

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia

Faculty of Letters and Languages

Department of English Language

The Influence of French on the English Pronunciation of Algerian

EFL Learners: The Case of Cognates

**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master degree in
Language Didactics**

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2018

The IPA English Phonetic Symbols

Vowels

Description of the English Vowels Referring to the IPA Phonetic Symbols (Roach, 2009)

The vowel	Description	Examples	
Short vowels	ə	Mid central unrounded vowel	adore
	æ	Open front unrounded vowel	hat
	ʌ	Open mid central unrounded vowel	but
	e	Open mid front unrounded vowel	set
	ʊ	Close back rounded vowel	full
	ɒ	Open back rounded vowel	pot
	ɪ	Close front unrounded vowel	pit
Long vowels	ɑ:	Open back unrounded vowel	jar
	i:	Close front unrounded vowel	beat
	ɜ:	Open mid central unrounded vowel	fur
	ɔ:	Open mid back rounded vowel	poor
	u:	Close back rounded vowel	suit
Diphthongs	aɪ		hi
	ɔɪ	Closing diphthongs gliding to /ɪ/	joy
	eɪ		stay
	eə		hair
	ɪə	Centering diphthongs gliding to /ə/	deer
	ʊə		cure
	əʊ	Closing diphthongs gliding to /ʊ/	slow
aʊ		bow	

Consonants

Description of the English Consonants Referring to the IPA Phonetic Symbols (Roach, 2009)

Consonants	Description	Examples
b	Voiced Bilabial Plosive consonant	boy
d	Voiceless Bilabial Plosive consonant	deer
f	Voiceless Labio-dental Fricative consonant	fine
g	Voiced Velar Plosive Consonant	garden
h	Voiced Glottal Fricative consonant	hall
j	Voiced Palatal Approximant consonant	yacht
k	Voiceless Velar Plosive consonant	kite
l	Voiced Alveolar Lateral consonant	lion
m	Voiced Bilabial Nasal consonant	mother
n	Voiced Alveolar Nasal consonant	nine
ŋ	Voiced Velar Nasal consonant	King
p	Voiceless Bilabial Plosive consonant	pear
r	Voiced Alveolar Approximant consonant	read
s	Voiceless Alveolar Fricative consonant	sit
t	Voiceless Alveolar Plosive consonant	time
ʃ	Voiceless Palato-alveolar Fricative consonant	short
tʃ	Voiceless Palato-alveolar Affricate consonant	sandwich
v	Voiced Labio-dental Fricative consonant	verb
w	Voiced Bilabial Approximant consonant	water
z	Voiced Alveolar Fricative consonant	zoo
θ	Voiceless dental Fricative consonant	health
ð	Voiced dental Fricative consonant	there
ʒ	Voiced Palato-alveolar Fricative consonant	leisure
dʒ	Voiceless Palato-alveolar Fricative consonant	gentleman

The IPA French Phonetic symbols

Vowels

Description of the French Vowels Referring to the IPA Phonetic Symbols (Price, 2005)

	The vowel	Definition	Examples
Front unrounded	vowels	i	High lit
		e	High-mid été
		ɛ	Low-mid jette- faire
		a	Low page
Front rounded	vowels	y	High mur
		Ø	High-mid neutre
		œ	Low-mid sœur- fleur
Back rounded	vowels	u	High soupe
		o	High-mid dos
		ɔ	Low-mid fort
		ɑ	Low grasse
Nasal vowels	ɛ̃	Mid front unrounded vin- plein- sainte	
	œ̃	Mid front rounded brun	
	ɔ̃	Mid back rounded monte	
	ɑ̃	Low back rounded grand- cent	

Consonants

Description of the French Consonants Referring to the IPA Phonetic Symbols (Price, 2005)

Consonants	Description	Examples
p	Voiceless Bilabial Stop consonant	patte
b	Voiced Bilabial Stop consonant	bon
t	Voiceless Dental Stop consonant	tout
d	Voiced Dental Stop consonant	doux
k	Voiceless Velar Stop consonant	quatre- car
g	Voiced Velar Stop consonant	grand
f	Voiceless Labio-dental Fricative consonant	fil
v	Voiced Labio-dental Fricative consonant	vous
s	Voiceless Palatal Fricative consonant	soupe- cent
z	Voiced Palatal Fricative consonant	zéro
ʃ	Voiceless Post-alveolar Fricative consonant	chambre
ʒ	Voiced Post-alveolar Fricative consonant	jouet- gilet
l	Voiced Alveolar Lateral consonant	malade
m	Voiced Bilabial Nasal consonant	plume
n	Voiced dental Nasal Consonant	lune
ɲ	Voiced Palatal Nasal Consonant	signer
ŋ	Voiced Velar Nasal Consonant	parking
r	Voiced Velar Fricative Consonant	rouge

Abstract

The thesis in hand aims at investigating the degree of influence of the French language on the English pronunciation of Algerian EFL learners. The case of cognates was selected because it represents a significant scope of investigation. Determining the extent of negative transfer would be easy due to the phonological differences in French-English cognates. The study was based on the hypothesis that French influences the Algerian EFL learners' pronunciation of English cognates to a large extent. The focus of this study is on three specific pronunciation features: nasalization, word stress assignment, and schwa production. The occurrence of transfer from French can be determined if the learners produce the syllables (in, im, en) in English words with the French nasalised vowels, mispronounce the schwa using the same French vowels and apply the same patterns of French when stressing English words. In order to collect the necessary data, quantitative and qualitative means of research are used. A test in English and another in French are administered to 30 first year students at the department of Arabic, University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia to gather information about their pronunciation of French-English cognates. The results revealed that there is a great impact of French on the English pronunciation of cognates. The results also demonstrated that Algerian EFL students have the tendency to produce the syllables (in, im, en) in English words with the French pronunciation rather than the English correct pronunciation. Furthermore, they apply the French stress patterns when assigning stress to English words and substitute the schwa sound with the French sounds when pronouncing English words. Accordingly, the analysis of the research findings confirmed the research hypothesis and provided answers to the research questions. Finally, a series of recommendations is suggested for further research.



Dedication

To the soul of my grandfather “Amer” who always believed in me.

To my sympathetic father and dear mother for being my strength and support.

To my brothers Adil and Yasser.

To my precious sisters Dounia, Aicha and Ghania.

To my aunt Saida for her unconditional love and encouragement.

To my adorable partner Mira and my friends Samira, Jina, Dina, Yusra, and Amira.

To all my friends and all those who love me.

Chahira BOUTAS



Dedication

In the Name of Allah, the Almighty, the Most Merciful. All Praise is due to Allah Alone.

This work is delightedly dedicated to:

The memory of my grandmother Zahra,

My birth parents who gave me life Messaoud and Akila,

My parents who raised me up and grew me in their hearts Achour and Djamilia,

My supportive brothers Abdou, Mohamed, Salim, Said, Kiko, Bilal, Fouad, Nadjib and Nino,

My beloved sisters Hana, Nadjela, Hayat, Nadjet and my twin Karima,

My encouraging brothers-in-law Ahcen and Salim,

My adorable sisters-in-law Anna, Nawel, Nadjwa, Zhor and Madiha,

My lovely nephews and nieces especially Salma,

My partner Chahira and dear friends Ahlam, Djihane, Dina, Amira and Yousra,

My teachers and classmates,

My colleagues and my pupils at Royal School,

The people who have meant and continue to mean so much to me.

Samira KEBSA

Acknowledgements

First, we would like to express our deepest and sincere gratitude to Allah the almighty, without his help and blessings, graduation would have been impossible.

We will never be thankful enough to our supervisor Mrs. Zahia BOUCHAIR for her endless support, commitment, patience, precious advice and guidance throughout the accomplishment of this work.

We would also like to extend our thanks to the members of the jury including Mrs. Radia KHERBOUCHE and Mrs. Safia NEGHIZ for accepting to read and evaluate this piece of research.

We are thankful to the head of the English department, Mr. Abdelmalek BOUIOUTA, our teachers and our colleagues who provided us with knowledge and encouragement.

Special thanks go to the teacher of Arabic Mr. Riad BOUZENNIA who kept his doors open for us.

Appreciations also go to Mr. Nabil HARID and his wife, Mrs. Sadjia ARICHE, Mr. Abdou MESSAOUDI, Mr. Said MESSAOUDI, and Ms. Nadjet KEBSA for their precious assistance.

We are much grateful to the students of Arabic who accepted to take part in this work and to be recorded.

We will not forget to express our profound appreciation to the students of Arabic department Djamilia, Hasna, Mounia, Nacira and Zohra for their collaboration and invaluable help.

Finally, we are utterly grateful to all the people who believed in us.

List of Abbreviations

% : Percent

ALE: Anglais Langue Etrangère

B.E.M: Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen

BAC: Baccalauréat

CA: Contrastive Analysis

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

EA: Error Analysis

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

IPA: International Phonetic Association

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

L3: Third Language

LMD: Licence Master Doctorat

MT: Mother Tongue

N: Number

NL: Native Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

TLA: Third Language Acquisition

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General Introduction

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Language is the major way of communication and interaction between people. The English language has become main worldwide lingua franca that plays a dominant role in our daily life, so the necessity to learn it cannot be denied. Arguably, communication requires a high level of intelligibility so that the listener understands the information imparted by the speaker. The most important thing when learning a foreign language is not to be a native-like speaker but to produce comprehensible utterances (Harmer, 2001). Kenworthy (1987) regarded intelligibility as understandability defined as the interlocutor's ability of "being understood by a listener at a given situation" (p. 13).

In actual fact, pronunciation is one of the most important aspects of language. Acquiring a language does not only require the knowledge of its grammar and vocabulary but also its pronunciation. Unfortunately, while multiple studies in language teaching and learning shed light on different components of language, pronunciation is marginalized and its instruction in EFL settings is limited. In this vein, Kelly (1969) referred to it as the 'Cinderella' of language teaching because it has been often neglected (Plaza, 2016). Because of the complexity of pronunciation, teachers and learners do not pay much attention to it. Eliot (1995 as cited in Euler, 2014) noted that "teachers tend to view pronunciation as the least useful of the basic language skills and therefore they generally sacrifice teaching pronunciation in order to spend valuable class time on the other areas of language".

2. Statement of the Problem

Using a language to communicate requires the mastery of its pronunciation because any mispronunciation leads to misunderstanding. Foreign language (FL) speakers may face embarrassing situations because of their inaccurate pronunciation. Therefore, this study will be devoted to the English phonology in a foreign language learning context. We have noticed

that the Algerian EFL learners most of the time, fail in pronouncing English properly due to the L2 (French) interference. Interference from French to English is due to the different phonological systems of the two languages.

3. Aims of the Study

The primary aim of this research is to make contribution to the literature review in the context of foreign language teaching and learning, specifically in the field of pronunciation that does not receive much attention. The study also aims at investigating the impact of the first FL (French) on the phonological acquisition of the second FL (English). Furthermore, the dissertation in hand attempts to present some useful suggestions to cope with the issue in order to enhance the oral performance in EFL classes.

4. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The present study is conducted to provide answers to the following research questions:

- To what extent does the prior knowledge of French affect the Algerian EFL learners' pronunciation of cognates?
- Are the Algerian EFL learners influenced by their knowledge of French in pronouncing the syllables (in, im, en) in French-English cognates?
- Are Algerian EFL learners influenced by the French stress patterns in assigning stress to English words?
- Are the Algerian EFL learners influenced by their knowledge of French in producing the schwa sound in French-English cognates?

On the basis of the questions mentioned above, it is hypothesized that French influences the Algerian EFL learners' pronunciation of English cognates to a large extent.

5. Means of Research

The methodological tool used to achieve the aims of the present study is testing. The research will be conducted with Algerian first year EFL students at the department of Arabic

at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University, Jijel. Throughout this study two data collection tools are used: a pronunciation test and audio recording. Two tests, one in French and its equivalent in English, is administered to the participants in order to compare the learners' performance in French and to what extent the latter affects their performance in English.

6. Structure of the Study

The present research is divided into three chapters. The first and the second chapters are concerned with the review of literature. The first chapter offers background knowledge concerning the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria and the position of the existing languages in Algerian educational system. The second chapter presents the notion of transfer throughout different theories. On the other hand, the third chapter is devoted to the practical part of the study. It exhibits a detailed analysis and interpretation of the data collected from the test and the audio recording.

Chapter One

English and French in the Algerian Educational system

Introduction

1.1. The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria

1.2. The Position of English in the Algerian Context

1.3. The Position of French and English in the Algerian Educational System

1.3.1. The Educational System in Algeria

1.3.2. The Position of French in the Algerian Educational System

1.3.3. The Position of English in the Algerian Educational System

Conclusion

Introduction

This chapter gives an outlook at some basic information about the Algerian sociolinguistic situation which is particular and complex. Because of the subsistence of different languages, Algeria is characterized by multilingualism in which diverse speech communities exist. Therefore, it is highly important to the reader of this work to have background knowledge about the existing languages in the country and the status of each language in the Algerian educational system as well, with a reference to the influence of French as a first FL on English as a second FL.

