This taxonomy focuses on ways surface structures are altered (Dulay et al., *ibid*). Learners make errors of omitting necessary items (omission), adding unnecessary ones (addition), misformation of items (selection) and/or misordering them (misordering).

In SST, each type of error has specific characteristics. Omission is marked by absence of an item that must occur in a well formed utterance. Unlike omission, addition is characterized by presence of an item that must not appear in a well-formed utterance. Misformation errors are marked by the use of the wrong form of a morpheme or a structure. However, misordering errors are distinguished by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. This type of error occurs systematically for both L1 and L2. In all, the perspective of this taxonomy guides learners to be aware of their errors, and subsequently be able to construct a correct piece of language.

### **1.6.4. Explaining Errors**

Explaining why certain errors are made is quite possibly the primary objective of EA. At this level, the analyst focuses on determining the reasons behind making certain errors. In other words, after identifying and describing the errors, they are classified into their sources either relating to interlingual factors or to intralingual ones.

### **1.6.5. Evaluating Errors**

The outcome of this final step (evaluating errors) should be pedagogically motivated. The attempt is to create better teaching and learning materials which will help teachers to enhance their teaching and facilitate more efficient learning for students.

## **1.7. The Role of Error Analysis**

Learning a language is not just acquiring a set of constant habits, but rather a process of discovering the underlying rules, categories and systems of choices in the TL (Corder, 1973). One of the most important factors included in almost all the stages of language learning is error making. The study of errors is used to identify the strategies that students use in language instruction, to pinpoint the reasons why students make such errors, and finally to gather information on common difficulties in language learning (Richards et al., 1992). EA has become an essential technique as it helps to know a lot about the learning problems of individual students. It also allows them to tailor their teaching method to the level they are working with.

## **Section Two: Noun Phrases**

For EFL students, academic writing continues to be a challenge. It refers to a particular style that researchers use to define the intellectual boundaries of their disciplines and specific areas of expertise (Hartley, 2008). In this sense, it is a style of writing found generally in many professional publications and specifically in Master's dissertations, which play a significant task for EFL students. Academic writing is a formal style of expressing thoughts and ideas. It offers the opportunity to investigate an issue and to present the position based on the evidence of research. Many researchers have emphasized that academic writing is characterized by certain features such as complexity, formality, precision, structure, and objectivity. NPs are one of the keystones of academic writing. They allow writers to include much information without using too many words (Hartley, 2008; Nasiri, 2012; & Samigullina, 2018).

### **1.2. Phrases**

A phrase is a group of words that functions as one grammatical unit. It does not contain a finite verb and has no subject-predicate structure. It is a sequence of words that can function as a constituent in the structure of sentences. A phrase forms not only syntactic units (constituents in the structural form of sentences), but also semantic units (meaning). These units form identifiable parts of the meaning of sentences in terms of replacing a word or understating its actual sense and significance (Roberts, 1948).

#### **1.2.1. Types of Phrases**

According to Morley (2000), phrases fall into five main categories, namely NP (nominal phrase), verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverbial phrase, and prepositional phrase. This division focuses merely on the function of the phrase in the sentence.

##### **1.2.1.1. Verb Phrases**

Verb Phrases (VPs) contain the main verb that may be preceded by the helping verb (auxiliary verb). The main verb can be either an action verb or a linking verb. Fabb (2005) defined it

## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

as a phrase that contains a verb as a head and an auxiliary verb (could, might, have, etc.) that precedes the main verb as in “My mother *is making* us some dinner”. The structure of VPs can be complex by adding other types of phrases such as an adverbial phrase.

### 1.2.1.2. Adjective Phrases

A group of words whose head is an adjective is called an Adjective Phrase (AdjP). The adjective of this phrase may be accompanied by other words such as determiners, modifiers, etc. O’Dwyer (2006) defined this phrase as the syntactic structure with an adjective as its focus and it describes or qualifies a noun, as seen in examples 1 and 2.

1) He was wearing *a dark black suit*.

2) The fish tasted *awfully funny*.

### 1.2.1.3. Adverbial Phrases

An Adverbial Phrase (AdvP) is a group of words that perform as an adverb in a sentence. It modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. In De Materials words (2011), “An adverb phrase is also regarded as a sequence of words that provides information generally referring to the time, place, manner and degree, in which an action, state or event occurs” (p. 124). The following examples clearly demonstrate this point.

1) She runs *very fast*, (modifies verb *run*)

2) He always sings *in loud voice*, (modifies verb *sing*)

### 1.2.1.4. Prepositional Phrases

A Prepositional Phrase (PP) consists of a preposition (e.g., *on, to, in, with, etc.*) and its object (the noun or pronoun it introduces). The latter can be either a noun or a pronoun. The preposition can be thought of as a link relating the noun phrase to preceding structures (e.g., “All rooms *below* deck are for sleeping.”) (Douglas Biber, 2003). According to Matthews (2007), a PP is a group of words containing a preposition or sequence of prepositions followed by a NP or the equivalent, e.g. *by* Sunday, *out* of the classroom, etc.

### 1.2.1.5. Noun Phrases (Nominal Phrases)

A NP refers to a group of words which have a noun (it could be a name, a place, or a thing) as its head word and includes all additional information related to that noun. Dixon (2005) explained that a NP includes a pronoun, proper noun, or a common noun as a head. In the same vein, Genetti (2014) described a NP as a grammatically coherent syntactic constituent. In English, a NP potentially has three parts: a head, pre-modification and post modification. The occurrence of a head is obligatory. However, it is not the case with the modifier and post modifier which are optional (Jackson, 1982).

In simple words, NPs are a group of words (noun or pronouns) that are formed in an acceptable structure of head and its modifiers which allow the widest possible range of meanings to be expressed. In single modifier NPs, the modifier precedes the noun if it is considered to be the most important part of the NPs. In multiple modifier NPs, saliency is also a factor that influences the order of modifiers irrespective of their form (demonstratives, adjectival, participial, and genitival or relative clauses) (Bakker, 2009). The most salient element comes first so that the noun and its various modifiers are ordered from the most salient to the least salient, as illustrated in the following examples: “*Those houses* are very expensive”, “I like *old houses*”, “*The engine of the car*”, “*Lynda’s kitchen*”.

### 1.3. The Elements of Noun Phrases

NPs are made up of certain basic elements. According to Morley (2000), nominal phrase structure is accounted for in terms of the basic elements: determiner (d), modifier (m), headword (h) and qualifier (q).

#### 1.3.1. Determiner (D)

Cowan (2008) stated that the determiner is the element of the phrase that precedes the head noun in NPs. It specifies the subset of the headword being referred to. There are several types of determiners, including cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers, articles, multipliers, fractions,

## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

demonstrative determiners, possessive determiners, nouns as possessive determiners, quantifiers and partitives. Determiners stipulate crucial properties such as definiteness, indefiniteness, and quantity in head nouns. Demonstrative determiners (*this/that, these/those*) are considered central determiners, they can be used to introduce new information, or to specify an old, familiar information (e.g. *Can you make those chocolate chip cookies again?*). Cardinal numbers indicate quantity in numerical terms and occur with singular and plural count nouns (e.g., we have lived there for *15* years). Similarly, fractions specify quantity (e.g., you left *half* your peas on the plate). Ordinal numbers designate a place in an ordered sequence and immediately precede countable nouns (e.g., she is *twice* the size of her sister).

In addition, articles are members of the larger class of pronominal modifiers. There are basically two types of articles, definite vs. indefinite articles. When the object is not clearly identifiable, articles (*a, an*) occur. The “*a*” form of the indefinite article appears before a consonant, however “*the*” form appears only before vowels.

### 1.3.2. Modifiers (M)

The element occurring between the determiner and the headword element is the modifier and its function is determined by this position. Modifiers include primarily adjectives, participles and nouns as seen below.

a. Adjectives (Adj): that *enormous, old, red* bucket.

b. Participles, present and past (verb): A *drawing* man, *baked* potatoes.

In (b), “*drawing*” and “*baked*” are functioning adjectivally as modifiers but are themselves verbs rather than adjectives. They cannot themselves be modified by degree adverbs (*very, yet*). They can be modified by manner adverbs (*a gradually* drawing man, *well* baked potatoes).