1.1. The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria

The sociolinguistic situation in Algeria is history bound. Like any North African country, Algeria witnessed many invasions. It has always been a melting pot, the thing that made it a multilingual country. Throughout history, Algerians got in touch with foreign populations that belong to distinct cultures speaking different languages. However, the most influential ones are the Arab conquest and the French colonization.

The Arabs contributed in shaping the Algerian identity in which Islam became an essential part of it and Arabic the main language; the Berbers which are considered to be the original inhabitants of Algeria converted to Islam and the majority of them have been Arabized. Bentahila (1983 quoted in Benrabah, 2014) pointed out that “[t]he Berbers admitted the superiority of Arabic and religion, and maybe also of the respect they felt for the written forms which their language did not possess”. Likewise, the French really marked their presence in Algeria. This presence could be markedly noticed in the Algerian speech.

During the post-colonial era, the Algerian constitution of 1996 declared Arabic an official language of the country, Chapter1/Article 3“L’arabe est la langue nationale et officielle”. This declaration was a basic step in reformulating the linguistic situation. Efforts have been

made to eradicate the French language and culture in order to restore the Algerian identity through the ‘Arabization’ policy.

Besides Modern Standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic is the native spoken language of the people. It varies from one region to another and encompasses a variety of dialects and accents. As a result, Algeria is a diglossic community. On the one hand, literary works, religious sermons, administrative papers, political speeches and media broadcasts are delivered through Modern Standard Arabic. On the other, Algerian Arabic appears in casual conversations and informal occasions. Additionally, Berber (Tamazight) is the language spoken by a small minority. It embraces some varieties that share a certain level of intelligibility which are scattered over multiple areas of Algeria. There are four major Berber dialects which are Tamazight, Chaouia, Leghoua and Tamachaq. These dialects are used in Kabylia, the Aures, the Mzabiths and the Central Sahara respectively. In 2002, a constitutional amendment declared it a national language and in 2006 Tamazight has been labeled as a second “National and Official language” besides Arabic as stated in the constitutional revision of 2016, chapter 1/Article 4.3 “Tamazight est également langue nationale et officielle”. Despite the fact that Tamazight has been adopted as an official language, it remains secondary compared to Arabic that is the language of the state.

Simultaneously, French in Algeria occupies a strong position due to the existence of the French colonies on a long- term scale (1830-1962). All the while, the French intention was to spread illiteracy among Algerians and fight education through imposing the French language and minimizing the use of Arabic; French has been declared official and Arabic was allowed to be used only in koranic schools ‘Medersa’ that were closed later on because of the abusive policies pursued by the French which left them without a source of income. Few children had the opportunity to attend school beside the French. The impact of such an epoch lasted to create a reality that the language of Molière became an essential part of the

Algerian speech community where the majority acquired French with differences in their level of proficiency and despite their educational and intellectual backgrounds. Even though the government tried to Arabize the Algerian administration, documents are still written in French and Algeria is one of the biggest Francophone countries in the world. Nowadays, French is considered to be the dominant foreign language. Seen as a prestigious and sophisticated language, it is frequently used in the Algerian society. Along with its daily use by Algerians in ordinary conversations, it is significantly utilized in other fields like politics particularly in the government, law, medicine and media. The use of this language came to be spontaneous especially in large cities like Algiers and Oran.

In fact, what makes the Algerian speech particular is the phenomenon of code switching and mixing; Algerians tend to code switch/ mix between Arabic and French. “The language spoken at home and in the street remains a mixture of Algerian dialects and French words” (Maamri, 2009, p. 10). The journalist Mohamed Amghar described the bilingual situation in Algeria in “El Moudjahid” (February 8th, 1974) (as cited in Bouamrane, 1986) stating that “They speak to you two minutes in French, 30 seconds in Arabic then one minute in French and so on, sometimes the two languages are bizarre, unintelligible language, and one wonders if these people are not themselves bizarre”.

1.2. The Position of English in the Algerian Context

In this day and age, English is a dominant language that is largely spoken internationally. The spread of this global language is by virtue of several factors: political, economic and technological. The British Empire occupied many countries in the world and therefore the people came into contact with the English native speakers. The United States emergence as a super power and a leading country at the level of technology, science, industry, advertisement and media contributed to a great extent in the expansion of English (Harmer, 2001).

The importance of English is increasing not only in other parts of the world but also in Algeria. English in Algeria comes in the third position after French. This gives it the position of a true foreign language that is taught from the first year of the middle school. Wilkins (1972 as cited in Bouchair,2003) stated that “a foreign language learning situation is one in which the target language is not the mother tongue of any group within the country where it is being learned and has no internal communication function either”. Although few people can speak the language, most of them are conscious about its growing importance as a ‘lingua franca’.Belmihoub (2012) illustrated the Algerian attitudes toward English saying that:

During one summer in Algeria, about five of my friends and acquaintances sat around and asked me several questions about the U.S culture. Then, they asked me to speak in English for a few minutes because they were curious to see how fluent I was. I spoke about some of my experiences in the U.S. When I was done, they made comments such as, “wow, you tore English up”. (p. 20)

Being open at a world that is controlled by globalization induces Algerians to learn the English language in order to communicate effectively whenever needed. According to Ouanda and Chebouki (2014), English nowadays plays a vital role due to the existence of multi-national enterprises in Algeria. It is the language through which civilization, science, technology and economy could evolve in the country. Benrabah (2014) argued that “where French to decline in Algeria, it is English and not Arabic which would replace it as the language of economic power” (p. 53).

1.3. The Position of French and English in the Algerian Educational System

Both French and English play an important role in the educational system in Algeria as a result of their significant positions in the world. Thus, before tackling the place of French and English in the Algerian educational system, it is crucial to highlight the school system in Algeria and its structure.

1.3.1. The Educational System in Algeria

After the independence in 1962, Algeria did a great work to establish a new school system. Therefore, there was a shift from the inherited French system (1960), passing through the transitional system (1970), and the Algerian one that existed from 1980 until 2003, to the new system from 2003 to the present time. However, the reform of 2003 has not witnessed radical changes. As far as Education in Algeria is concerned, it is free at all levels and obligatory in the primary education until the age of sixteen. It is currently based on the structure of 5/4/3: five years in the primary school, four years in the middle school, and three years in the secondary school as illustrated in the table below:

Table 1.1.

Restructuring the Education System in Algeria During the Last Decade

Level	Year		
	2006	2007	2009-2018
Primary school	6	6	5
Middle school	3	4	4
Secondary school	3	3	3
Structure	6/3/3	6/4/3	5/4/3

The Algerian students in the present time pass through three major stages: primary education, middle education, secondary education. Education is compulsory at the age of 6. Primary education lasts five years and ends up with an examination. Pupils in primary school

are taught in Arabic only in the first two years after several reforms and in the third year they are exposed to French as the first foreign language. Middle school education is composed of four years. In the first year, English is introduced as the second foreign language. By the end of the fourth year, students sit for an exam or what is called Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen (B.E.M). Those who pass the exam are admitted to the secondary school. Secondary studies have a duration of three years. In the first year, students are divided into two streams: literary and scientific. Both streams lead to more choices in the second year according to the first choice. At the end of the third year they take the third national examination, the Baccalaureate (BAC). This examination, a high-stake examination allows the students who succeed to continue higher studies at university that rely at the present time on the LMD system. In 2004, Algeria has officially adopted the LMD system because of the pressure of the rapid globalization and the need to harmonize the Algerian system of higher education with the other countries. Hence, the Algerian students in high or tertiary education go through three main phases: License (Baccalaureate + three years), Master (License + two years), and Doctorate (Master+ three/four years). The aim behind the application of the LMD system is to provide the Algerian students with compatible programs which are consistent with those around the world and to raise the students' flexibility according to their needs.

1.3.2. The Position of French in the Algerian Educational System

The position of French in the Algerian educational system has witnessed many ups and downs from the pre-colonial period to the post-independence time. Before colonization, the educational system was based on a traditional Arabo-Islamic education, which was concerned mainly with religious studies, literature, and scientific knowledge (Ali Chaouche, 2006, p. 24). The French language in this period was not included, neither in daily life nor in the educational system. After the French colonization, French became gradually the

dominant language in Algeria and the official language in the Algerian educational system, as a result of the acknowledgement of the French minister about the continuing attempts to conquer Algeria “buy the school” (Sharkey, 2014, para. 3) to widen the use of French in a short time. As aforementioned, after the independence, Algeria started to Arabize different structures of the government including the educational system. The Arabization movement has decreased the place of the French language. In the current educational system, French is introduced in the third year at the primary school. Table 1.2 shows time allowance for French at the primary school:

Table 1.2.

Time Allowance for French Language in the Primary School

Grade	Hours per week	Hours per year
Third year	3	96
Fourth year	4.5	144
Fifth year	4.5	144

French continues to be exposed to learners in the middle school at all levels with the same time allowance; four hours and a half per week in each grade as it is shown in Table 1.3:

Table 1.3.*Time Allowance for French Language in the Middle School*

Grade	Hours per week	Hours per year
First year	4.5	144
Second year	4.5	144
Third year	4.5	144
Fourth year	4.5	144

Students who succeed in the (B.E.M) exam, select either literary or scientific streams.

The Students' choice only can determine time Allowance for French.

Table 1.4.*Time Allowance for French in the First Year in the Secondary School*

Streams	Hours per week	Hours per year
Literary	3	96
Scientific	2	64

Table 1.5.*Time Allowance for French in the Second /Third Year (secondary school)*

Streams	Hours per week	Hours per year
Experimental Sciences	3	96
Economy and Management	3	96
Mathematics	3	96
Mechanical Engineering	3	96
Electrical Engineering	3	96
Civil Engineering	3	96
Literature and philosophy	4	128
Literature and Foreign	4	128
Languages		

In higher education, French is also taught at university as a specialty. Some scientific streams at universities are taught in French too. This is one of the gaps in the Arabization movement. Because French is taught as an L2 starting from the primary school to the secondary school, it becomes the language of instruction and learning at university. Hence, most of the students face considerable problems because the majority do not master the language, the thing that leads them to either fail or change the field (Ali Chaouche, 2006, p28).

1.4.3 The Position of English in the Algerian System

As it is mentioned before, English is considered to be the international language. Huge number of people speak English as the mother tongue, second language, or as a foreign language. Harrison (1974) stated that “Many countries where English is not the mother

tongue, it is the most commonly taught foreign language” (as cited in Kerroum, 2014). The rapid extend of English around the world induces experts in Algeria to integrate it in the educational system as a true foreign language. Hamdi (1990) declared that:

The Algerian authorities are aware of that fundamental need for English, at a time when Algeria may be called upon to play a leading role in international affairs. We have only to examine the shift from French to English as a subject in the educational curricula, or for the even-increasing number of students registering in the English Departments of the universities. (as cited in Kerroum, 2014)

Students in Algeria are exposed to English in the first year in the middle school until the Baccalaureate Exam. The following tables (1.6 and 1.7 and 1.8) demonstrate time allowance for English starting from middle school to the final year in secondary school:

Table 1.6.

Time Allowance for English in Middle School

Grade	Hours per week	Hours per year
First year	2.5	80
Second year	2.5	80
Third year	3.5	112
Fourth year	3.5	112

Table 1.7*Time Allowance for English in the First year in the Secondary School*

Streams	Hours per week	Hours per year
Scientific	2	64
Literary	3	96

It is important to mention that before the recent reforms, the French sessions were more than the English ones. However, at the present, equal time allowance is attributed to both languages. This reflects the increasing importance of English in the Algerian educational system.

Table 1.8.*Time Allowance for English in Second and Third year (Scientific Streams)*

Scientific Stream	Hours per week	Hours per year
Experimental Sciences	3	96
Economy and Management	3	96
Mathematics	3	96
Mechanical Engineering	3	96
Electrical Engineering	3	96
Civil Engineering	3	96
Literature and philosophy	4	128
Literature and Foreign Languages	4	128

Conclusion

Algeria is known by its lingual and dialectal diversity due to the previous mentioned socio-historical factors. Despite the attempt of Arabization, French and English are a requirement

in the Algerian educational system because of their valuable status in the world. French is introduced three years before English; hence, it is supposed that the previous knowledge of the French language would influence the teaching and learning of English.

Chapter Two

Theory of Language Transfer

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Introduction

Learning more than one language is a complex matter. In fact, learning a third language is more complicated than learning a second. The number of already acquired languages can lead to what is known as crosslinguistic influence. A lot of studies about language transfer have been carried out in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) research. The majority of the studies focused only on investigating the influence of the mother tongue (MT) on the acquisition (or learning) of the second (L2)/ foreign language (FL). However, recently there has been a steadily growing interest in the study of cross-linguistic influence especially in multilingual settings where the knowledge of one's first and second language may have an impact on the acquisition of the third language (L3). Transfer from French as an L2 to English as an L3 is a common phenomenon in many contexts. It is due to the typological similarities between the two languages that the influence of French on English could be significantly noticed particularly in the case of cognates.