### 1.3.3. Head (H)

In general, the head is the most crucial part in NPs. It is the minimal requirement to construct a NP and the modifiers are optional. The head of a NP is usually realized by a noun or a pronoun. It

can occur after a determiner (definite or indefinite articles) as in “the *cat*”, and may have a number of adjectives between the article and the noun (the fat *cat*, the fresh *air*). The head can be modified in two ways; it can be modified by a premodifier or a postmodifier.

### 1.3.4. Qualifiers (Q)

Qualifiers are those elements which are placed after the headword and determined by position. In certain relatively limited circumstances, this position and role in English can be occupied by an adjective (the secretary *general*, the princess *royal*, the president elect, the person *responsible*, something *tasty*, nothing *new*, the fastest time *possible*). In expressions like “the person *responsible*, something *tasty*, nothing *new*”, the adjective can be seen as a single word adjectival phrase which is further expandable (e.g., nothing *very new*).

## 1.4. The Structure of Noun Phrases

Like words, phrases can be classified partly by their external function and partly by their internal form. It means that the structure of the phrase is made up of words and other constituents. Typically, in a phrase composed of head and modifiers, pre-modifiers tend to be single words and post modifiers tend to be phrases or clauses.

The structure of NPs consists of the head, pre-modifier and some time post modifier. The head of a NP may be a noun (e.g.,the *book*, dear *Reza*, *river*); a pronoun: (e.g.,*it*, *herself*, *everyone*, *she*, *he*, etc.); an adjective (e.g.,*less usually*, the *absurd*); an enumerator (all *fifteen*) or a genitive phrase (*John's*).

Mc Manis, Stolen Werk and Zheng-Sheng (1988) stated that NPs might consist of a proper name (e.g., *the name of person*, *place*, *city*, and *country*), a plural noun (e.g. *elephants*, *leaves*) or a noun referring to a substance (e.g. *gasoline*). Halliday (1994) added that the head of a NP is the semantic core of the nominal group. It may be expressed by a pronoun, a proper name or a common noun. Proper nouns and pronouns rarely need any further specification. The reason is that they refer to unique things, and usually appear with no pre-or post-modifier.

The modifier is divided into pre-modifier and post-modifier. The pre-modifier precedes the head, however the post-modifier follows the NP. The function of a modifier is to modify the head of NPs. The following paragraph shows a sample of the range of possible structures. The analyses are illustrated below.

The word *Islam*, which is derived from Arabic, means to accept, to follow and to obey. In other words, Islam is following God, the Master. God is our Creator and Master. Our success in life relies fully on following the Master. Therefore, we must all obey his commands, either in words or in deeds (Darwis, 2001, p.30).

**Table 1.** *Analysis of Noun Phrase Structure*

The word  our  his	Islam Words Islam God Master Success We commands deeds	Which is derived from Arabic      In lives Either in words or in deeds.
<b>Pre-modifier</b>	<b>headword</b>	<b>Post-modifier</b>

As the table above shows, the head consists of one word. However, pre-modifier and post modifier consist of more than one word. They are used to describe or modify the headword.

#### 1.4.1. Pre-Modifiers in NPs

According to Jackson (1982), pre-modifiers in NPs consist of a number of classes or subclasses in a specific order. A pre-modifier can be an *identifier, numeral/quantifier, adjective, or a noun modifier*.



### 1.4.1.1. Identifiers as Pre-Modifiers

The class of identifier includes articles (*a, an, and the*), demonstratives (*this, that*), and possessives (*my, your, their, his, her, our, and its*), as illustrated in the following table.

**Table 2.** *Identifiers in NPs*

Articles	Demonstratives	Possessives
A chair The table	This house That car	My house Your father Their hands Our money His shoes

### 1.4.1.2. Numerals/Quantifiers as Pre-modifiers

Numerals/quantifiers are classified into definite and indefinite quantifiers. Definite quantifiers include cardinal numbers (*one, two, three, four, five, etc.*) and ordinal numbers like (*first, second, third, fourth, fifth, etc.*). Indefinite quantifiers include words as (*few, many, several, etc.*). Some examples are listed in the following table.

**Table 3.** *Definite Quantifiers*

Cardinal Numbers	Ordinal Numbers
One chair Two houses Three tables Four cars	First chair Second house Third table Fourth car

**Table 4.** *Indefinite Quantifiers*

Indefinite Quantifiers
Few houses Many tables Some cars Several cars

Jackson (1982) claimed that there is a limited number of combinations in English NPs, but more than one quantifier may appear at once. Both ordinal and cardinal combinations as well as ordinal and indefinite quantifier combinations are possible. He provided the following examples.

1. One ordinal and one cardinal: *First five* chairs.
- 2) One ordinal and one indefinite quantifier: *First few* cars.

#### 1.4.1.3. Adjective as Pre-Modifiers

As stated by Ba'dulu (2008), "An adjective is a word or a term used to modify a noun headword in a noun phrase" (p. 10). The following examples clearly demonstrate this point.

**Table 5.** *Adjective Noun Phrases*

Adjectives	Noun Phrases
Big	<i>Big</i> house
Small	<i>Small</i> room
Good	<i>Good</i> table
Bad	<i>Bad</i> chair
Sweet	<i>Sweet</i> melon

#### 1.4.1.4. Nouns as Pre-Modifiers

Between adjectives and headwords usually comes a noun modifier. Thus, a noun may function not only as the head of a NP, but also as a modifier in the phrase. For example: *bamboo* bridge, *rubber* boat, *iron* chair, *city* policeman. In English, nouns are found as pre-modifiers. It is unusual, however, for more than one noun modifier to occur in a phrase.

Ba'dulu (2008) said: "A noun phrase may consist of one headword preceded by two or more modifiers of the same or of different word classes." (P.81). Several adjectives or none at all, may occur in a NP. When a number of adjectives do occur, there appear to be some principles of ordering at work as shown in the examples below.

1. Grammatical: *Small brown* table.
2. Deviant: *Brown small* table.

Based on the example above, Ba'dulu, et al. (2008) regarded the NP "*small brown* table" as a grammatical phrase, but "*brown small* table" as a deviant one. This indicates that if more than one

adjective occurs in a NP, the one that refers to *size* (e.g., *small*) precedes the other one that refers to *colour* (e.g., *brown*). So, the sequence like “*small white car*” cannot be “*white small car*”.

Two or more modifiers of different word classes may come before a noun headword.

Therefore, (Quirk, 1988) proposed the following structure regarding the order of modifiers:

“*Limiting adjective/determiner, descriptive adjective, size, shape, age, color, origin (nationality), substance, present/past participle, noun denominal + noun headword.*”

The order above denotes that when an adjective of size (e.g., *small*) and an adjective of shape (e.g., *triangular*) occur at once to modify a noun, the order must be **size + shape + noun** headword. It is correct to say “a *small triangular table*” but not “a *triangular small table*”. Other examples are listed as follows.

**Table 6.** *Two or More Modifiers in NPs*

<b>Size</b>	<b>Shape</b>	<b>Age</b>	<b>Color</b>	<b>Noun</b>	<b>Noun Phrase</b>
Small	Triangular	Old	White	Table	Small triangular old white table
Big	Triangular			Table	Big triangular table
Big		Old		Table	Big old table
	Triangular		White	Table	Triangular white table
Small			White	Table	Small white table
Big			White	Table	Big white table

### 1.4.2. Heads in NPs

According to Jackson (1982), the most usual kind of head of a NP is a noun, such as the noun “*car*”. Alternatively, the head may be a pronoun of some kind, very commonly a personal pronoun as in “*He* is there”. Indefinite pronouns (e.g., *someone* called), possessive pronouns (e.g., *mine* are green), and demonstrative pronouns (e.g., *this* beasts everything) are other types of pronouns functioning as heads of a NP. When a pronoun functions as head of a NP, it usually occurs without any kind of modification; pre-modification is virtually impossible with pronouns, though post-modification may occasionally be found.

### 1.4.3. Post-Modifiers in NPs

Post-modifiers in NPs can be found in a single word, word group or phrase, or clause. That is, NPs can have single word post-modifiers, word group/phrasal post-modifiers, and clause post-modifiers (Jackson, 1982). Single word post-modifiers can be adverbs or adjectives; phrasal post-modifiers consist of prepositional phrases (PPs); and clauses post-modifiers consist of relative clauses and non-finite clauses.

#### 1.4.3.1. Single Word Post-Modifiers

According to Jackson (1982), single word post-modifiers consist of only one word. They can be adjectives or adverbs, as seen in the following cases.

##### 1.4.3.1.1. Adverb as Post-Modifiers

An adverb as a post-modifier can be a reduction of a PP, such as: the room *above us*, the man *before this one*, etc. In fact, English uses single-word adverbs as post-modifiers.

##### 1.4.3.1.2. Adjective as Post-modifiers

An adjective in post modification is found usually with indefinite pronouns as heads e.g., “*somebody brave*” and “*something strange*”. These examples illustrate that English uses adjectives as post-modifiers.

#### 1.4.3.2. Prepositional Phrases as Post-Modifiers

PPs consist of a preposition followed by a noun, noun phrase, pronoun, gerund, or clause known as prepositional complement (Douglas, 2003). They give information about places, people and things or describe headwords. They may function as post-modifiers as seen in these examples: (a) the pen *on the table*, (b) the building *in front of my house*, and (c) the man *with glasses*. The italicized phrases in (a) and (b) are PPs. They are post-modifiers that give information about a place. In (C), however, the PP does not tell about place, but describes the headword.

### 1.4.3.3. Clauses as Post-Modifiers

A clause postmodifier is a post-modifier in a clause form. It can be a relative clause or a non-finite clause as seen in examples 1, 2, 3, and 4.

1. The teacher who teaches me English. (**Relative Clauses /finite clauses**)
2. The students to be watched during the examination. (**Non –finite clause /Infinitive clause**)
3. The man standing over there. (**Non –finite clause/ Present participle clause**)
4. The invitation given to me. (**Non –finite clause /Past participle clause**)

### Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter has put the current research in context by reviewing what has already been written and said about the nature of NP and the significance, value, and way of analyzing errors, particularly NP errors. The next chapter is concerned with the fieldwork of research.

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## **Chapter Two: Fieldwork**

### **Introduction**

This chapter “Fieldwork” deals with the practical part of the study. It is devoted to explaining how data are gathered and to presenting and analyzing the data obtained. To fulfill the aim of this research, which is identifying, describing, and analyzing some of the NP errors made by third year EFL students in their exam papers of the linguistics module, the researchers adopted EA .

This chapter is divided into two main sections: (1) research design and methodology and (2) data analysis and discussion. **Section One** casts light upon the way data are collected; it describes the data gathering tools, the population and the sampling targeted in the present research. Section Two interprets and analyzes the findings. The chapter ends by specifying the limitations of the study, providing some pedagogical recommendations, and proposing some suggestions for further research work.

### **Section One: Research Design and Methodology**

This section outlines the methodology used in this study. It seeks to provide a detailed description of the research design, the research tools, and the data analysis procedures.

#### **2.1. Research Methodology**

In order to achieve the aim of this research, which is to describe and analyze different NP errors made by third year EFL students, a descriptive method was chosen. The option for the designed methodology is justified by the nature of the study dictated by the need for a description of the students’ errors through a checklist. Burus and Grove (2001) stated that the descriptive design helps to identify problems in current practice with the view to improve outcomes. Using the descriptive method allows analyzing and interpreting the errors, as well as, giving further suggestions for notable improvements.

The collected data are qualitative. They are related to the nature of the issue under investigation, analyzing NP errors, which can be presented and interpreted through numbers and



percentages. Qualitative data were gathered from a writing exam in Linguistics, in that the errors were classified into different types, described, explained, and evaluated.

### **2.2. Population and Sampling**

Since it is difficult to conduct the study on the whole population under investigation, which is third Year EFL students of English at University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia –Jijel, a sample of twenty exam copies (essays) were randomly selected. The students' academic achievements and academic levels were not taken into consideration. Random sampling was chosen because it is considered as one of the most reliable methods to obtain a representative sample. The rationale behind targeting third year university students is due to the fact that they have been exposed to the writing process in general and writing essays in particular for almost three years. Third year university students are familiar with the different techniques of writing essays. Thus, they are not expected to make many grammatical errors.

### **2.3. Research Tools**

#### **2.3.1. Students' Essays**

As it has already been stated, the data gathered by means of essays which were written by third-year EFL students at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University in the linguistics exam. The exam involves three questions and students were invited to choose one and answer it in the form of an essay. Accordingly, the rationale behind choosing the writing task for third-year students is specifically related to the nature of the study (examining NP errors). The students' written productions(essays) allowed the researchers to obtain more reliable data.

#### **2.3.2. The Error Checklist**

Given the aim of the study, describing and analyzing different NP errors made by Algerian EFL students in essay writing, it is deemed necessary to use a designed checklist. A checklist is an instrument consisting of a prepared list of expected items, which are checked by a researcher for their presence or absence (Cunningworth, 1995). The focal reason behind opting for an error checklist is its

utility in listing and classifying the identified errors. The designed checklist is a thorough elaboration including appropriate criteria with reference to NP errors. It is made up of two main columns. The first column “**NP Errors**” lists all the NP errors made by students. The second column entitled “**Types of Errors**” is divided into four sub-columns, marking four types of error: omission, addition, misformation, and disorder.

### **2.4. Data Analysis Procedures**

Following Corder’s model (1967) of doing an EA, there are certain steps that researchers need to follow. They involve data collection, description, explanation, and evaluation. Data analysis started initially by collecting the essays. The identification of errors is the second step in conducting an EA. By scanning essays, the researchers highlighted students’ errors concerning the use of NPs. It was challenging to go through all the essays and identify the errors.

In the third step, the researchers described the identified errors, using the Surface Taxonomy Strategy. In this taxonomy, errors are divided into four types: omission errors, addition errors, misformation errors and misordering errors. Accordingly, the identified errors were first classified. Then, they were counted, compared, and displayed by means of percentage frequency tables .

After identifying and classifying the errors into types, the next step is explaining them. The researchers explained and described the errors with reference to the four sources as named by Brown (2000): interlingual errors, intralingual errors, context of learning errors and communication strategies errors. Finally, the researchers made an evaluation accompanied with formal corrections and suggestions to minimize the errors.

## Section Two: Analysis and Discussion of NP Errors

This section attempts to present and analyze the data obtained from the students' written essays. It is naturally devoted to examining the identified NP errors. It begins with the discussion of NP errors' types and ends up with the analysis of NP error structure.

### 2.1.1. Types of Errors made by EFL Students

Based on the research findings, the researchers found some errors made by third-year EFL students in constructing NPs. Analyzing 20 essays, which were the sample of this research, revealed 62 incorrect NPs. Based on Dulay's Surface Strategy Taxonomy. All the identified errors were classified into four types: omission errors, addition errors, misformation errors and misordering errors. The following checklist table clearly demonstrates the categorization of NP errors.

**Table 7.** *Checklist of the Errors*

Number	NPs Errors	Types of Errors			
		Omission	Addition	Misformation	Misordering
01	There are * <i>lot of factors</i> that may affect the way...	✓			
02	The way a given society or * <i>group of people</i>	✓			
03	It is impossible to have a society without * <i>language</i>	✓			
04	It is impossible to have a society without language and vice versa * <i>language</i>	✓			
05	It is impossible to have a society without language and vice versa language without * <i>society</i>	✓			
06	We have 4 <i>possible relationship*</i>	✓			
07	Sapir and wolf studied * <i>Hopi languages</i>	✓			

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08	Sapir and wolf studied <i>Hopi languages*</i>		✓		
09	Sapir and wolf studied Hopi languages compared to * <i>European language.</i>	✓			
10	Sapir and wolf studied Hopi languages compared to <i>European language*</i> .	✓			
11	They studied the Solman Island language * <i>which they used many words...</i>	✓			
12	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast <i>in America...</i>			✓	
13	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast <i>in *America...</i>	✓			
14	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast <i>in America...</i>			✓	
15	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast <i>in America *...</i>	✓			
16	* <i>Social structure</i> may either influence or determine the linguistic structure	✓			
17	The language used by <i>high * children</i>	✓			
18	The language used by high class children and <i>working * children</i> in schools.	✓			
19	There is * <i>great variation</i> between speakers....	✓			
20	Speakers of a <i>single</i> language.			✓	