This chapter sheds light on the different theories related to the phenomenon of language transfer, its types, the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) and error analysis (EA). In addition, it deals with the concept of cognates and the phonological influences that it represents with regard to some pronunciation features.

2.1. An Overview of Language Transfer

For decades, language transfer has been a controversial phenomenon in Applied Linguistics, SLA research and language teaching.

2.1.1. Definition of Language Transfer

Language transfer has been presented from different points of view. During the 1950's language transfer has been given great importance in FL learning and teaching studies. To be specific, transfer was greatly influenced by behaviourism at that time. However, in the 1960's language transfer was considered to be worthless. Current thinking about transfer reveals that it

is a complex phenomenon and that it requires a deep understanding. This balanced view assumes that transfer is not the only factor that influences language learning (Odlin 1989, p. ix).

From a behaviourist perspective, transfer refers to the process of imparting native language (NL) habits to an (FL). Lado (1957), influenced by Fries (1945) stated in his work “Linguistics Across Cultures” that:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture— both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives. (p. 2)

Lado developed the CAH. He assumed that contrasting two languages would make it easier to expect similar and different language features when learning a FL. If the NL and the target language (TL) share some elements in common, those elements would be easy and simple to the learner and therefore these similarities lead to a “positive transfer”. However, if there are differences between them, they would be quite difficult resulting in a “negative transfer”.

However, Chomsky (1965) and his mentalist followers reacted against behaviourism that was based on the assumption that learning a language is regarded as habit formation. Chomsky assumed that children are born with an innate system that enables them to acquire language without being affected by environmental factors. Moreover, Dulay, Burt (1974) and Krashen (1984) emphasized that the process of adult SLA is much the same as child first language (L1) acquisition and that the errors produced by L2 learners are similar to L1 errors. These scholars also mentioned that the NL has little impact on the L2. Additionally, it is argued that learning happens as a result of self-construction of structures and rules that learners have not heard of before rather than the imitation of the language they have been exposed to. This process is called

'creative construction'. The role of language transfer has been denied and considered as trivial within this approach (Karim & Nassaji, 2013).

Although the role of language transfer has been neglected in the field of second and foreign language acquisition during the Chomskyan revolution, other researchers reconsidered and reassessed the theory setting it up within a cognitive framework. In this vein, Gass pointed out that "in the past few years there has been a resurgence of interest in the phenomenon of language transfer, not as a mechanical transference of first language structures but as one of a number of cognitive mechanisms which underlie second language acquisition" (1983, p. 117). According to her, learners do not transfer features of their NL mechanically but they are aware of what is to be transferred, that is, they make their own decision about which features should be transferred.

Selinker (1983) stressed the significance of transfer as a cognitive process in SLA and made a clear distinction between two types of transfer: positive and negative transfer. The former occurs when learners apply the knowledge of their NL that works as a facilitator in acquiring the L2 while the latter happens as a result of the interference of the L1 affecting the process of L2 acquisition negatively. Additionally, Selinker introduced the term 'inter-language' which is identified with the L2 of a learner. Interlanguage is a linguistic system that is separate from the NL and the L2 (Karim & Nassaji, 2013). In relation to this idea, Odlin (1989) explained that:

Two languages frequently have sounds which may seem identical but which in fact are acoustically different. For example, a comparison of an American English /d/ with a Saudi Arabian Arabic /d/ shows several differences (Fledge 1980). Among the differences, the duration of an English /d/ at the end of a word (e.g., in *bad*) tends to be shorter than its Arabic counterpart. As a contrastive analysis would predict, Saudi learners' pronunciation of

the English /d/ tends to show a duration longer than the English norm. Nevertheless, Fledge's analysis shows that learners are capable of modifying their production of sounds so that their pronunciation comes closer to the target language norms. The modifications often do not result in the attainment of target language norms, but rather in *approximations* that are neither fully nativelike nor targetlike. (p. 113)

As far as language transfer is concerned, Odlin (1989) opposed the behaviourist viewpoint stating that "transfer is not simply a consequence of habit formation" (p. 25). He referred to Hakuta (1986) explaining that behaviourism has never been pertinent to the field of transfer. He added that "transfer is not simply interference" (p. 26). Interference is generally identified with language transfer; however, it is often associated with negative transfer while positive transfer is excluded. Moreover, he believed that transfer is a crosslinguistic process. Studies have revealed that the L1 is a predominant source of transfer, yet other studies have proposed that there are other prevalent sources of language transfer such as the influence of the L2 on the third. In this respect, Odlin mentioned that "transfer is not always native language influence" (p. 27). According to him, recognition of different languages results in the creation of distinct sources of influence. Considering the above mentioned observations, Odlin offered a working definition of transfer noting that "transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p. 27).

2.1.2. Transfer and Cross-linguistic Influence

The terms 'transfer' and 'cross-linguistic influence' are frequently used interchangeably particularly in the fields of SLA and TLA. Both refer to the influence of one language on another.

However, according to Smith and Kellerman (1986), there is a slight distinction lying between them. The term cross-linguistic influence is broader in the sense it includes all language contact effects like the mutual influence of the L1 and the L2. Additionally, it encompasses other language contact phenomena like language loss or avoidance. From their point of view, transfer is concerned solely with “those processes that lead to incorporation of elements from one language to another” (as cited in Murphy, 2003).

2.1.3. Types of Transfer

There are various types of language transfer proposed by linguists. Odlin (1989) explained referring to Weinreich (1953, 1968) that “the effects of cross-linguistic influence are not monolithic but instead vary considerably according to the social context of the language contact situation” (p.12). Some of them are borrowing versus substratum transfer, diachronic versus synchronic transfer, positive transfer, negative transfer, avoidance and overuse.

2.1.3.1. Borrowing Versus Substratum Transfer

Thomason and Kaufman (1988as cited in Odlin, 1989) differentiated between the two terms. “Borrowing transfer” is the influence of the TL on the MT of the learner whereas “substratum transfer” is the influence of the NL of the learner on the L2 or any other acquired language. Odlin (1989) said that “borrowing transfer refers to the influence of a second language has on a previously acquired language (which is typically one’s native language)” (p. 12). Weinreich (1953, 1968 as cited in Odlin, 1989) gave an example of borrowing transfer: the influence of German on a variety of Swiss Romansh. On the other hand, Odlin (1989) explained substratum transfer as “the type of cross-linguistic influence investigated in most studies of SLA; such transfer involves the influence of a source language (typically, the native language of a learner) on the acquisition of a target language, the “second” language regardless of how many languages the learner already knows” (p. 12).Moreover, Thomason and Kaufman (1988) argued that borrowing transfer is more likely to occur at the lexical level where words related to the

government, the legal system, the schools, the technology, and the commercial products are of a major influence whereas, substratum transfer could be noticed in pronunciation and syntax (as cited in Odlin, 1989).

2.1.3.2. Diachronic Versus Synchronic Transfer

According to Cook (1992 as cited in Heidrick, 2006), transfer is “a source of both code-breaking and decoding”. “The creation of knowledge in the mind” refers to code-breaking in language learning. While, the use of existing knowledge for a purpose” refers to decoding. As a result, the process of language acquisition involves both diachronic and synchronic transfer. In his words, diachronic transfer is “transfer over time”. In contrast to diachronic transfer, synchronic transfer is “transfer at a particular point of time” (as cited in Bouchair, 2003). Bouras 1999 argued that the learner’s communication purposes will be achieved through diachronic transfer; however, learning purposes will be achieved through synchronic transfer (as cited in Bouchair, 2003).

2.1.3.3. Positive Transfer

Similarities between the NL or any other previously acquired language and the TL result in a positive transfer. As it is mentioned before in this study, the concordance of two languages facilitates the process of learning and results in correctness. In the words of Odlin (1989), positive transfer “is the facilitating influence of cognate vocabulary or any other similarities between the native and the target languages” (p. 26). In the Algerian context, Arabic is the MT, French is the first FL and English is the second FL. Considering the typological similarities between French and English, it would be easy for the Algerian learners to learn English since they have already learnt French. When two languages are similar, less time is consumed and few errors are observed. Positive transfer happens at different levels. Odlin (1989) referred to the idea saying that:

Similarities between native language and target language vocabulary can reduce the time needed to develop good reading comprehension ... similarities between vowel systems can make the identification of vowel sounds easier ... similarities between writing systems can give learners a head start in reading and writing in the target language ... and similarities in syntactic structures can facilitate the acquisition of grammar: Learners speaking a language with a syntax similar to that of the target language tend to have less difficulty with articles, word order, and relative clauses. (p. 36)

Hammerly (1991 as cited in Bouchair, 2003) argued that “previous knowledge can facilitate learning (positive transfer or facilitation)”.

Ellis (1994) believed that the term facilitation does not imply only the lack of errors but it requires easiness and rapidity in learning:

Facilitation is evident not so much in the total absence of certain errors – as would be expected on the basis of behaviorist notions of positive transfer – but rather in a reduced number of errors and, also, in the rate of learning. (As cited in Bouras, 2006)

Ortega (2009) also suggested that the L2 learning could be positively influenced by the L1 knowledge. He gave an example of a group of school-aged L2 English students in Finland that were the focus of study conducted by the researcher Ringbom (1987; 1992; 2007). The biology of the country enabled Ringbom to study the way of learning English by two co-existing groups. Finnish speakers who started learning Swedish at school starting in grade 3, 5 or 7 represented

the majority of the population. While, Finnish Swedes who speak Swedish as an L1 and learn Finnish at school starting from grade 3 onwards represented the minority of the population. As far as English is concerned, Ringbom showed that Swedes rated better than Finns despite the fact that both groups were speakers of the other group's language and that they were both inhabitants of the same country sharing several cultural realities. Ringbom concluded that this advantage is due to the genetic and typological closeness of Swedish to English because both of them are Germanic languages in the Indo-European family sharing multiple typological aspects. On the contrary, Finnish does not have any relationship with English because it belongs to another linguistic family and the two languages are typologically distant.

2.1.3.4. Negative Transfer

Contrary to positive transfer, negative transfer occurs as a result of the differences between two languages mainly the NL or any other previously learnt language and the TL resulting in the production of errors. Negative transfer is often referred to as 'interference'. Odlin (1989) argued that "The term *interference* implies no more than what the other term, **negative transfer**, does" (p. 26). In the same vein, Corder (1981) pointed out:

One explanation is that the learner is carrying over the habits of the mother tongue into the second language. This is called *interference* and the implication of this term can only be that his mother tongue habits prevent him in some way from acquiring the habits of the second language. (p. 24)

As opposed to positive transfer, negative transfer is associated with the production of errors and the difficulty in learning the TL as well. Odlin (1989) assumed that "negative transfer involves divergences from norms in the target language" (p. 36). He specified four major consequences of negative transfer: underproduction, overproduction, production errors and

misinterpretation. The first could be observed when learners make little or no use of certain structures in the TL that they notice as different from their NL. The second could be the result of the first, that is, when learners attempt to avoid using particular structures, they end up with overusing others. Many SLA studies were concerned with underuse and overuse patterns. Research about underuse and overuse was conducted through quantitative comparisons of similar structures constructed by L2 learners that belong to distinct first language groups. These similar corpora were also compared to a number of tasks undertaken by native speakers of the TL (Ortega, 2009). Within the third consequence suggested by Odlin, two types arise: substitutions and calques. Substitutions indicate the use of NL structures instead of the TL structures. Calques refer to literal translation produced by learners when performing in TL. The last consequence, which is misinterpretation, occurs when learners misinterpret the messages of native speakers affecting their understanding in the target language.

2.1.3.5. Avoidance

According to Ortega (2009), avoidance is a systematic case of L1 influence that was introduced for the first time by Schachter (1974). The term avoidance or underuse refers to the situation in which the students face some items in the TL that are different from those in the MT. This leads the learners to pass over the target items. Gass (1999 as cited in Boudib, 2014) stated that “it is clear that the NL may influence which structure a learner produces and which structures are not produced”. The deficiency of some structures in the TL is the main reason behind the occurrence of this phenomenon. Ellis (1994) explained the latter as the following:

Learners also avoid using linguistic structure which they find different because of the difference between their native language and their target language. In such cases, the effects of L1 are evident not in what learners

do (errors) but in what they do not do (omission). (As cited in Bouchair, 2003)

Beghoul (2007) gave an example of avoidance stating that it is noticed in Eastern Arab learners who tend to avoid using English words which contain the voiceless bilabial stop sound /p/ and use words with the voiced corresponding sound /b/. This is considered as a transfer of mother tongue habits.

Later, Kamimoto, Shrimura, and Kelleman 1992 (as cited in Beghoul, 2007) reacted negatively to this phenomenon arguing that “if we take a broader view of avoidance (thus turning it into a technical term) and fudge the already tricky question of appropriate knowledge, we merely turn avoidance into a synonym for underproduction”.

2.1.3.6. Overuse

As mentioned earlier, the phenomenon of overuse is usually the result of avoidance. It happens due to learners' failure in observing the boundaries of particular rules. L2 learners tend to use particular structures with a higher degree compared to the native speakers of the language. An example of this is given by Odlin (1989) about Japanese students, who may overproduce simple sentences when they try to avoid using relative clauses while writing prose in English. Another example is that in American English, apologies are frequently used more than in Hebrew. Therefore, when Americans learn Hebrew, they apply their NL patterns of making apologies.

2.2. Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

Starting from 1960's, the importance of language learning and teaching has increased. Hence, new concepts appeared in the field, namely contrastive analysis CA and EA. CA mainly investigates differences and similarities between two or more languages in order to set a clear explanation of the difficulties encountered by SLA and EFL learners while EA which is considered as a branch of Applied Linguistics has emerged to reveal that another source of learners' errors is the reflection to some widespread strategies. This theory came as a response to

the CA one which regards NL as the main source of errors in language learning. The present title specifically discusses the two notions of CA and EA and how there was a shift from the former to the latter.

2.3.1. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CA is basically concerned with the comparison of one or more languages to identify their differences and similarities in order to facilitate the learning process. Lehiste (1988) stated that:

The systematic study of the transfer of elements from language A to language B when the speaker of A attempts to produce B, is called contrastive analysis.

The basic assumption of contrastive analysis is that by contrasting the structures of the “source language” (A) and the target language” (B), one will be able to predict the errors made by the learners of the target language, and it will therefore be possible to design teaching materials to take account of the anticipated errors. (As cited in Bouchair, 2003, p. 28)

In 1945, the study of contrastive linguistics was first initiated by the American linguist Fries. This theory appeared again in Lado’s book “Linguistics Across Cultures” in 1957. The supporters of CA declared that it is possible to deal with difficulties in language teaching, by relying on the study of similarities and differences between these languages (Khansir, 2012). According to Lado (1957), during learning an L2 or FL, some new information is similar to that in the NL which makes it easy to be learned. By contrast, those elements that are different will be difficult.

2.3.2. Different Versions of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Contrastive analysis witnessed the emergence of two distinct versions: the strong version and the weak version.

2.3.2.1. The Strong Version

In the preface of his book “Linguistics Across Cultures” (1957), Lado wrote:

The plan of the book rests on the assumption that we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning and those that will not cause difficulty by comparing systematically the language and culture to be learned with native language and culture of the student.

This quotation was the starting point of the strong version which claims that it is possible to predict problems that will be encountered by learners by contrasting the structures of one language with the structures of another language. This idea helps in creating suitable materials for learners during the learning process. Banathy, Trager, and Waddle (1966) stated that:

The task of the linguist is to identify these differences. The task of the writer of a foreign language teaching program is to develop materials which will be based on a statement of these differences; the task of the teacher is to be aware of these differences and to be prepared to teach the... and what the student has to learn equals the sum of the differences established by the contrastive analysis. (as cited in Seah, 1980)

Wardhaugh (1970 as cited in Seah, 1980) considered the strong version of CA as unrealistic because it requires a set of linguistic universals illustrated in a comprehensive linguistic theory, a full description of the two language systems, and a complete explanation of the hypothesis supported by authentic details since CA predicts errors which do not occur but it does not foresee others which actually occur.

2.3.2.2. The Weak Version

The negative reactions against the strong version of CA led to the emergence of a modified view of CA, called the weak version. The latter was a shift from prediction to explanation. It makes use of the linguistic knowledge to facilitate the explanation of learners' errors observed in L2 or FL learning and not to predict them (as cited in Bouchair, 2003). Therefore, linguists are required to observe first, then to make a clear account for the interference phenomenon. For Wardhaugh (1970), the weak version of CA "requires the linguist only that he uses the best linguistic knowledge available to account for observed difficulties in second language learning" (as cited in Seah, 1980).

2.4. Criticism of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The publication of "Linguistics Across Cultures" (1957) helped Lado in attracting linguists' attention to CA. However, in the late sixties many scholars started to criticize the predictive power of CA and the relation between the L1 and the SLA (Odlin, 1989).

According to Wardhaugh (1970), the strong version of CA lacks a basic linguistic theory while the weak version is insufficient since it only explains the already occurred errors neglecting other errors which may occur (as cited in Hemaidia, 2016). By contrast, Selinker (1971) confirmed the need "to focus our analytical attention on only the observable meaningful data ..." (as cited in Seah, 1980).

Moreover, CAH was heavily criticized by many linguists for the reason that it considers the MT as the first and the main reason behind L2/FL learners' errors. Odlin (1989) stated that "and

even more serious challenge to the validity of contrastive analysis is the occurrence of errors that do not appear to be due to native language influence” (p. 17).

Another argument against CAH is that it is based on contrasting languages to identify differences and similarities between them. James (1980) declared that language systems are complex in nature, for that reason, it is supposed to be separated into smaller parts to be analyzed (Zaki, 2015). Odlin (1989) claimed that differences between languages are not always a source of errors because similarities as well confirm to be more challenging. Odlin gave a case of English and Spanish languages saying that “the formal resemblance between English embarrassed and Spanish embarazado (which means “pregnant”) can lead an embarrassed Englishman to make the embarrassing statement Estoy muy embarazado (“I am very pregnant”)” (p. 31).

Some linguists did not reject contrastive analysis theory and its importance in some parts but they reduced its function. Richard (1971) argued that:

Contrastive analysis has proved valuable in locating areas of inter-language interference. Many errors, however, derive from the strategies employed by the learner in language acquisition and the mutual interference of items within the target language. These cannot be accounted for by CA. (as cited in Hemaïdia, 2016)

2.5. The Shift from Contrastive Analysis to Error Analysis

The emphasis of CA on NL as the direct cause of errors led to the emergence of EA. Unlike CA, EA deals with different sources of learners’ errors and investigates their significance instead of predicting them. Corder (1981) claim that teachers reduced the role of the linguist in predicting

errors he stated that (referring to teachers) “they noted for example that many of the errors with which they were familiar were not predicted by the linguist anyway” (p. 5).

According to Brown (2000), EA is the process in which the deviations of the rules of second languages are observed, analyzed, and classified, then to reveal the systems operated by the learner (as cited in Himaidia, 2016).

To achieve the required results in error analysis Corder (1973) proposed three stages to be followed: the first stage is recognition of the error; at this stage errors are separated and classified according to language rules for instance; competence errors and performance errors, the second stage is called description of the error; that is an attempt to identify the learner intention or what the learner wants to say before breaching the rules, explanation of the error is the last stage which deals with the origin of the error that could be an interference from the mother tongue, other linguistic systems, or any other corresponding elements between incorrect forms and those of the native language (as cited in Beghoul, 2007).

Corder (1981) confirmed the importance of EA stating that “along with the results of tests and examinations, the errors that learners make are a major element in the feedback system of the process we call language teaching and learning” (p. 35). He added that contrastive studies play the role of determining and describing the differences while EA proves or disproves the predictions of a comparative theory. He considered that EA as an “experimental technique for validating the theory of transfer” (p,35). Therefore, EA came to complement the contrastive analysis principles.

Despite its significant principles, EA has also been criticized. In the following quote; Jain (1974) has precised the major problems of EA:

... the division between errors traceable to first language interference is not invariably clearcut, the phenomenon of errors caused by the cross-

association of both first language and second language independent interference factors is far from easy; the learner's psychological processes of second language learning strategies can at best be marginally inferred from his performance data. (As cited in Seah, 1980)

This means some students' errors are due to NL interference while others are from other sources. Therefore, identifying types of errors requires an identification to complex psychological processes involved in SLA to reach to objective interpretations.

Corder (1981) suggested that EA studies require both pedagogical and theoretical justification in order to make significant proposals for the improvement of the materials and procedures of language teaching he noted in the introduction:

there have been two justifications proposed for the study of learners' errors: the pedagogical justification, namely that a good understanding of the nature of error is necessary before a systematic means of eradicating them could be found, and the theoretical justification, which claims that a study of learners' errors is part of the systematic study of learners' language which is itself necessary to an understanding of the process of second language acquisition. (p. 1)

2.6. Cognates and Phonological Inter-language

It is commonly accepted that the L1 influences the acquisition of the L2 or any additional language. Different elements of language are influenced like phonology. The phonological influence could be noticed when learners transfer patterns from the source language to the TL. These patterns could be similar resulting in a positive phonological transfer or different resulting in a negative phonological transfer. The idea has been illustrated by Odlin (1989) in the following quote:

The similarity of cognate forms, for example, may induce learners to establish correspondences between sounds that are phonetically very different ... For instance, the uvular /r/ of Parisian French and the retroflex /r/ of American English have very different phonetic properties, but there are other acoustic, as well as orthographic, cues that may induce American learners of French to equate the French /r/ with the English /r/ in cognates such as *route*. (p. 114)

However, sometimes they lead to a wrong phonological production that is partially or completely different from both languages. Selinker referred to the idea as 'inter-language', James referred to it as 'interlingua', Nemser coined the term 'approximative systems' and Corder offered 'transitional competence' (Corder, 1981). The phenomenon of inter-language could be noticed in cognates. For instance, English and French share huge number of cognates, the thing that leads Algerian learners of English as an FL to produce ill-formed pronunciation because of the existence of a background of French.

2.6.1. Definition of Cognates

The term cognates is derived from the Latin word ‘cognatus’; co- stands for ‘together’ and gratus is the plural form of gnansci which means ‘to be born’. Cognates are words that have the same linguistic origins (Molina, 2014). According to Merriam-Webster Online dictionary (2003), cognates are words or morphemes that are linked by derivation, borrowing, or descent. For instance, Spanish and French descend from the same linguistic family. Cognates are defined by Echeverria (2012) as “items of vocabulary in two languages that have the same roots and can be recognized as such” (p.9). Additionally, they are identified by Malmasi and Dras (2015) as “words in different languages that have similar forms and meanings, often due to a common linguistic origin from a shared ancestor language” (p. 1)

2.6.2. Types of Cognates

In the process of SLA or FL acquisition, learners may take advantage of the knowledge of the previously acquired language. The use of true cognates could be convenient to L2 or FL learning due to the correspondence of words in languages. However, other types of cognates like false cognates and partial cognates may mislead learners and induce them to produce errors. The following quote illustrates the difference between true cognates and false cognates:

True cognates are vocabulary items in two languages in the same sense with similar pronunciation and identical or different spellings. For instance, “atom” is used in both Turkish and English in the same sense and its pronunciation and spelling are identical in both languages. Thus, it is a true cognate. The word “cake” has the same meaning in Turkish and English but its pronunciation and spelling are different, yet it is

still regarded as a true cognate. On the other hand, the word “kayak” is used in both English and Turkish with the same pronunciation and spelling but it has different meaning in each. Thus, it is regarded as a false cognate. The word “pasta” is regarded as a false cognate by the same token. (Çakir, 2015, p. 2)

True cognates or true friends are words in two languages that share the same origin and meaning. They could be orthographically and phonologically identical or different to some extent, like the word ‘message’ in English and French and the words ‘independence’ in English and ‘indépendance’ in French. In reference to Hall (2000) Pérez, Peña & Bedore (2010) stated that “cognates can share phonological and/or orthographic form, and typically are related semantically although they are not always translation equivalents” (p. 56). The following table displays some French-English true cognates:

Table 2.1.

Some Examples of the French-English True Cognates

French	English
Absolument	Absolutely
Admirer	Admire
Acteur	Actor
Agent	Agent
Adulte	Adult
Animal	Animal
Batterie	Battery
Caméra	Camera
Différent	Different
Fruit	Fruit

False cognates or false friends are words in two languages that share the same spelling or pronunciation but have different meaning, like the word ‘main’ in English that means ‘principal or essential’ and the word ‘main’ in French which stands for ‘hand’. Malmasi and Dras (2015) noted that “false cognates are similar words that have distinct, unrelated meanings” (p. 1).

The following table displays some French-English false cognates:

Table 2.2.