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21	Depending on both the context or * <i>situation</i> ....	✓			
22	This term refers to a persons' <i>individual</i> use of language.		✓		
23	Contexts also affect an <i>individuals</i> language use...		✓		
24	<i>the</i> people from high class in different aspect		✓		
25	A <i>person</i> * way also utilize different registers	✓			
26	That language is * <i>system of linguistic communication</i> .....	✓			
27	While society is * <i>group of people</i> ...	✓			
28	* <i>Hopi language</i> argued that ...	✓			
29	Hopi language argued that there are * <i>relationship between</i> ...	✓			
30	A group of speakers different <i>than</i> another group			✓	
31	The use of specific vocabulary in a profession or * <i>occupation</i>	✓			
32	The communication between * <i>doctor and patient</i> .	✓			
33	The communication between doctor and* <i>patient</i> .	✓			
34	We Bernstein theory of elaborated code of ...		✓		
35	We Bernstein theory of elaborated code of children from middle class <i>that</i> speak differently			✓	
36	Both language and society are important in the <i>existent</i> of one			✓	

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	another.				
37	Educational level, socio economic status , ethnic, age , are all <i>a</i> social factors...		✓		
38	There is only <i>*name for it</i> .	✓			
39	Bernstein make a research on the upper <i>* children</i>	✓			
40	Theories showed that <i>*social class</i> affected the use of language.	✓			
41	To conclude, <i>* social status</i> effected the use of language.	✓			
42	In the end, <i>social class*</i> have a great impact on the language.	✓			
43	Sociolinguistics is a discipline concerned with <i>*study language...</i>	✓			
44	Sociolinguistics is a discipline concerned with <i>study * language...</i>	✓			
45	<i>Speaker* use of language</i>	✓			
46	They say that in hopi language time is proportioned while in <i>European * we find minutes</i>	✓			
47	While in <i>Hopi * there is no difference ...</i>	✓			
48	The linguistic structure of <i>the language...</i>		✓		
49	There is <i>four possible relationship*</i> between ...	✓			
50	the distinction <i>of</i> these two codes ...			✓	
51	Another possible relationship <i>of</i>			✓	

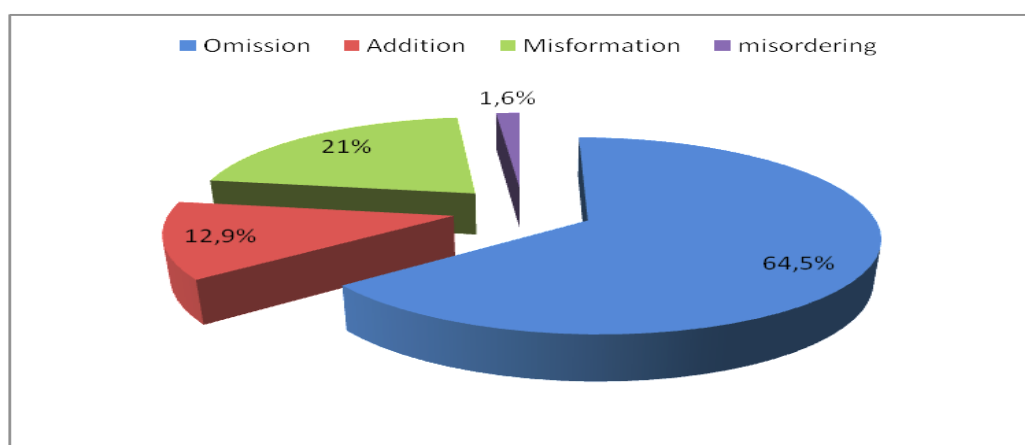
## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

	language and society				
52	<i>The speaker*</i> use language differently	✓			
53	What are <i>the possible relationship*</i> between ...	✓			
54	Every gender has <i>his</i> own language.			✓	
55	Idiolect is a variety of language <i>on</i> the speech of an <i>individual</i> ...			✓	
56	Some social factors which are <i>his</i> age ...			✓	
57	The impact of the society <i>* has on the learning of language</i>	✓			
58	So, society is a group of people <i>* share the same features</i> ...	✓			
59	There is <i>the</i> relationship			✓	
60	In the end, social class has a great impact <i>on the</i> language.		✓		
61	The <i>floor</i> fourth				✓
62	<i>This</i> two terms are intertwined.			✓	
<b>Total</b>		<b>40</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>1</b>

To clearly show the most common type of errors, the numbers obtained via the checklist table are transformed into percentages (see table 2) and interpreted in the following graph (see figure 1).

**Table 8.** *The Percentages of Each Type of Errors*

Type of Errors	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Omission</b>	40	64,5%
<b>Addition</b>	8	12,9 %
<b>Misformation</b>	13	21%
<b>misordering</b>	1	1,6%
<b>Total</b>	62	100 %



**Figure 1.** *The Percentages of Each Type of Errors*

The results obtained via analyzing the copies of the sample show that EFL students at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University made all types of errors. Omission is ranked as the most frequent type of error (64,5%) performed by students, however misordering is classified as the least frequent one (1,6%). 13 (21%) misformation errors were spotted, while only 8 errors are categorized as addition errors (12,9 %), representing the lowest frequency. Each type of error is thoroughly discussed below.

**2.1.1.1. Omission Errors**

Omission, as explained in Chapter 1, occurs when an item that must appear in a well-formed utterance is missing. In the light of this definition, analyzing students’ errors reveals that omission is



clearly demonstrated by deleting determiners (*articles*), plural morphemes (*s*), possessive case marks (*'s*), and heads (*content words/nouns*).

Most of the omission errors performed by EFL students are related to articles (e.g., omitting the definite article '*the*' and the indefinite articles '*a/an*'), as seen in examples (4) and (5) listed in table 1. Taking example (4) "*It is impossible to have a society without \***language** and vice versa \***language** without \* **society***", the student omitted the indefinite article "*a*" three times unintentionally. The student intended to say "*it is impossible to have **a society** without **a language** and vice versa **a language** without **a society***". In example (16) "*\*Social structure may either influence or determine the linguistic structure*", the definite article '*the*', preceding the NP '*social structure*' was omitted. This error is classified as an intralingual error. It mainly occurred due to students' ignorance of rule restriction as explained in Chapter 1 by Richard (1947). The occurrence of such an error may be attributed to the nature of definite articles which are affixed to nouns and indefinite articles marked in L1 (Arabic). The omission of articles also proves the direct transfer of L1 rules to L2.

Examining Example (6) "*4 possible \***relationship***", the researchers identified another case of omission that is related to the absence of the plural morpheme '*s*'. In this example, the student failed to apply the plural inflection rule in constructing the NP. Again, this error belongs to intralingual errors, specifically the ignorance of rule restriction.

The results also revealed that omission occurred not only with function words (e.g., determiners). It was also detected through the deletion of some main words or head nouns (content words). The following example clearly illustrates this point. Example (46): "*They say that in hopi language time is proportioned while in \***European** .....we find minutes ....*". In this sentence, the head noun '*languages*' should be added after the adjective "*European*" to make the sentence grammatically acceptable and meaningful. Omitting head nouns results in having inaccurate and meaningless NPs.

Moreover, omission is manifested by deleting the possessive mark ('s), as illustrated in example (52). The student omitted the possessive ('s) in constructing the NP “\***Speaker** use of language” where he should say “*Speaker’s use of language*”. He failed to fully apply the possessive case rule. Such an error is described as an incomplete application of rules.

### 2.1.1.2. Misformation errors

Misformation as its name implies is characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. Examining the students’ constructed NPs shows that many errors are related to misformation. Misformation was mainly manifested through the wrong selection of prepositions, misuse of relative pronouns, and misuse of demonstratives.

Examples (50) and (35) reflect that EFL students often fail to select or use the right preposition in appropriate contexts. In (50), the students used the preposition “*of*” instead of “*between*” in constructing the NP “*the distinction \*of these two codes*”. The reason for the co-occurrence of this error may be related to the students’ lack of knowledge and practice.

To modify NPs, EFL students tend to use relative clauses. However, they sometimes find difficulties in using the correct and appropriate relative pronoun. Example (35) is a good instance in which the student used the relative pronoun “*that*” instead of “*who*” to modify the NP “*children from middle class*”; he wrongly produced the sentence “We Bernstein theory of elaborated code of *children from middle class \*that* speak differently”. He was supposed to say: “We Bernstein theory of elaborated code of children from the middle class *who* speak differently ”. Similarly, the demonstrative pronoun in example (62) was wrongly selected; instead of writing “*these two terms*”, students wrote “*\*this two terms*”. This indicates that EFL students find difficulty in using appropriate prepositions and relative pronouns to modify NPs. This may be attributed to the fact that in English many prepositions are described as multifunctional.