Some Examples of the French-English False Cognates

French	English
Attendre -Je t’attend. (I’m waiting for you)	Attend -I will attend the meeting. (to be present)
Blessé -Un soldat blessé. (injured)	Bless (to praise/glorify)
Envie (n) -J’ai envie d’un thé. (I want a tea)	Envy -I envy you. (to be jealous of someone)
Journée -Une bonne journée. (a nice day)	Journey -I went on a journey. (a trip/voyage)
Jolie -Une jolie robe. (pretty)	Jolly -She is a jolly, nice woman. (cheerful/joyful)

Partial cognates are words that share similar meaning in both languages in some contexts. Sometimes, they take the position of true cognates and the other times the position of false cognates. “...Semi-cognates, which, depending on their context of use, may be either true cognates false cognates” (Sitbon, Molla & Wang, 2015, p. 1). The following table displays some French-English partial cognates:

Table 2.3.*Some Examples of the French-English Partial Cognates*

French	English
Ancien	Ancient
-Le monument est ancien. (old)	-The monument is ancient. (old)
-L'ancien président. (former)	-The ancient president. (former)
Amateur (non-professional/lover of Something)	Amateur (dabbler)
Facteur (factor/mailman)	Factor (component/circumstance)

2.7. The Impact of French-English Cognates on the English Pronunciation

The English language has changed after the Norman Conquest in 1066. At that time, French was a powerful language that was used by the upper class. English became no more a pure Anglo-Saxon language but a language that is full of French words. Croll (2005) pointed out that “the Norman Conquest made English for two centuries that language mainly of the lower classes, while the nobles and those associated with them used French on almost all occasions” (as cited in Arab 2015). The effect did not touch only vocabulary but also other components of the language like pronunciation, spelling and grammar.

The influence of French on English could be noticed in French /English cognates. Some of the main features that clearly show the occurrence of transfer from French include the learners' tendency to use nasalized vowels, to use other French vowels instead of the schwa and to follow the French word stress patterns.

2.7.1. Nasalization

Nasal vowels are common in the French language. The production of nasal vowels requires lowering the velum so that a flow of air passes through the nose and the mouth as well. There are four nasal vowels in French which are: [ã] like in ‘dentiste’ meaning ‘dentist’, [ɛ̃] like in ‘pain’ meaning ‘bread’, [ɔ̃] like in ‘bouton’ meaning ‘button’, and [œ̃]

like in 'brun' meaning 'brown'. These nasal vowels are usually followed by the sounds /m/ and /n/ which are not pronounced. In fact, they just nasalize the vowels. There are nasal vowels in English as well in words like 'information' and 'impossible'.

However, in English the nasalized consonants /m/ and /n/ following the nasal vowels are pronounced. In a study conducted by Bouchhioua (2016) where Tunisian EFL learners and teachers who have already acquired French as an L2 and English as an L3 were the subjects of the study. The study aimed at investigating the phonological influence of some pronunciation features. The findings revealed that there is an interference of the L2 items in the L3 items such as the production of the syllables (in, yn, im) with the French pronunciation instead of the accurate English pronunciation.

Table 2.4.

Some Examples of Nasalization in French-English Cognates

The syllable	Word in French	Word in English	Faulty pronunciation
Im	Impossible /ɛ̃.pɔ̃.sibl/	Impossible /ɪm'pɔ̃.sɪbəl/	/ɛ̃.pɔ̃.sɪbəl/
	Important /ɛ̃.pɔ̃ʀ.tɑ̃/	Important /ɪm'pɔ̃:tent/	/ɛ̃.pɔ̃:tent/
In	Intéressant /ɛ̃.te.ʀɛ.sɑ̃/	Interesting /'ɪntrestɪŋ/	/ɛ̃.trestɪŋ/
	Influence /ɛ̃.fly.ɑ̃s/	Influence /'ɪn.flu.əns/	/ɛ̃.flu.əns/
	Information /ɛ̃.fɔ̃ʀ.ma.sjɑ̃/	Information /'ɪnfə'meɪʃn/	/ɛ̃.fɔ̃ʀ.meɪʃn/
En	Enveloppe /ɑ̃v.lɔ̃p/	Envelop /ɪm'veləp/	/ɑ̃'veləp/
	Dentiste /dɑ̃tɪst/	Dentist /'dentɪst/	/dɑ̃tɪst/

2.7.2. The Placement of Stress

Stress is an essential feature of pronunciation. In order to communicate effectively and avoid any misunderstanding while speaking English by FL learners, it is highly important to know the English stress patterns and to apply them correctly because wrong placement of stress may lead to producing a foreign accent rather than a native like accent. Odlin (1989) emphasized the value

of stress referring to the research conducted by Culter (1984) saying that it “indicates that stress patterns play a crucial role in listeners’ recognition of words” (p. 117). He added that “when non-native speakers do not use a stress pattern that is a norm in the target language, vowels and consonants may also vary from the target pattern, and this can result in a total mispronunciation by listeners”. In English, stress is known to be non-fixed; it could occur at various positions depending on the word. It could be word initial like in ‘camera’, word medial like in ‘banana’, or word final like in ‘refugee’. Syllables that contain a strong vowel in the centre are usually stressed; while, syllables comprising weak vowels in the centre like schwa/ə/ are not stressed. By contrast, stress in French is fixed occurring on the final syllable of a word. Therefore, it is easy to predict its place. The difference in stress rules between both languages may lead to interference of one stress system on another. In reference to a research done by Andrews (1984), Odlin revealed that:

French speakers, for example, tended to accent syllables at the end or close to the end of English words; that tendency accords with stress patterns in French, and it proved to be different from the stress patterns of speakers of other languages. Such a tendency suggests that cognate forms (e.g., *motor* and *moteur*) might often be unrecognizable when listeners (whether native or non-native speakers) do not take into account differences in stress patterns. (p. 118)

Odlin (1989) also mentioned Bansal’s (1976) argument demonstrating that the most problematic areas for Indians while speaking English is stress assignment; misplacing stress leads them produce unintelligible pronunciation “for instance, *diVIisions* was sometimes pronounced

Divisions and was consequently misperceived by British listeners as *REgions*, and *talking among themSELVES* was sometimes pronounced as *talking among THEMselves* and was consequently misperceived as *talking among DAMsels*” (p. 117).

Table 2.5.

Some Examples of Word Stress in French-English Cognates

Word in French	Word in English
Normandie /nɔʁmɑ̃di/	Normandy /'nɔ:məndɪ/
Canada/ka.na.da/	Canada /'kænədə/
Paris/pəri/	Paris /'pæris/
Atlantique/at.lɑ̃.tik/	Atlantic /ət'lætɪk/

2.7.3. The Schwa

The schwa or the “uh” sound is the most frequently occurring sound in English language; it gives the English speech a unique rhythm and a more natural pronunciation. The symbol used to represent the schwa in the IPA system is [ə]. Catford (1977) stated that:

...the symbol [ə] and the general type of obscure central vowel it represents are often known as schwa ... The symbol is often used for a fairly wide range of reduced or 'obscure' central vowels, such as the English unaccented vowel in the first syllables of again, potato. (As cited in Markovà, 2017)

The schwa sound could be pronounced in any vowel (a, e, i, o, u) or combination of vowels.

Table 2.6.*Some Examples of the Schwa Sound in Vowels.*

vowel	Word	Transcription
a	Around	/ə'raʊnd/
i	Impossible	/ɪm'pɒsɪbəl/
e	Manner	/'mænə/
o	Sailor	/'seɪlə/
u	Autumn	/'ɔ:təm/

It is worthy to note that the schwa sound is a weak and an unstressed sound, consequently, stressed syllables in English language are always pronounced with full vowels, whereas, unstressed syllables could be schwa or full vowels. According to McCully (2009), “presence or absence of stress correlates to some extent with the presence of schwa in phonemic transcriptions. Schwa is almost invariably diagnostic of stresslessness” (as cited in Markovà, 2017)

The schwa sound is pronounced by dropping the jaw slightly, relaxing lips, cheeks and tongue, and then pressing the latter a little, finally putting the tip of the tongue behind the bottom front teeth. In other words, the production of the schwa sound is neutral, quick, and soft more than the other vowels.

The schwa sound frequently occurs in function words when they are weak, unstressed, and contextualized. In other words, if a function word is strong, stressed, or stands alone, it cannot be pronounced with a schwa. The following table illustrates what has just been said.

Table 2.7.*Examples of Some Function Words in the Weak and the Strong Forms*

Word (strong)	Sentence (weak)
To/tu:/	I want to buy a new camera. /tə/
Can /kæn/	What can we do now? /kən/
For /fɔ:/	She was really happy for you. /fə/

The schwa sound has been always a main concern for both English learners and teachers. EFL students generally create an innovative pronunciation for the schwa sound. In other words, they tend to mispronounce the schwa sound in many cases. For instance, they pronounce unstressed vowels as full vowels instead of pronouncing them as schwa. Moreover, in listening activities students find problems in differentiating the schwa sound since it is quickly pronounced which affects their understanding of some words and leads to a misunderstanding of the whole product.

The schwa sound exists in the French language as well. It is often described as being closer to the mid-open vowel /œ/ in fact, however, Pleasant's (1956) study showed that schwa has a different quality and that it is shorter than /ø/ and /œ/. According to Morin (n.d.), the two main characteristics of the schwa in the French language are: first, it cannot occur in the initial position due to its weightless representation. Second, it often occurs between two consonants but not always especially in the Parisian dialect. For example:

exactement /egzakt+əmã/.

Conclusion

On the basis of what has been discussed, the previous mentioned theories to SLA and TLA share the same pedagogical goals which are comprehending, describing, and interpreting learner's performance in order to set suitable materials during the learning process. Therefore, these theories play an important role in understanding this process despite their limitations. It

should be mentioned that language transfer theory has succeeded in illustrating the positive and the negative impact of the source language and it could be considered as a base study to different hypotheses, for instance, CA and EA. Transfer is an important factor in the acquisition of the TL but it is not the only one.

Chapter Three

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Chapter Three: Field Work

Introduction

The present chapter is devoted to the practical framework which is intended to examine the impact of French on the English pronunciation in terms of cognates by Algerian EFL learners. In order to test this research hypothesis namely, that French influences the Algerian EFL learners' pronunciation of English cognates to a large extent, quantitative and qualitative instruments are used. The chapter provides information about the methodology used, a description of the sample and the nature of the test with a detailed description. It also deals with data analysis and interpretation of the results achieved from the tests.

3.1. The Research Design

3.1.1. The Sample

The test was administered to the first year students in the department of Arabic enrolling at Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia University of Jijel at the end the academic year 2017/2018. The sample consists of thirty students whose age is between 19 and 21. It is worthy to note that the participants were educated in Algerian schools and that their parents were natives to avoid any language impact on their performance.

3.1.2. The Tests

To gather data for conducting this study, a data collection instrument was used. Two tests (one in English and the other in French) were addressed to the first year students at the department of Arabic in order to find out whether the testees are affected by the prior knowledge of French during their performance in English. Among all the data collection tools, the test is considered to be the most relevant instrument to examine the students' pronunciation besides another tool which is audio-recording. The distinctive feature of this instrument is that it helps in collecting information from naturally occurring situations.

3.1.2.1. Description of the Tests

Each test consists of three exercises; the first exercise is about nasalization, the second is concerned with the stress assignment, and the last is about the schwa production.

❖ The Test in English

Exercise 1: Nasalization

It is an exercise of pronunciation. The examinees were asked to read nine simple sentences in English individually. Each sentence contains one nasalized word except for the ninth sentence which includes two nasalized words. The aim of the test is to test the production of the nasalized features (**in, en, im**) in words like **Internet, dentist, impossible**.

Exercise 2: Stress

It is an exercise of pronunciation. The examinees were asked to read nine simple sentences in English individually. The target words in these sentences were of different syllable structures. The purpose of the test is to explore how the students perform stress assignment. The words are nouns and adjectives like **accident, message, and camera**.

Exercise 3: The schwa

It is an exercise of pronunciation. The examinees were asked to read ten simple sentences in English individually. Each sentence consists of one word that contains a schwa sound. The aim of this exercise is to examine the students' production of the sound schwa in words like **machine, adore, and communication**.

It is worth-mentioning that the three exercises have the same question (read the following sentences). The students read the sentences one after the other and they were recorded separately.

❖ The Test in French

The test in French is the same as the English one. All the sentences in the three exercises were translated from English to French.

3.1.2.2. Administration of the Tests

The tests were introduced to thirty examinees as a research work that is conducted for the Master degree and the procedure was fully explained. Taking into consideration the obstacles faced including uncooperative students and students' absences, the procedure lasted for four days. In the first day thirteen students took the tests, seven students in the second day, the same number in the third day and three students in the last day. The participants were asked to read the sentences in English individually and silently. The recordings did not start until the students felt ready and the classroom was completely quiet. After taking a break of fifteen minutes, the examinees were asked to take the French test.

3.2. Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

This section is an attempt to analyze the students' performance in both tests referring to the research hypothesis. In order to achieve a clear interpretation, there will be an overall analysis then a detailed analysis of the gathered data.

3.2.1. Overall Performance in the Tests

3.2.1.1. General Results

In this subsection, the correct and the incorrect pronunciation of the target words are counted according to the students' pronunciation. The focus is on the whole word. Therefore, any mispronunciation of a part of any word from the intended words will be marked as incorrect, and only the perfect production of the whole word is considered as correct.

Table 3.1.

Correct and Incorrect Pronunciations of the Target Words in Both Tests.