Another misformation error concerns the misuse of articles, as illustrated in example (59) in which the student used the definite article “*the*” in place of the indefinite article “*a*” to construct the

NP in “*there is \*the relationship*”. This intralingual error is described as an archi-form; using the article ‘*the*’ in place of ‘*a*’.

### 2.1.1.3. Addition Errors

It is obviously noticed that students tend to add unnecessary items to NPs. Dulay (1982) explained that unlike omission, addition refers to the presence of an item which must not appear in a well-formed utterance. In the light of this, the identified addition errors (see examples 22, 24, 34, 37, 48 and 60) performed by EFL students were noticed through the presence of certain unnecessary linguistic items like the determiner “*the*” in example “*In the end, social class have a great impact on \*the language.*” This interlingual error results from the negative interference of L1 on L2.

There are also other instances in which content words were added to NPs, as demonstrated in Example (22) “*This term refers to a person’s \*individual use of language.*”. The word “*individual*” is not needed and extra; the student would say: “*This term refers to a person’s use of language.*”. Thus, it is necessary to omit the noun “*individual*”, which can be used interchangeably with the noun “*person*”. This type of error is described as double-marking i.e., students failed to delete the unnecessary noun.

EFL students also added irrelevant morphemes to the constructed NPs. This was manifested through the addition of the plural morpheme (s) in composing singular NPs, as seen in this example “*Sapir and wolf studied Hopi \*languages*”. This intralingual error has been referred to as ignorance of rule restriction. In this case, the student ignores the restrictions of the noun “*language*” which is rightly not followed by “*s*”.

### 2.1.1.4. Misordering Errors

Inevitably, sometimes EFL students lack knowledge about the well-formed structure of NPs. Hence, they fail to correctly place a morpheme or a set of morphemes in their TL while constructing NPs. Examining the students’ errors reveals that only one of the errors is referred to as misordering. Consider example (61) “*the floor fourth*”. In this example, the student placed the ordinal number

“*fourth*” after the noun “*floor*” which is grammatically incorrect and unacceptable in English. This error is described as an interlingual; it clearly proves the direct transfer of the mother tongue rule to LT concerning how to modify nouns. In this case, the ordinal number must precede the noun in English, but it must follow the noun in Arabic. To put it in a nutshell, translating the unstructured NP “*the floor fourth*” yields a non-matching Arabic equivalent and thus results in an error.

In all, this subsection highlights the types of errors made by third year EFL students at the university of Mohammed Sedik Ben Yahia. The errors were classified into four types: omission, misformation, addition and misordering errors. Each type was discussed starting with the most frequent one to the least frequent one respectively. By analyzing concrete examples, the researchers intended to explain the reasons and the sources for making each error.

### **2.2.1. Analysis of NP Structure**

The fact that the researchers analyzed the errors made by third year EFL students with reference to Dulay’s taxonomy is undeniable in that four types were identified: omission, misformation, addition and misordering errors. In the same way, errors can also be analyzed at the structure level as explained by Morley (2000) in the theoretical part. Morley clarified that the structure of English NPs is made up of pre modifier, head, and post modifier. Accordingly, all the identified errors are listed and classified below to determine the most erroneous element (s) in NP structure.

**Table 9.** *Structure of NPs*

Number	Errors	Elements of NPs		
		Head	Pre modifier	Post modifier
01	There are * lot of factors that may affect the way...		✓	
02	The way a given society or * group of people		✓	
03	It is impossible to have a society without * language		✓	
04	It is impossible to have a society without language and vice versa * language		✓	
05	It is impossible to have a society without language and vice versa language without * society		✓	
06	We have 4 possible relationship*	✓		
07	Sapir and wolf studied * Hopi languages		✓	
08	Sapir and wolf studied Hopi languages*	✓		
09	Sapir and wolf studied Hopi languages compared to * European language.		✓	
10	Sapir and wolf studied Hopi languages compared to European language*.	✓		
11	They studied the Solman Island language *which they used many words...			✓
12	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast <i>in</i> America...			✓

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13	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast in * America ....		✓	
14	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast in <i>America</i> ...		✓	
15	They used many words to refer to coconut in contrast in America *...	✓		
16	*Social structure may either influence or determine the linguistic structure		✓	
17	The language used by high * children		✓	
18	The language used by high class children and working * children in schools.		✓	
19	There is * great variation between speakers....		✓	
20	Speakers of a <i>single</i> language.		✓	
21	depending on both the context or * situation....		✓	
22	This term refers to a persons' <i>individual</i> use of language.		✓	
23	Contexts also affect an <i>individuals</i> language use...		✓	
24	<i>the</i> people from high class in different aspect		✓	
25	A person* way also utilize different registers		✓	
26	That language is *system of linguistic communication.....		✓	
27	While society is *group of people.....		✓	
28	*Hopi language argued that .....		✓	
29	Hopi language argued that there are * relationship between...		✓	

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30	A group of speakers different <i>than</i> another group			✓
31	The use of specific vocabulary in a profession or * occupation		✓	
32	The communication between * doctor and patient.		✓	
33	The communication between doctor and * patient.		✓	
34	<i>We</i> Bernstein theory of elaborated code of ...	✓		
35	We Bernstein theory of elaborated code of children from middle class <i>that</i> speak differently ...			✓
36	Both language and society are important in the <i>existent</i> of one another.	✓		
37	Educational level, socio economic status , ethnic, age , are all <i>a</i> social factors...		✓	
38	There is only * name for it.		✓	
39	Bernstein make a research on the upper * children ...		✓	
40	Theories showed that *social class effected the use of language.		✓	
41	To conclude, * social status effect the use of language		✓	
42	In the end, social class* have a great impact on the language.	✓		
43	Sociolinguistics is a discipline concernd with *study language...		✓	
44	Sociolinguistics is a discipline concerned with study * language...			✓
45	Speaker* use of language		✓	

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46	They say that in hopi language time is proportioned while in European * we find minutes ....	✓		
47	While in Hopi * there is no difference ...	✓		
48	The linguistic structure of <i>the</i> language...		✓	
49	There is four possible relationship* between ...	✓		
50	the distinction <i>of</i> these two codes ...			✓
51	Another possible relationship <i>of</i> language and society			✓
52	The speaker* use language differently	✓		
53	What are the possible relationship* between ...	✓		
54	Every gender has <i>his</i> own language.		✓	
55	Idiolect is a variety of language on the speech of <i>an</i> individual ...		✓	
56	Some social factors which are <i>his</i> age ...		✓	
57	The impact of the society * has on the learning of language			✓
58	So, society is a group of people * share the same features ...			✓
59	There is <i>the</i> relationship		✓	
60	In the end, social class have a great impact on <i>the</i> language.		✓	
61	The <i>floor</i> fourth .....	✓		
62	<i>This</i> two terms are intertwined.		✓	
<b>Total</b>		<b>13</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>9</b>

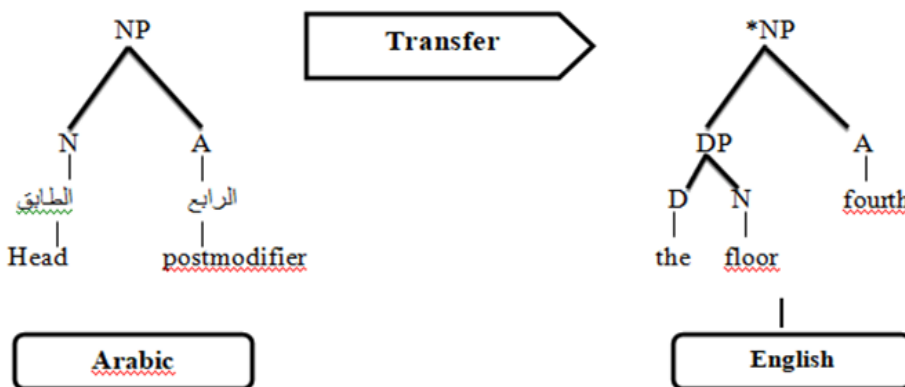
The above table represents the analysis of the obtained results at the structure level in constructing English NPs. It is clearly noticeable that the majority of errors (40 errors out of 62) were



made in the pre-modifier part. However, 13 errors performed in the head. Few errors (9 errors) concern the post-modifier. Below is an explanation of some NP errors at the structure level.