Test	Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
English	216	24	684	76	900	100
French	808	89.78	92	10.22	900	100

According to the findings presented in the table, the majority of the students failed in producing the English words with a correct pronunciation. From 900 words, only 216 words with the percentage of 24 % were pronounced correctly; while, 684 words with the percentage of 76 % were pronounced incorrectly. However, most of the students succeeded in pronouncing the French words. Only 92 from 900 words with the percentage of 10.22 % were pronounced erroneously; whereas, 808 (89.78%) of them were well pronounced. This gives the impression that the level of the students' proficiency in French is better than in English. Although the target words in both tests were cognates, the words were easier to be pronounced in French than in English. As a matter of fact, it was expected that the students would achieve higher scores in French than in English due to its valuable position in the Algerian society and their familiarity with the phonological sound system since they have dealt with it before the English one.

3.2.1.2. Results per Exercise

The students' performance in each exercise in both tests is also considered. The results are displayed in table below:

Table 3.2.

General Results Achieved in Each Exercise in Both Tests

Exercise	Test in English						Test in French					
	Correct		Incorrect		Total		Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
01	66	22.67	234	77.33	300	100	268	89.33	32	10.67	300	100
02	125	41.67	175	58.33	300	100	256	85.33	44	14.67	300	100
03	25	8.33	275	91.67	300	100	284	94.67	16	5.33	300	100

As it is shown in Table 3.2, in the first exercise a considerable number of words (234 out of 300) was mispronounced in the English test; that is, 77.33% of the target words. In the same exercise in the French test, the results are totally the opposite; a high percentage (89.33 %) of words was correctly produced, whereas only 10.67% that is equivalent to 32 words was produced erroneously.

What is noticeable in the second exercise is that the number of correct and wrong instances uttered in English is close; that is, there is a relative balance. The learners' under-investigation have produced 125 (41.67%) correct words and 175 (58.33%) incorrect words. Concerning the French words, there are 256 (85, 33%) instances that have been appropriately uttered; whilst, there are few instances of errors made by the learners.

In the third exercise, the results presented reveal that in the test in English only 25 words out of 300 were pronounced correctly, while 91.67% of words were produced in a wrong way. Concerning the test in French, the majority of words were perfectly pronounced with the percentage of 94.67% which is considered to be the highest in both tests.

These findings confirm what has been stated in the previous table; the examinees' performance in the French test was better than the English one. It is important to mention that the worst performance in English and the best performance in French appear in the same exercise (exercise 3) which raises the possibility that the more the students master the pronunciation of words in French; the more they make errors in the English one.

3.2.1.3. Results per Individual Students

The results obtained by the individual students in both tests are also taken into consideration as shown in table 3.3

Table 3.3.*General Performance of Each Student in Both Tests*

Student	Test in English						Test in French					
	Correct		Incorrect		total		Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	10	33.33	20	66.67	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
2	07	30	23	70	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
3	12	40	18	60	30	100	21	70	09	30	30	100
4	05	16.67	25	83.33	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
5	07	23.33	23	76.67	30	100	28	93.33	02	6.67	30	100
6	03	10	27	90	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
7	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
8	07	23.33	23	76.67	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
9	11	36.67	19	63.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
10	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
11	12	40	18	60	30	100	26	80	04	20	30	100
12	07	23.33	23	76.67	30	100	27	70	03	10	30	100
13	14	46.67	16	53.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
14	04	13.33	26	86.67	30	100	24	80	06	20	30	100
15	14	46.67	16	53.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
16	17	56.67	13	43.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
17	02	6.67	28	93.33	30	100	26	86.67	04	13.33	30	100
18	06	20	24	80	30	100	28	93.33	02	6.67	30	100
19	06	20	24	80	30	100	20	66.67	10	33.33	30	100
20	07	23.33	23	76.67	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
21	06	20	24	80	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
22	13	43.33	17	56.67	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
23	03	10	27	90	30	100	20	66.67	10	33.33	30	100
24	04	13.33	26	86.67	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
25	07	23.33	23	76.67	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
26	05	16.67	25	83.33	30	100	28	93.33	02	6.67	30	100
27	03	10	27	80	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
28	03	10	27	80	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
29	00	00	30	100	30	100	24	80	06	20	30	100
30	05	16.67	25	83.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100

The table exhibits the general performance of each student in the test in English and the test in French. The findings obtained from the students reveal that although the scores in

both tests differ from one student to another, it is clearly seen that their achievements in French are higher than in English. This implies that the examinees face serious difficulties concerning the English pronunciation.

The results reveal an evident discrepancy between the correct scores in both tests: twenty-two students produced less than 10 correct words out of 30 in the English test. In addition, the worst performance in French was by the ninetieth and the twenty-third students with 20 correct words; While, the worst performance in the English test was by the twenty-ninth student who failed in producing any correct word. Concerning the best achievement in each test; in the English test it was attained by the sixtieth student who got 17 correct answers out of 30 and, he is considered to be the only student who got more than the average. In the French test the number of the best performance was shocking; eight students got the perfect score (30 out of 30) correct words. All the students who performed perfectly in the French test got less than 20 correct words in the English test; four of them got even less than 10 correct pronunciations in the test of English. This suggests that these participants have a good background in the French language which affects their achievement in the English test.

3.2.2. The Impact of French on English

3.2.2.1. General Analysis

In this subsection, the focus is on the students' mispronunciations that are due to interference from French. So, only the correct answers provided by the students in the French test are considered. Then, the mispronunciations of the corresponding cognates in English that resulted from transfer from French are counted. The general results of students' performances are illustrated in the table below

Table 3.4.*Correct and Incorrect Pronunciations of the Target Features*

Test	Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
English	256	28.44%	644	71.56%	900	100%
French	820	91.11%	80	8.89%	900	100%

It is noticeable that that data provided in table 3.4 are close to the first table 3.1 which implies that most of students that failed in pronouncing the whole word, failed in producing the target features.

Results obtained in each exercise are also taken into consideration, in order to check in which exercise the impact of French clearly appears:

Table 3.5.*Students' Performance in Pronouncing the Target Features*

Exercise	Test in English						Test in French					
	Correct		Incorrect		Total		Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
01	90	30	210	70	300	100	274	91.33	26	8.67	300	100
02	139	46.33	161	53.67	300	100	259	86.33	41	13.67	300	100
03	27	9	273	91	300	100	287	95.67	13	4.33	300	100

As table 3.5 shows, the degree of impact of French on the English pronunciation noticeably appears in the third exercise: 287 correct words in the French test and 273 incorrect words in the English test which raises the possibility that most of participants who performed correctly in the French test failed in achieving correct pronunciation in the English test. Therefore, the more the students master the pronunciation in French words, the more they make errors in test in English.

In order to verify what has been said earlier, the performance of each student is counted in table 3.6 below:

Table 3.6.

Students' Performance in Both Tests According to the Target Features

Student	Test in English						Test in French					
	Correct		Incorrect		Total		Correct		Incorrect		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	15	50	15	50	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
2	07	23.33	23	76.66	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
3	15	50	15	50	30	100	23	76.67	07	23.33	30	100
4	05	16.67	25	83.33	30	100	26	86.67	04	13.33	30	100
5	09	30	21	70	30	100	28	93.33	02	6.67	30	100
6	03	10	27	90	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
7	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
8	06	20	24	80	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
9	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
10	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
11	12	40	18	60	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
12	09	30	21	70	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
13	14	46.67	16	53.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
14	04	13.33	26	86.67	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
15	17	56.67	13	43.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
16	19	63.33	11	36.67	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
17	03	10	27	90	30	100	26	86.67	04	13.33	30	100
18	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
19	06	20	24	80	30	100	24	80	06	20	30	100
20	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
21	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
22	16	53.33	14	46.67	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100
23	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	20	66.67	10	33.33	30	100
24	06	20	24	80	30	100	25	83.33	05	16.67	30	100
25	09	30	21	70	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
26	06	20	24	80	30	100	28	93.33	02	6.67	30	100
27	08	26.67	22	73.33	30	100	27	90	03	10	30	100
28	04	13.33	26	86.67	30	100	29	96.67	01	3.33	30	100
29	01	3.33	29	96.67	30	100	23	76.67	07	23.33	30	100
30	06	20	24	80	30	100	30	100	00	00	30	100

Table 3.6 displays that all the students performed in the French test better than in the English test. In other words, most of the examinees applied the French rules of the target features appropriately. However, in the English test, the words were randomly produced or pronounced according to French background knowledge. This implies that French represents an important source of influence and emphasizes the fact that the degree of influence is changing but it still exists.

It is worth mentioning that the impact of French on pronunciation of the English cognates can be seen in different focus. Words' mispronunciations are divided into three categories:

1. The word is pronounced in the same way it is pronounced in French e.g. dentist /**dãtist**/, princess /**prẽsɛs**/, village /**vi.laʒ**/, message /**me.sɑʒ**/, adresse /**a.drɛs**/.
2. More similar to French than to English e.g. important /**im.pɔrtã**/, banana /**ba.na.na**/, adopted /**a.dɔp.tɪd**/, obliged /**ɔbligd**/, connected /**kɔ.nɛk.tɪd**/.
3. More similar to English than to French e.g. invitation /**ẽviteɪfən**/, impossible /**im.pɔsɪbəl**/, attention /**atɛnfən**/, communication /**kɔ.my.ni.keɪfən**/, control /**kɔ.trəʊl**/.

The degree of transfer from French is calculated by considering how many incorrect answers can be interpreted only in terms of interference from French in relation to the total correct answers given by the students in the test in French. The results are displayed as the following table:

Table 3.7.*Overall Degree of Transfer from French*

The source of mispronunciations	N	%
Mispronunciation due to transfer from French	644	78.54
Mispronunciation due to other reasons	176	21.46
Total	820	100

As table 3.7 shows, among 820 words that were pronounced correctly in French, 644 words in English were mispronounced due to interference from French represented 78.54%. This clearly clarifies the huge impact of French on English pronunciation and proves the students' unawareness of the real phonological patterns of English language.

To gain a clearer picture of how the words were mispronounced as a result of transfer from French, the 644 mispronunciations are categorized according to the three forms mentioned above: the same pronunciation of the French words, more similar to French than to English, and more similar to English than to French.

Table 3.8.*Categories of Mispronunciations in the English Test*

Categories of mispronunciations	N	%
The same pronunciation of the French words	319	49.54
More similar to French than to English	227	35.25
More similar to English than to French.	98	15.21
Total	644	100

Table 3.8 demonstrates the surprising results in the three categories. The 644 incorrect words are distributed as followed: approximately the half in the first category (49.54%), 227 that is equivalent to 35.25% in the second category, and only 98 which presents 15.21% in the third category. This creates an imbalance between the three types.

As mentioned above, some words were pronounced exactly the same way they are pronounced in French, the words concerned are illustrated I in the following table 3.9 (it is important to mention that only the perfect pronunciations in French of the English words are counted).

Table 3.9.

English Words Pronounced the Same Way as the French Pronunciation

N	Word	N	%
01	Machine	30	100
02	Voyage	29	96.67
03	Camera	28	93.33
04	Village	24	80
05	Internet	22	73.33
06	Message	21	70
07	Control	18	60
08	Princess	16	53.33
9	Dentist	14	46.67
10	Address	14	46.67
11	Insects	12	40
13	Impossible	11	36.67
15	Independence	11	36.67
16	Button	11	36.67
17	Adores	09	30
18	Important	06	20
19	Infinitive	06	20
20	Festival	06	20
21	Attention	06	20
22	Imperative	05	16.67
23	Moment	05	16.67
24	Communication	05	16.67
25	Invitation	04	13.33
26	Actor	04	13.33
27	Accident	01	03.33
28	Present	1	03.33

Table 3.9 shows to what extent the students are influenced by the French background. Among 644 incorrect words in the English test, 319 of them were pronounced exactly as

French pronunciation, which means approximately half of the incorrect words in English are pronounced exactly as the French pronunciation. It is noticed that no one of the participants could produce the word 'machine' correctly but they pronounced it in French instead. This implies the students' familiarity to this word because it is frequently used in their daily talk when mixing French with Arabic in French. In addition, the greatest majority of students uttered the words 'voyage', 'camera', 'village', 'message', and 'internet' in the French pronunciation which implies the students' unawareness of the way these words are pronounced in English. Therefore, the participants felt at ease to pronounce them in French. The results obtained from the table above entail that the students are not attentive to the French-English cognates and the huge impact of French on the English pronunciation.