### 2.2.1.1. Pre-modifier

Based on the definition of the pre-modifier, stated in Chapter 1, and the obtained results, it is clear that most of the identified errors (40 errors) occurred at the pre-modifier level. As the table shows, premodifier errors include 22 omission errors, 11 misformation errors and 7 addition errors. This indicates that EFL students found difficulty in using premodifiers to modify NPs. Misplacement of the premodifier was one of the errors EFL students made due to the direct transfer of L1 NP structure to L2. To illustrate this point, the student reversed the head noun “*floor*” and placed it before the premodifier (the ordinal adjective) “*fourth*” in example (62) “The floor \**fourth*”. This interlingual error is described in the sense that the student directly transferred the Arabic syntactic structure, but he failed to construct the English correct NP “the *fourth floor*”. The following figure clearly demonstrates this structural transfer.



**Figure 2.** *Transfer of Arabic NP Structure into English*

As the figure indicates, the Arabic NP structure that is made up of *head + postmodifier* is completely transferred into English, resulting in an unacceptable NP structure. The English NP structure consists of the *premodifier + head*.

### 2.2.1.2. Head

The head of a NP is the central or nucleus element. Examining the errors made by EFL students shows that most of the errors related to the head (13 errors) concern misformation. Unlike in the pre-modifier part in which omission errors were the most frequent ones, misformation errors are the most common errors within the head part. Example (46) clearly illustrates the case in which the student omitted the head “*languages*” which must be placed in the sentence “They say that in Hopi languages, time is proportioned while in the \**European....*, we find minutes ....” to compose a meaningful NP “**The European languages**”. In this case, the omission of head may be due to the students’ overgeneralization that the reader can depict the meaning of the incomplete NP since the head “*languages*” has already been mentioned at the beginning of sentence. This intralingual error is very frequent among EFL students.

### 2.2.1.3. Post-modifier

Only 9 errors occurred at the post modifier level. They fall into two types: 3 omission errors and 6 misformation errors. Based on these results, the identified postmodifier errors represent the least frequent ones in constructing NPs. These errors are mainly related to the influence of L1 on L2, as shown in Example (51) ““*another possible relationship \*of language and society*”. The student substituted the sentence literally from Arabic into English; he failed to use the appropriate preposition “*between*” and replaced it with “*of*”. The student was also unaware that prepositions are placed before the head and they can be described as premodifiers in English, however they follow the head in Arabic, functioning as postmodifiers.

## Conclusion

In sum, analyzing the types and structures of NP errors made by EFL students allowed the researchers to determine the most common type of errors and the basic element that is subject to errors in constructing NPs. The differences between L1 and L2 do open chances for errors to exist

whether in pre- modifier, head or post-modifier. These differences, in return, result in some learning difficulties because some students compare the structure of their L1 with L2 structure.

### **2.3. Pedagogical Implications**

Apart from providing descriptions of errors made by Algerian third year students, and aside from coming up with the possible sources of these errors, the motivation for conducting this EA was to give further recommendations and suggest solutions on how to cover the problematic areas related to NPs and how to minimize these errors.

The different NP errors made by students can be a very helpful resource for teachers to evaluate their teaching and learning process. Analyzing such errors helps teachers to decide on the effectiveness of the teaching methods and materials in meeting the students' needs. To this end, teachers are supposed to simply explain grammatical rules in English, particularly those related to NPs. Teachers should create situations and encourage EFL students to construct well-structured and meaningful NPs. That is, students really need to be trained on how to transfer their ideas using academic English.

Moreover, teachers should encourage their students to write more in TL, assigning various tasks and adopting adequate approaches to integrate aspects of grammar with writing skills in general and NPs in particular. Furthermore, the errors made by EFL students may help syllabus designers to determine and decide on the necessary linguistic items to be included in the syllabus.

### **2.4. Limitations of the Study**

Any piece of research is subject to criticism. During conducting this piece of research, some obstacles, constraints, and difficulties have been encountered.

1. This research was conducted in a very limited period of time. The period allocated to submit the research paper was very limited (only two months).

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2. No fixed supervisors; the researchers were exposed to different supervisors whose visions are different towards the research.
3. Due to time constraint, the sample of research was only 20 essays written by third year license EFL students of English. The sample cannot represent a broader population, so its results cannot be overgeneralized.
4. It was a challenging task to read and analyze the students' answers. This was due to the incomprehensible hand-writing and the incoherent order of sentences.
5. The researchers were also unable to structure an interview with teachers and elicit information about the sources and methods to fix NP errors because they were restricted by time.
6. The obstacle of citing pages from online published works, which were not freely accessible.

All the previously mentioned constraints might have contributed to making the current research paper lack the required in-depth treatment of an academic work.

## General Conclusion

Learning a foreign language does not mean just to learn new words and expressions; it is rather to acquire how to use this language correctly and effectively. Accordingly, this research aimed at identifying, describing, and categorizing different NP errors made by third year EFL students at the University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia-Jijel in their essays writing.

This research focused on answering two research questions. The questions concerned the types of errors made by students in constructing NPs and how these errors could be classified. The dissertation consists of two chapters. The first chapter was devoted to discuss the field of EA and the notion of NPs in academic writing. The second chapter, however, covered the field work and its detailed procedures. The adopted methodology was mainly a descriptive analysis employing the qualitative method. The data were collected through four steps: identification, classification, explanation and evaluation. Data analysis provided evidence that EFL students made the four types of errors as described by Dulay (1982) under the framework “Surface Taxonomy Strategy”. The identified errors were described as omission, misinformation , addition and misordering errors. They were also classified into three categories: premodifier errors, head errors and postmodifier errors as described by Morley (2000).

Analyzing the NP error structure revealed that omission was the most frequent type of errors occurring at the premodifier part. Some of the errors were described as intralingual and interlingual. It is worth mentioning that these errors can be minimized if teachers try to provide materials that would help students to construct correct NPs. Teachers can give students extra writing assignments for instance and encourage them to read in the TL. This would help students train themselves to refrain from transferring L1 rules and structures to L2.

The obtained results could be richer, if adequate time was given. Hence, the findings cannot be overgeneralized on the whole population due to the limited number of the sample. Despite any

## Error Analysis of Noun Phrases

given limitations, the information that was gathered from this study was used to provide suggestions for further research.

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## Appendix

### Students' Essays

a strong relation between them and can be mentioned in four relations social structure influence linguistic structure and vice versa, a bi-directional relation an ego relation.

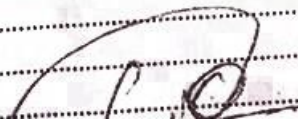
The first relation is social structure may influence or identify linguistic structure and can be seen where it's said that we never speak similarly, we speak differently according to our social background for example a child never speak as an adult.

The second relation is that linguistic structure may influence or identify the social structure and this is goes beyond some theories and hypothesis the first one is the whorfian hypothesis which he study with sapin the Hopi language and he found that they speak differently from us as he word 'snow' have so many meanings and they call 'fly' flies also don't have tenses etc. or even the second 'mimik' how in time. In addition we between learned and of elaborated code of children from middle class that speak differently as he think from children of working class that are related with restricted code. He claim that the former 'elaborate' we a more formal language and use abstract nouns while the later 'restrict' we informal language with simple words and with concrete nouns. Then we have the sixth language theory as another example of the relation between language and society that our society deal with men and women differently and that reflect on linguistic structure.

The third relation is a bi-directional relationship between linguistic and social structures which means no society exists without a language and no language can survive without society and also that the direction of language differ through time and through the development of the society and society need a new direction to communicate.

The fourth relation is that there is no relation at all between linguistic structure and social structure where they are disconnected and they are independent and separate from each other and this was supported by Chomsky.

To sum up everything that have been stated, although be multiple relationships between the social and linguistic structures but they remains as two related concepts that one of them cannot exist without the other.



Two Namy ulje  
mistakes!  
Best of Luck!

No society can survive without a language and vice versa.