Concerning the words that were pronounced in a way that is more similar to French than to English, the words are classified as follows:

Table 3.10.*Words Pronounced in a Way that is More Similar to French than to English*

N	Word	N	%
1	Banana	30	100
02	Obliged	30	66.67
03	connected	25	83.33
04	Adopted	19	63.33
05	Imperative	17	56.67
06	Address	16	53.33
07	Infinitive	15	50
08	Button	13	43.33
09	Adores	12	40
10	Princess	08	26.67
12	Important	06	20
13	Independence	06	20
14	Impossible	05	16.67
15	Dentist	04	13.33
16	Invitation	04	13.33
17	Actor	03	10
18	Present	03	10
19	Attention	03	10
20	Control	03	10
21	Insects	01	03.33
22	Internet	01	03.33
23	Accident	01	03.33
24	Moment	01	03.33
25	Communication	01	03.33

Table 3.10 shows that, most of the words that were not produced in French, were pronounced in a way that is similar to French like ‘banana’ and ‘obliged’. This emphasizes the first predictions; that having background in French affects the English pronunciation, for instance, despite the difference between the words “banane” and banana”, “obliged” and “oblige”, the students produced the two words in a way that is more similar to French. In addition, the words ‘imperative’ and ‘infinitive’ represent another instance of difficulty for the students. The majority of the students failed in pronouncing the final ‘v’ and substituted

it with an ‘f’ in accordance to the French words ‘imperatif’ and ‘infinitif’. Tables 1.9 and 1.10 reveal that the degree of transfer from French is changing from one word to another but still appears in all words.

Concerning the arrangement of words that are pronounced in a way that is more similar to English than to French are classified in the table as follows:

Table 3.11

Words Pronounced in a Way that is More Similar to English than to French

	Word	N	%
01	Communication	24	80
02	Invitation	15	50
03	Attention	11	36.33
04	Important	09	30
05	Control	08	26.67
06	Button	05	16.67
07	Impossible	04	12.50
08	Adopted	04	12.50
09	Connected	04	12.50
10	Message	03	10
11	Dentist	02	6.67
12	Independence	02	6.67
13	Internet	02	6.67
14	Insects	01	03.33
15	Princess	01	03.33
16	Infinitive	01	03.33
17	Actor	01	03.33
18	Festival	01	03.33
19	Adores	01	03.33

Table 3.11 clarifies how many times each word was pronounced in a way that is more similar to English. The first thing that could be noticed in this table is that the three words ending with “tion” are pronounced in a way that is more similar to English /ʃən/, which reflects the students’ consciousness about the difference between the pronunciation of the target morpheme in the two languages. The table also shows that, the other words included

in this table were pronounced in a way that is similar to English by only less than ten students. This means that the students are weak in terms of the English pronunciation.

3.2.2.2. Detailed analysis

In this subsection the focus is on specific pronunciation features, namely nasalization, stress, and schwa. It is worth mentioning that other pronunciation errors related to other features are not taken into consideration.

- **Nasalization:**

As shown in (the results per exercise), the number of correct answers in the test in French in the exercise about nasalization is 274 out of 300. The degree of transfer from French is calculated by considering how many times each word is pronounced with the nasalized vowel (French pronunciation) instead of the vowel followed by a nasal (English pronunciation).

Table 3.12.

Degree of Transfer from French: Nasalization

Word	Pronounced with a nasalized vowel	Correct pronunciation of the corresponding cognates	%
01 Insects	13	28	46.42
02 Dentist	19	29	65.51
03 Princess	24	28	85.71
04 Invitation	22	28	78.57
05 Important	20	26	76.92
06 Impossible	18	24	75
07 Independence	17	24	70.83
08 Internet	25	30	83.33
09 Imperative	20	28	71.42
10 Infinitive	20	29	68.96
Total	198	274	72.26

Table 3.12 exhibits that a considerable number of correct French cognates was pronounced with a nasalized vowel in the English words. For example, all students produced

the grapheme 'in' in the word 'internet' in the French test appropriately; among the 30 students, 25 of them failed in producing the same grapheme in the same word in the English test. This confirms the possibility that the more the students master the pronunciation of nasalized vowels in French, the more they make errors in pronouncing the same feature in the English test. A quick comparison between the ten words illustrated in the table shows that the word 'princess' represents the highest degree of transfer from French: 24 students applied the French nasalization rules in pronouncing the English words, while, the lowest degree of the French impact on English in this exercise is marked in the first word 'insect' that was pronounced 13 times as a nasalized vowel. This entails that more than half of the students are aware of the pronunciation of the intended words in both languages. Since the table examines three different features of nasalization (im, in, en), it is important to check in which feature students tend to transfer from French. According to table 3.12, there is a slight difference between the three features; however, it is essential to mention that the grapheme 'in' is the most problematic area because words like 'princess', 'invitation', and 'internet' represent the summit degree of transfer. This is due to the frequent use of these words in Algeria.

Table 3.13.*Degree of Transfer from French by Individual Student: Nasalization*

Students	Nasalized vowel	Correct pronunciation of French	%
1	01	07	14.28
2	09	10	90
3	00	06	00
4	09	09	100
5	06	09	66.67
6	08	09	88.88
7	10	10	100
8	07	09	77.77
9	07	09	77.77
10	09	10	90
11	04	07	57.14
12	06	10	60
13	02	10	20
14	09	10	90
15	01	10	10
16	04	10	40
17	10	10	100
18	09	10	90
19	07	08	87.50
20	08	10	80
21	07	10	70
22	06	10	60
23	03	05	60
24	09	10	90
25	07	08	87.50
26	07	10	70
27	06	10	60
28	10	10	100
29	07	08	87.50
30	10	10	100
Total	198	274	72.26

The table above represents a detailed description of each student's performance under the aim of discovering whether the overall result reflects each student's achievement or not.

It is clear that the vast majority of students were influenced by the French knowledge when they pronounced the English words. The great existence of transfer appears in the performance of the seventh, the seventeenth and the twenty-eighth, and the thirtieth students, they pronounced all the words in both tests with a nasalized vowel according to the French patterns; they represent the summit degree of transfer (100%). Student four pronounced 9 words in both tests with a nasalized vowel (100%). This means that in most cases students transfer the pronunciation of the target graphemes (in, im, en) from French to English. In this exercise the thirteenth and the fifteenth students are exceptional cases because they got balanced scores in both tests. Additionally, in the third student's performance no instance of transfer is marked. This reflects the students' awareness of the differences between the two languages. The general results in table 3.13 reveal that the degree of transfer is represented by 72.26%. this percentage reflects the significant interference of French; the students could not differentiate between the nasalized vowels (French pronunciation) and the vowels followed by a nasal (English pronunciation).

- **Stress Assignment**

As shown in (the result per exercise), the number of correct answers in the test in French in the exercise about stress is 259 out of 300. The degree of transfer from French is calculated by considering how many times the stress of each word is assigned in the final position (French pronunciation) instead assigning non-fixed stress (English pronunciation).

Table 3.14.*Degree of Transfer from French: Stress*

N	Word	Stress assigned in the final position	Correct pronunciation of the corresponding French cognates	%
01	Accident	02	25	08
02	Actor	03	21	14.29
03	Camera	27	29	93.10
04	Present	01	25	04
05	Moment	06	26	23.08
06	Voyage	29	30	96.67
07	Message	24	30	80
08	Festival	07	20	35
09	Village	25	30	83.33
10	Button	23	23	100
	Total	147	259	56.75

Table 3.14 shows that the degree of transfer in the second exercise is inconsistent, in other words, the degree of transfer in some words is very high, whereas it is barely noticed in others. According to the table, in the words ‘voyage’ and ‘camera’ stress was assigned in the final position according to the French pronunciation and only one student in the first instance ‘voyage’ succeeded in assigning stress to the right position in both languages. It is also significant to be mentioned that the words ‘accident’ and ‘present’ are exceptional cases because the French interference is not clearly marked; stress of the target words was assigned in the final position two times in ‘accident’ and only once in ‘present’. After it has been checked, the two students who mispronounced the word ‘accident’ in the English test are the sixth and twenty-ninth, both students pronounced the word appropriately in the French test and the student who who mispronounced the word ‘present’ in the English test is the twenty-first student. As a result, the greatest majority of the participants are aware of stress assignment of the English target words excluding the two aforementioned cases. Other examples that could be added to the previous interpretation are: ‘present’, ‘moment’, and

'festival'. It is noted that students encounter serious problems in pronouncing the word 'button' in both languages which led to the production of a different pronunciation. Since stress assignment is the main concern in table 1.14, it is important to state that students could not predict the place of stress when pronouncing some words in both English and French; that is to say some students apply the English rules of stress when producing French words and some of them apply the French rules when pronouncing the English words. This means that the majority of the students do not know the form of the target word because the word 'button' in French is frequently used by Algerians in daily life with a correct placement of stress.

Table 3.15.*Degree of Transfer from French by Individual Student: Stress*

Students	Stress assigned in the final position	Correct pronunciation of French	%
1	05	08	62.50
2	04	10	40
3	05	07	71.42
4	05	09	55.55
5	05	09	55.55
6	06	08	75
7	05	10	50
8	07	09	77.77
9	05	10	50
10	04	10	40
11	04	08	50
12	05	10	50
13	05	10	50
14	06	06	100
15	03	10	30
16	02	10	20
17	06	08	75
18	05	09	55.55
19	04	06	66.66
20	05	09	55.55
21	05	10	50
22	02	10	20
23	04	05	80
24	04	07	57.14
25	05	09	55.55
26	07	08	87.50
27	05	07	71.42
28	06	09	66.67
29	08	08	100
30	05	10	50
Total	147	259	56.75

The purpose of presenting each student's performance is to highlight the degree of the influence of French on the performance of each participant. The data shown in the table reflects what has been discussed in the general achievement of the second exercise. The interference of French could be noticed in the performance of all the students. In the French test eleven students' pronunciations of the target words were free of errors which affected stress assignment in English test. Considering the differences between English and French, it is not surprising that the examinees misapplied stress rules of the English language; because unlike French, stress in English is unpredictable and it requires a rapid shift from one word to another. This could be explained by the lack of knowledge of stress placement of some words which induce them to assign it according to the French rules. The highest degree of transfer appears in the performance of the fourteenth and twenty-ninth students with a percentage of 100%. The sixteenth and the twenty-second students are regarded as exceptional cases since the two students did a great work in the two tests. This implies their attentiveness to the different stress rules of the two languages.

- **The Schwa Sound**

As shown in (the result per exercise), the number of correct answers in the test in French in the exercise about the schwa sound is 287 out of 300. The degree of transfer from French is calculated by considering how many times the schwa sound was substituted with another sound in each word (French pronunciation) instead of producing the schwa sound (English pronunciation).

Table 3.16.*Degree of Transfer from French: Schwa*

	Word	Substitution of schwa with another sound	Correct pronunciation of the French cognates	%
1	Attention	18	29	62.06
2	Adores	22	28	78.57
3	Banana	28	29	96.55
4	Machine	29	29	100
5	Adopted	21	27	77.78
6	Address	29	30	96.67
7	Obliged	29	29	100
8	Communication	30	30	100
9	Connected	26	26	100
10	Control	29	30	96.67
	Total	261	287	90.94

Table 1.16 shows that the schwa production in all target words in the English was affected by the French language. The schwa was pronounced according to French pronunciations in a significant number of words. The table above reveals that the highest degree of transfer appears in the word ‘communication’; all the students succeeded in producing the target word in French and failed in pronouncing the same word in the English test. The schwa in other words like ‘banana’, ‘machine’, ‘adress’, ‘obliged’, ‘connected’ and ‘control’ also represent high degrees of transfer. The statistics presented in table 1.16 reflect the huge impact of French cognates on English pronunciation. The schwa sound is one of the most important sounds in English language and EFL students should be aware of its accurate production.

Table 3.17.*Degree of Transfer from French by Individual Student: Schwa*

Students	Substitution of schwa with another sound	Correct pronunciation of French	%
1	08	10	80
2	10	10	100
3	10	10	100
4	08	08	100
5	10	10	100
6	10	10	100
7	07	09	77.77
8	09	09	100
9	09	10	90
10	09	10	90
11	08	10	80
12	09	09	100
13	09	10	90
14	08	09	88.88
15	09	10	90
16	05	10	50
17	08	08	100
18	08	10	80
19	10	10	100
20	09	10	90
21	10	10	100
22	06	10	60
23	10	10	100
24	08	08	100
25	08	10	80
26	10	10	100
27	10	10	100
28	10	10	100
29	07	07	100
30	09	10	90
Total	261	287	90.94

The previous table was designed to break a whole into parts and examining the degree of transfer by analyzing each student's achievement in this exercise. A quick look at the table

shows that the majority of the students substituted the schwa sound in the English words by French sounds. The absolute interference of French is represented in the performance of sixteen students (100%). This could be the result of the difference between the English schwa sound and the French schwa sound. The case of schwa proves that there is an extreme tendency to transfer the habits of the L2 to L3. Since the schwa sound is frequently used in English and rarely appears in French, most of the informants did not get its pronunciation; that is, if the words in French were pronounced in a schwa sound, they would have answered correctly in English.