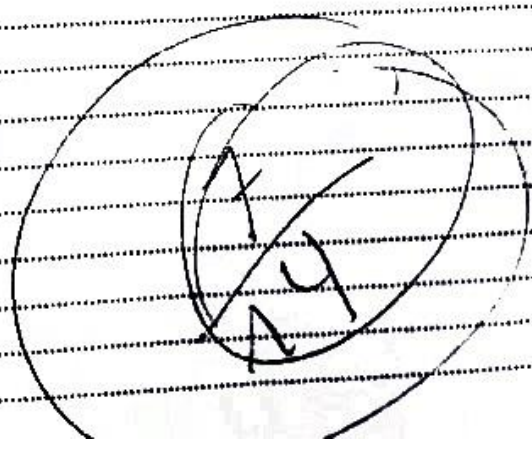
First, social structure may either influence or determine the linguistic structure and/or behaviour. It means that social structure is an important factor that may influence the language. For instance, in the age grading phenomenon, in which young children speak differently from old children, in turn, children speak differently from mature adults. So, age plays a big role in the language use.

Second, the linguistic structure and/or behaviour may either influence or determine the social structure. This view was adopted by Wolfgram hypothesis and Bernstein theory of elaborated and restricted codes. In the Wolfgram hypothesis, Sapir and his student, Wolf, studied the Hopi language and argued that language and culture are strongly related. It means we can not understand one without the knowledge of the other. **Hopi language and European language** are different in terms of referring to a word. So, the way in which the linguistic structure and social structure may influence each other known as linguistic relativity hypothesis introduced by Sapir and ~~Wolf~~ **Whorf**. In addition, Bernstein in his theory of elaborated and restricted codes, compared between the language used by **high class children** and working class children in schools. In his study Bernstein found that children of the high class use an elaborated code which means a formal code, more complex words and sentences, while the working class children use restricted code or public code with less complex words and sentences. ~~his theory~~

To sum up, language structure and linguistic structure are intertwined and strongly related because no language can be practised without society and no society can be survive without language.

What about the 2<sup>nd</sup> & 3<sup>rd</sup> relationships?

What about Labov's theory?



- you go on and how  
can better if you include  
the missing aspects

Best of Luck!

regional and social differences in ways that language is used. It refers to expressions such as style, dialect, etc. and these changes are on the level of the grammar and pronunciation.

There are manifestations for language variation. First, the dialect which is the collection of attributes that make a group of speakers different than an other group and it has three types = regional dialect, minority dialect and standard and non-standard dialect. Second, the idiolect, it is a variety of language unique to an individual, i.e., the way in which an individual speaks, for instance, the comedians imitate a celebrity, they imitate his idiolect and it has many aspects = sounds, words, style, etc. Third, we have the sociolect, which is another language variety, it is the language used in a specific social group and it has two levels, the individual level such as = generational differences of individuals and economic status of individuals including = lower, middle and upper classes, for the second level "the social level" such as = the level of education and occupation. Example of sociolect in Britain where educated speech is associated with middle and upper classes, and uneducated speech is associated with lower classes or the working classes. Fourth, the register is another variety of language in particular context or situation for instance the use of specific vocabulary in a profession or occupation, the word "morphology" has a different meaning in English and in biology. Fifth, The style which is about the range of variation in the speech of an individual speaker and it has five styles = The intimate is a private style used between the members of one family, The casual is a common style between peers and friends (a mixture of jargon, slang), The consultative is a standard style in which professional and mutually accepted language is used for example: The communication between doctor and patient. The formal style is used in formal settings, it can be found in speech of ministers and finally the frozen style = it is named frozen because it remains the same over time for instance the historical and religious ceremonies.

Language variation depends on one's regional background, ethnicity, age, style etc, and differs in its use and usage among

Regional dialect (which is central to the context) was not discussed while register style which are implicit were discussed!

8.1  
NU

Best of Luck!

Language Variation. Language variation is a variety of language in pronunciation, vocabulary, (choice of words). This variation could be within the speech of the same individual or across the speech of speakers of the same language.

Language variation is a variety of language that which is caused by some social factors. The first type of this variation is within the speech of the same individual which is called 'idiolect'. Idiolect is a variety of language on the speech of an individual in pronunciation, word choice, vocabulary and so on due to some social factors which are (his age, education level, his class, etc.). This variation of language reflects his personality and level of education and his social class. The second type of language variation is across the speech of individuals who speak the same language. This type of language variation is called 'sociolot'.

Sociolot is a variety of language in a social group that shared some social aspects which differ them from other speakers of the same language in pronunciation, vocabulary, word choice, etc. People differ in their speaking according to some social factors which are (age) for example. The age grading phenomenon shows that children speak differently than older children and then from adult and so on. Gender, women speak more polite and less interrupt and speak in a kind language in contrary to men who interrupt to (contest) the conversation, speak in vulgar language. This level of education, intellectuals speak differently than others. Also, social class is a factor of variety of language. The people from high class speak in different way to lower class in different aspects that show their nobility.

In conclusion, language variation varies in two levels: within the speech of the same individual or across the speech of speakers of the same language. This variation is related to some social factors and features.

- You ought to refer to required

Best of Luck!

Shahed

- You tekilla imm. 17. ... ..

Sociolinguistics is the study of the relationship between the society and language and the impact of the society on the learning of language. So, society is a group of people share the same activities like the place of living and the language which is a symbolic system of communication which can be both written and spoken and has fixed rules, but people use different ways of speaking that we can collect them dialects which are ways of communication between people but they are different from one person to another, and they have only the spoken form.

So, in social class we have the linguistic labors, which made some experiences and discussed some hypotheses that led to the two famous theories.

Firstly, to speak about the Mathesonian theory, which said that there was fishermen who tried to be the citizens and the original citizens of that island by changing the diphthongs /ai/ and /oi/ to /oy/ and /oy/, and this experience took the period of between 3-15 years - the ex. la

Secondly, to speak about the social stratification of 'r', which an experience was made in some states in the the floor found and experienced people to see rather they pronounce the 'r sound' or not, so we find that the high class didn't pronounce the 'r' in their speech, which the people from the middle and the low classes pronounce that 'r sound'.

Finally, these two theories help to differentiate people into two social classes the upper and the lowest class and led to the emergence of intriguing variation theories regardless of their resemblances and differences.



you also have some (the same explanation in trainings)  
I'll about Bernstein & Trudgill  
those.

Handwritten note on the right margin: 'Handwritten note on the right margin'.

characterized with amount of wealth and education and prestige  
impact on language and whether people develop a variety of language  
to indicate that they belong to a specific social class which then  
as sociolect, the attempt to account for the impact of the social class  
on language led to the emergence of intriguing variation theories such as William  
Labov theories: Martha Vineyard and stratification of /r/ in New York also  
Peter Trudgill theory.

First, Martha Vineyard study of Labov: Labov went to Vineyard  
island which was a tourist destination (fish port). He found that a group of  
fishermen pronounce /i/ and /u/ differently from others to show they are  
proud to be part from the local identity, so they exaggerate and change  
their pronunciation of a diphthong /i/ and /u/ as /ai/ or /au/ as message that they belong to this  
region, the other islanders admired their pronunciation and they became  
using it, the fishermen become in high social status from their pronunciation  
even they are not from a high class, Labov concluded that the language  
of the fishermen change their social class which mean that social class  
and language relate to each other. → this is not a term of a term

Second, the stratification of /r/ in New York: Labov found  
that people in New York sometimes pronounce the /r/ after vowel and  
sometimes not, so he doubted that relate to free variation and examined  
the pronunciation of /r/ in the middle of word like "heart" and in the end of  
the word like "car". He conducted that more highly speaker, the more  
frequent occurrence to the rhotic /r/. The participants of the study were from  
the three classes of society: high social class, middle social class  
and lowest social class. He asked the participants who were shop  
assistants about the Women Coats (Rayne in the fourth floor), he found  
that the shop assistants change their pronunciation of /r/ depend on the client  
so he concluded that the rhoticity appears to be highly related to the  
social class and social class have an impact on language on the level  
of rotation.

Third, Peter Trudgill theory: Peter concluded from his study  
that persons from middle and lowest class change their pronunciation  
they use what he we two terms overt and covert, overt means  
standard language associated with the social class, covert means non-  
standard language associated with community identity.

In the end, social class have a great impact on the language  
and it affect it, depend on the class of the speaker on society and  
every language a language spoken by middle working middle class  
in a word is the best example.