3.3. General Discussion

The phenomenon of transfer is commonly known in multilingual settings. This research was conducted to investigate the influence of French (L2) on English (L3) in the Algerian educational context which is characterized by a complex linguistic situation. The analysis of the tests reveals that there is a great interference of French in the English pronunciation; particularly, in the case of cognates. Algerian EFL learners are affected by the background knowledge of French cognates to a great extent. The general performance of the students in both tests displays a prominent level of transference. The students' performance in English is principally related to the French one in the sense that the mastery of French impedes the mastery of the English pronunciation rather than facilitating it. It was also noticed that the more the learners master the French pronunciation, the higher the degree of failure in English is. It is due the huge number of cognate vocabulary that the two languages share, the typological similarity between them and the correspondence of their orthographic systems that the Algerian learners over-generalize the rules of the French pronunciation and therefore apply them mistakenly when speaking English.

The scores obtained from the analysis of the individual performance of the learners reflected the overall performance and stress the fact that despite the level of each student

and the degree of influence that changes from one student to another, still there is a noticeable negative transfer. However, there are few exceptional cases where the participants performed well in both languages.

The results also show that the Algerian EFL students are influenced by the knowledge of French in pronouncing the syllables (in, im, en) in French-English cognates. The production of nasalized vowels in French differs from their production in English. The weak performance of the students in this area could be explained in terms of negative transfer. Negative transfer could be clearly noticed in other nasalized words that are inserted in the sentences as fillers.

Additionally, Algerian EFL learners are influenced by the French stress patterns in assigning stress to English words. The results exhibit that they face difficulties in placing stress to the right position. This indicates their failure to be sensitive to the English syllabic structures which is considered to be a challenge for them to predict the appropriate position of word stress.

The results attained in the tests serve to answer another research question; Algerian EFL learners are affected by the French rules in producing the schwa sound in English words. The schwa sound designates a troublesome area for the students because of its typicality to the English language. It could be concluded that they tend to avoid using the schwa sound since it rarely occurs in the French words. This tendency is common in such situations where the learners encounter some phonological items in the third language that are different or do not exist in the second language.

After analyzing the results and answering the research questions, the hypothesis of this study has been confirmed, this could be explained by both the impact of the French background knowledge and the irregularities of the English spelling patterns:

- a) Algerian EFL students have the tendency to produce the syllables (in, im, en) in English words like ‘information’, ‘important’, and ‘dentist’ with the French pronunciation rather than the English correct pronunciation.
- b) Algerian EFL learner follow the same rules of French when assigning stress to English words.
- c) Algerian EFL learners are likely to follow the same rules of French when the schwa sound in English words.

Throughout the analysis of the results, it has been observed that the most problematic words during the pronunciation of the English nasalized words are the ones that contain the syllable (in) like ‘insects’ and ‘princess’. Concerning word stress, the words ‘voyage’, ‘village’ are the most challenging; while, there are very few cases where the schwa sound has been pronounced accurately in all the words. Other instances of negative transfer from French to English have been noticed in other parts of the target words or in other words in the sentences. The French /r/ is one of the most influential sounds. Another example is the pronunciation of words containing the sound /tʃ/ like in ‘teacher’ with a /ʃ/ sound and the substitution of the ‘-ve’ in words like ‘imperative’ and ‘infinitive’ with a /f/ sound. Additionally, the /l/ in the word ‘should’ has been pronounced.

3.4. Pedagogical Recommendations

On the basis of the results obtained from this piece of research, some pedagogical suggestions are to be considered:

- ❖ English language teachers, applied linguists and material designers should be aware of the difficulties encountering the Algerian learners while speaking English and therefore design the educational programmes and syllabi (pronunciation syllabi) that correspond with the sociolinguistic situation Algeria.

- ❖ The teaching of pronunciation should be based on both theoretical and practical aspects.
- ❖ Pronunciation practice should be a major concern.
- ❖ Teachers should be trained in the pedagogy of phonetics.
- ❖ Pronunciation tasks should be well selected or designed, meeting the learners' needs and levels.
- ❖ Creating enjoyable communicative and interactive environment so that the learners practice and develop their pronunciation.
- ❖ Evaluating the learners' performance and looking after solutions to problems encountered by the students.
- ❖ Teaching pronunciation via the inclusion of cognates to facilitate the learning process and help them spot the pedagogical differences between languages.

3.5. Limitations of the Study

Although this research was carefully conducted, there were some unavoidable limitations. First, because of the lack of time, the data collection procedure was conducted in only four days and it would be better if it was done in a longer time. Second, the sample size was small, only thirty students participated and they may not represent the majority of the students. In addition, delivering a questionnaire to teachers beside the test and the audio recording would be a plus to this piece of research.

Conclusion

This chapter was devoted to the practical part that aimed at examining the French interference in the English pronunciation, specifically during the pronunciation of nasalized vowels, the placement of stress, and the production of the schwa sound. First year students at the department of Arabic, University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel were selected to be the research subjects. The examinees' pronunciation of the thirty French- English

cognates was analyzed statistically and studied gradually from the general to the specific.

Finally, the results matched the initial predictions.

General Conclusion

The study in hand has been intended to investigate the impact of French on the English pronunciation of the Algerian EFL learners at the University of Jijel. These languages have been chosen due to their growing importance in Algeria and the problems encountered by Algerians when learning English because of the interference of French.

This piece of research comprised three chapters. The first chapter highlighted the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria and the status of each language in the Algerian educational system. The second chapter shed light on the notion of language transfer throughout the different theories to SLA and TLA research with reference to the case of cognates that gives a clear image of the similarities and differences between the two languages and their sound systems. The last chapter was devoted to the practical part of the study. The chapter spotlighted the methodology and the research design. It also exhibited the results obtained and their interpretation.

The participants of this study were thirty (30) Algerian EFL students belonging to the University of Jijel. The findings of the study provided answers for the research questions and confirmed the hypothesis. The Algerian EFL learners are influenced to a great extent by the knowledge of French when pronouncing the English cognates. It is recommended that the use of cognates in teaching English pronunciation would facilitate the learning process and raises the learners' awareness about the differences between the English and the French sound systems.

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Appendix I

Test in French

Exercice 1: Lisez les phrases suivantes.

1. Les papillons sont des insectes.
2. Sara est partie chez le dentiste.
3. La princesse Diana est décédée en 1997.
4. Sam a envoyé une invitation à Peter.
5. Le petit déjeuner est un repas très important.
6. La paresse rend le succès impossible.
7. L'Algérie a obtenu son indépendance en 1962.
8. L'internet fournit d'énormes quantités d'informations.
9. Pour former l'impératif, utiliser l'infinitif du verbe sans 'to'.

Exercice 2: Lisez les phrases suivantes.

1. L'accident est survenu à 16.00.
2. Salah Ougrout est un acteur célèbre.
3. Marie n'a pas aimé sa nouvelle caméra.
4. Sophie était présente à l'anniversaire de Sara.
5. Adam passe des beaux moments avec sa famille.
6. L'administration de l'école prend les excellents étudiants en voyage en Turquie.
7. Emilie a envoyé un message à son amie pour lui rappeler du festival espagnol.
8. L'homme vit dans un petit village.
9. Ne touche pas le mauvais bouton.

Exercice 3: Lisez les phrases suivantes.

1. Les élèves doivent faire attention à leur enseignant.
2. Ben adore sa maman.

3. Sandra mange une banane.
4. La machine est ancienne.
5. La famille a adopté un enfant.
6. L'adresse est écrite sur l'enveloppe.
7. Kate était obligée de lire le livre.
8. Le téléphone est un moyen de communication.
9. Les villes sont connectées par le train.
10. La mère n'a pas pu contrôler ses émotions.

Appendix II

Test in English

Exercise 1: Read the following sentences.

1. Butterflies are insects.
2. Sara went to the dentist.
3. Princess Diana died in 1997.
4. Sam sent an invitation to Peter.
5. Breakfast is a very important meal.
6. Laziness makes success impossible.
7. Algeria got its independence in 1962.
8. Internet provides huge amounts of information.
9. To form the imperative, use the infinitive form of the verb without 'to'.

Exercise 02: Read the following sentences.

1. The accident happened at 16.00.
2. Salah Ougrout is a famous actor.
3. Mary did not like her new camera.
4. Sophie was present in Sara's birthday.
5. Adam spends great moments with his family.
6. The school administration takes excellent students on a voyage to Turkey.
7. Emily sent a message to her friend to remind her of the Spanish festival.
8. The man lives in a small village.
9. Don't hit the wrong button.

Exercise 3: Read the following sentences.

1. Pupils should pay attention to their teacher.
2. Ben adores his mother.

3. Sandra eats a banana.
4. The machine is old.
5. The family adopted a child.
6. The address is written on the envelope.
7. Kate was obliged to read the book.
8. The telephone is a means of communication.
9. The towns are connected by train.
10. The mother could not control her emotions.

Résumé

Le présent mémoire a pour but d'explorer le degré d'influence de langue Française sur la prononciation de l'Anglais par les étudiants Algériens de l'Anglais langue étrangère (ALE). La sélection des mots apparentés a été adoptée parce qu'ils représentent un domaine d'investigation considérable. La détermination du degré du transfert négatif serait une tâche facile du les différences phonologiques des mots apparentés de l'Anglais et le français. Cette étude est basée sur l'hypothèse que le français a une large influence sur la prononciation des mots apparentés Anglais par les étudiants Algériens de ALE. La présente étude se concentre sur trois caractéristiques de la prononciation : la nasalisation, la distribution de l'accent tonique, et la production du 'schwa'. Le transfert du français peut être déterminé dans le cas où les étudiants prononcent les syllabes (in, im, en) dans les mots Anglais avec les voyelles françaises nasalisées, produisent une prononciation erronée du 'schwa' en utilisant les même voyelles françaises, et utilisent les même procédures de la prononciation française quand ils accentuent les mots Anglais. Pour rassembler les données nécessaires, des méthodes de recherche quantitatives et qualitative ont été utilisées. Un test d'Anglais et un autre de français ont été administrés à 30 étudiants de la première année du département de langue arabe, l'université de Jijel, pour collecter des informations sur leur prononciation des mots apparentés Anglais-français. Les résultats ont montré qu'il y'a un grand impact de la langue française sur la prononciation des mots apparentés Anglais. Les résultats ont aussi démontré que les étudiants Algériens de ALE ont une tendance à produire les syllabes (in, im, en) dans les mots Anglais en utilisant la prononciation française plutôt que la prononciation Anglaise adéquate. En plus, ils appliquent les procédures de l'intonation du français quand ils distribuent l'accent tonique sur les mots Anglais et substituent le son du 'schwa' avec les sons français quand ils prononcent les mots Anglais. En conséquence, l'analyse des résultats

de la recherche ont confirmé l'hypothèse de recherche et ont apporté des réponses aux questions de la présente recherche. Finalement, une série de recommandation a été proposée pour des recherches ultérieures.

ملخص

تهدف الدراسة التي بين ايديكم الى التحقيق في مدى تأثير اللغة الفرنسية على نطق الجزائريين من متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية. اختيرت حالة الكلمات المشتركة لأنها تمثل نطاقا معتبرا للتحقيق. تحديد مدى النقل السلبي سيكون سهلا نظرا للفروق الصوتية في الكلمات المشتركة الإنجليزية-الفرنسية. وقامت الدراسة على فرضية ان اللغة الفرنسية تأثر بشكل كبير على النطق الإنجليزي للكلمات المشتركة عند المتعلمين الجزائريين لهذه اللغة كلغة اجنبية. تركز هذه الدراسة على ثلاث خصائص نطق محددة: التأنف، توزيع التشديد على الكلمات، وانتاج الصوت 'schwa'.

حدوث النقل من اللغة الفرنسية يمكن رصده عندما ينتج المتعلم المقاطع اللفظية (in, im, en) في الكلمات الإنجليزية بحروف علة للغة الفرنسية، اللفظ الخطل 'schwa' باستعمال نفس حروف العلة للغة الفرنسية وتطبيق نفس النمط في الفرنسية عند التشديد على الكلمات الإنجليزية. وقد استعملت طرق بحث كمية ونوعية من اجل جمع البيانات اللازمة. اختبار في اللغة الإنجليزية، و اخر في اللغة الفرنسية قدم لثلاثين طالبا في السنة الأولى بقسم اللغة العربية بجامعة جيجل بهدف جمع معلومات حول نطقهم للكلمات المشتركة الإنجليزية-الفرنسية. تظهر النتائج ان هناك تأثيرا كبيرا للغة الفرنسية على النطق الإنجليزي للكلمات المشتركة. تظهر النتائج أيضا ان للمتعلمين الجزائريين للغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية نزعة لإنتاج المقاطع اللفظية (in, im, en) في الكلمات الإنجليزية بالنطق الفرنسي بدل الإنجليزي الصحيح. علاوة على ذلك، يطبق المتعلمون أنماط التشديد الفرنسية عندما يحددون التشديد على الكلمات الإنجليزية واستبدال صوت 'schwa' بأصوات فرنسية عند نطق الكلمات الإنجليزية. وفقا لذلك، تؤكد نتائج البحث فرضية الدراسة وتقدم أجوبة لأسئلة البحث. أخيرا، اقترحت مجموعة توصيات لمزيد من البحث.