There is no  
coherence in  
your writing  
Best of Luck!

6  
111

it can be the spoken, written, etc. Society and language  
 are tied and each one complements the other. But what  
are the possible relationships between linguistic structures  
 and social structures? (You remember the question?)  
 First, linguistic structure/behaviour may influence or  
 determine the social structure, and that can be with the  
 using of a particular language by its users. The speakers of  
 use different vocabulary in different social contexts. <sup>expl</sup>  
 Second, social structure may influence linguistic <sup>or vice</sup>  
 structure. Some hypothesis and theories explain that  
 such the 'Intonism' hypothesis which Sapir and Whorf  
 argued that language may influence the way society they  
 share the Hopi language and its view on the world. They  
 put the example of time which notice decrease in the  
 European language and is decrease in Hopi language.  
 Other theory which is the 'Bernstein' elaborated and restricted,  
 Basil Bernstein think that social class may affect the  
 language. He notes an experiment when he notice that  
the middle class students use the elaborated code (formal  
 code) which they use more abstract words, less and  
 more complex sentences. and on the other hand working  
class pupil use the restricted code (public code) they  
 use less abstract vocabulary and less complex sentences. So the  
 class social class may affect on the use of language. the  
theory they was the secret theory which show that every  
gender has his own language and way in speaking.  
 and that affect on the use of language.  
 third, the linguistic structure and social structure  
 may influence each other. On the other hand Chomsky  
 said that there is a mutual influence relationship between  
 each other and that by has concept of competence.

In conclusion we can say that language shaped  
 society and society shape language and relation very  
 strong

but well  
 The relationship is not well-define

6/10

Best of Luck!



that language is system of linguistic communication as spoken and  
 written used by people of particular country, while society is  
 group of people are drawn together for certain purpose or purposes.  
 In every society language is important. Social structure of society  
 ... the social structure may be either in the form of ...  
 determines linguistic structure and behavior. That means social  
 structure can be the factor that determines linguistic structure to be used  
 and reflects language. For example, age. Young children speak differently from older children. A two year child  
 speaks differently from mature adults. Show that also language of a  
 group of speakers reflects such matter as their ethnic, their gender, ...  
 Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. Because Benjamin L. Sapir elaborated and restricted under  
 the view the social structure may be either influence linguistic structure or  
 first, Sapir-Whorf hypothesis in his studies (Sapir and Whorf) studied Hopi  
 and concluded that there are relationship between language and culture and we can  
 understand the one if you don't know about other. Hopi language and  
 English are different terms to refer to the world, the influence about  
 one. Nation that Hopi language time is discrete but European language is word  
 second, Ben L. Sapir compared between middle class children got worst  
 class children in school he noticed that middle class pupils use elaborate  
 in which more abstract words, less and more complex sentences that are simpler  
 in making. Lower children used restricted vocabularies in which less abstract words  
 less complex sentences that are used the Helms. That said can survive  
 survive without language and vice versa that might elaborate, restricted or  
 not Helms there close relationship between language and society ...  
 that is the sexist language theory. Fact conform language how we  
 represent women is seen differently. For example, women sell each  
 if women like fireman he could only men could not. In the ...  
 Also the relationship between language and society that Helms  
 hypothesis it means influence of each other that speech behavior  
 social behavior. The later states relationship we can say also  
 the relationship between them independently independent  
 language independent on society and vice versa.  
 Helms said, society can exist without language  
 and language can live without society.


  
 AU

note  
result?  
by  
Bauer

Both Language and Society are important in the existence of one another.  
 there fore, they influence each other constantly, there inter relationship  
 results in many language variations at different social and linguistic levels.  
 we may find people belonging to the same country and having the same national  
 (native) language speaks differently in different social contexts for instance, some  
 speakers belonging to a particular area (region) in the country speak differently than  
 others in other regions. this could be due to some natural aspects like mountains  
 rivers that splited the country into many regions, for a result of that each region  
 started to develop the native language in hand according to its needs and circumstances  
 an example of some regional languages is: the appalachian one, the new jersey one in USA  
 and the Cockney and Liverpool English vernaculars in UK.  
 In addition, people of the same community use different language features  
 in their daily social interactions because of their belonging to different social layers  
 (classes). there fore, a variety of language occurs in their choice of words. it was  
 noticed that the higher social class uses the more abstract words, complex sentences  
 and the more covert the language was used, this variation in language use is also referred  
 to as sociallect where particular language is used particularly in a group of society.  
 this phenomena could reflect the social identity of its speakers who generally  
 maintain the use of their vernacular despite the existence of other dominant languages  
 finally, it is not <sup>always</sup> due to social factors that language varies among speakers  
 but it also could be caused by the individual speaker himself, through  
 the specific pronunciation of particular speech sounds, or the repetition of  
 certain words, no one speaks exactly the same as another one. this is  
 also known as idioslect in social linguistics. for example, the American president  
 Barack Obama is well known for his use of these words in most of his speeches  
 for most and almost.

To sum up, there are lots of social features that results in the  
 variation of language among speakers and it differs from one society to  
 another as well as from one individual to another.

Pay attention to spelling mistakes

for do not respect punctuation marks!!

you ought to ~~stop~~  
define the structure  
concept!

10.8  
14

Best of Luck!



## Résumé

Les phrases nominales sont l'un des piliers de l'écriture académique. Des études de recherche ont largement identifié la nécessité d'analyser les erreurs de phrase pour améliorer la qualité de l'écriture des étudiants. La présente étude a cherché à identifier, décrire et analyser les erreurs de phrase de dénomination dans l'écriture d'un essai réalisé par des étudiantes EFL de troisième année à l'Université Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. Pour atteindre ces objectifs, une procédure d'analyse d'erreur, décrite par Corder, a été réalisée sur un échantillon choisi au hasard de 20 essais écrits dans l'examen du module de contenu « Linguistique ». Pour analyser les données, les chercheurs ont adopté l'approche descriptive, combinant à la fois des procédures quantitatives et qualitatives de collecte de données et d'analyse de données. Les résultats obtenus ont montré que les erreurs d'omission (64,5%) étaient le type d'erreur le plus fréquent commis par les étudiants suivi par la déformation (21%), l'addition (12,9%) et le désordre (1,6%) respectivement. Les erreurs de phrase nominale ont également été examinées au niveau de la structure. Ils ont été analysés en se référant au pré modifiant, le mot principal et au post modifiant. Les résultats ont révélé que la plupart des erreurs identifiées se sont produites au niveau du pré modifiant.

**Mots-clés:** Étudiants EFL, Analyse d'erreur, phrase nominale, erreur nominale phrase.

## ملخص

تعتبر العبارات الاسمية أحد أهم الركائز الأساسية التي تُبنى عليها الكتابة الأكاديمية. أثبتت مجموعة من الدراسات و البحوث العلمية ضرورة وأهمية تحليل العبارة الاسمية ودراستها من ناحية الأخطاء كونها تساهم بشكل كبير في تحسين جودة الكتابة لدى الطلبة الجامعيين. وقد هدف مشروع البحث الذي تصفه هذه المذكرة لتحديد ووصف وتحليل الأخطاء المرتكبة من طرف طلبة السنة الثالثة تخصص لغة إنجليزية - جامعة محمد صديق بن يحيى، جيجل أثناء تحريرهم مقالات تخص مقياس اللسانيات. من أجل هذا الغرض، تم تبني وتطبيق مبدأ تحليل الخطأ، كما وصفه الباحث كوردر، على عينة مختارة عشوائيا متكونة من 20 مقال مكتوب. وقد أظهرت نتائج هذه الدراسة أن معظم الأخطاء المرتكبة مرتبطة بالحذف (64,5%) متبوعة على التوالي بأنواع أخرى تخص سوء التركيب أو البناء (21%) تليها أخطاء الإضافة (12,9%) وبعدها أخطاء تخص الترتيب الخاطئ (1,6%) لعناصر العبارة الاسمية. كما تم دراسة أخطاء العبارة الاسمية من ناحية بنية وتركيب العبارة على مستوى ثلاث عناصر: المعدل السابق والكلمة الرئيسية و المعدل اللاحق. وقد تم تصنيف معظم الأخطاء ارتكبت على مستوى المعدل السابق للاسم.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، تحليل الأخطاء، العبارة الاسمية، خطأ العبارة الاسم.