

<https://www.doi.org/10.31918/twejer.2361.48>

e-ISSN (2617-0752)

p-ISSN (2617-0744)



Kurdish Language Interference in Learning English as a Foreign Language: Grammatical Negative Transfer

Sarhang Qasim Awla

Dr. Karmand Abdulla Hamad

Ministry of Education/Dyana Scientific High School

PhD in TESOL

sqa530h@ena.soran.edu.iq

karmand.hamad@soran.edu.iq

Abstract

This article aims to demonstrate Kurdish interference in learning English as a foreign language in the field of grammar. Learning a foreign language usually involves the transfer of one's native language (NL) to a foreign language (FL). This can have both positive and negative effects. One of the sources of effects in speech production is still students' use of their NL, which is called "negative transfer." The tool of this study involves sixty first-grade students as participants who write compositions. It is to deal with students' grammatical errors in their written texts. In detecting the grammatical errors in the participants' compositions, 331 errors were found. Of the errors, 214 (65%) are considered NL interferences because the errors belong to several different aspects of grammar between the English and Kurdish languages. Many grammatical incongruities are found between Kurdish and English. This can support EFL teachers in helping their learners become familiar with differences and get over them in their learning.

Keywords: Native language (NL), Foreign Language (FL), Negative Transfer, and Interference

Introduction

Numerous factors influence the process of learning a foreign language (hereafter FL), including native language (hereafter NL), which seems to have a significant impact on the process of learning a language other than our mother tongue (Foley & Flynn, 2013). Many scholars have thoroughly debated the role of NL in FL learning. NL Interference in Learning FL occupies a central position in discussions related to language learning processes (Krashen, 1981, p.64). The term "native language interference" refers to the influence the learner's NL has on her/his learning of a foreign language (FL). However, FL is the language that the learner wishes to acquire (Thyab, 2021). In this study, the FL is English, and the NL is Kurdish.

Native language interference affects different aspects of language, like phonology, lexicon, syntax, and so on. As Crystal (1992) states, "the effect of linguistic elements of one language on those of another happens in circumstances such as bilingualism and language learning" (p. 393). Native language interference leads to different learning problems, including grammatical problems and errors. After several months of learning, learners occasionally make grammatical errors in English classes because, as Nunan (2001) states, "where the first and second language rules are not the same, errors are likely to occur as a result of interference between the two languages" (p. 89). Learners are usually unconcerned with the differences between English and Kurdish. According to Ellis (1997), in some aspects, the obstacles to FL acquisition are related to the distinction between one's NL and the FL. They may use Kurdish grammatical patterns unknowingly and make errors, a phenomenon known as "Negative Transfer."

Negative transfer refers to the interference of the NL (Corder, 1967, p.), which can sometimes make it challenging to learn an FL and even impede the student from mastering new language skills. Negative transfer happens when speakers and writers transfer items and structures from the NL that are not the same as the FL (Iskandar, 2020, p. 7). Kurdish and English differences are frequently highlighted as the sources of negative transfer. For instance, in Kurdish and English passive sentences, the role of the main verb is different. In all English passive sentences, the verb form is the past participle. Furthermore, the auxiliary verbs take the role of making various passive tenses like, "*The book is read*," "*The book was read*," and "*The book has been read*." In Kurdish, however, the main verb form changes to make different passive tenses like, (کتيبه که ده خوینریته وه) [*Kytêbeke dexwênrêtewe*]), (کتيبه که خوینراوده وه) [*Kytêbeke xwênrayewe*]), (کتيبه که خوینراوده وه) [*Kytêbeke xwênrawetewe*]).

In line with learning a foreign language, this research attempts to discover and identify the common grammatical differences between the Kurdish and English languages that cause difficulties in learning English among the Kurdish learners of English as an FL. According to Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008), "the ultimate goal of transfer research is the explanation of how the languages a person knows interact in mind" (p. 111).

This article attempts to analyze the English and Kurdish language differences, particularly grammatical differences, to answer these research questions: (1) What are the common grammatical sentence structures negatively transferred by Kurdish learners of English while learning the language? (2) How do the English and Kurdish languages' grammatical differences and negative transfer impede learning English as an FL? (3) Why is it

important for EFL teachers to be aware of the differences between the NL and the FL that impede the learning process?

Therefore, this study could be important work for teachers and language learners in several ways. First, by identifying errors and elaborating on the phenomenon of negative transfer, language instructors can be more vigilant of their students' learning problems. They can also develop a curriculum and select materials that help them overcome their learning difficulties. Second, students' errors are valuable feedback based on their errors, and some remedial teaching could be done. As Ferris (2002) maintains, "There is fairly conclusive evidence that teacher's feedback leads to more accurate revisions by students" (p. 56). Third, according to Lee (2004), students expect to get feedback from their teachers, and this can help them improve the quality of their writing because when students know the differences, they try to avoid mimicking their NL.

Theoretical Background

During the 1950s and 1960s, the behaviourist-learning theory was the most prevalent psychological theory (Ellis, 1997). Ellis states that, according to this theory, "language learning is similar to any other type of learning in that it entails the establishment of habits" (P. 31). Concerning language, Bloomfield (1933) elaborates to explain that speech is viewed as a practical response to a stimulus. He uses three sequential steps (practical event, speech reaction, and hearer's response) (pp. 22–23). Gass and Selynker (2001) add, "Within the behaviourist framework, speaking consists of mimicking and analogizing" (p. 90). We form analogies based on what we say or hear. The concept of habit is central to this viewpoint.

SLA research at that time was theoretically and methodologically based on behaviourist psychology (see, e.g., Ellis, 2008, pp. 359–361; Mitchell & Myles, 2004, pp. 29–33; Gass & Selinker, 2001, pp. 65–91). Gass & Selinker (1983) identify Robert Lado as the scholar whose name is most commonly connected with this early interest in transfer studies in the field of SLA. In his linguistic work 'Cross-Cultural Language', Robert Lado introduced the comparative analysis theory in the 1950s. This theory was based on behavioural-linguistic findings. It is said that when language users try to produce and understand an FL, they tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their NL. He found that the negative influence of NL on FL learning is greater than the positive influence (Lado, 1971, pp. 1–5). In acquiring a second language, "the main claim of behaviourist theory is the notion of negative transfer" (Gass, 2008, p.92). Learning a language, according to Lado, is comparable to developing a new set of habits. Interference is when old habits or languages get in the way of learning a new habit or language.

Language Transfer

The theory of language transfer is the phenomenon of transferring NL knowledge to the FL and is a common phenomenon in FL learning studies (Li, 2021). The concept of "transfer" from the NL to the FL has been developed and improved in several studies dating back to the middle of the twentieth century (Selinker, 1972; Kellerman, 1983; Anderson, 1983; Odlin, 1989; Odlin & Jarvis, 2004; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Jarvis, 2016; Golden et al., 2017). Expanding transfer to multilingual systems and diverse levels of linguistic analysis, for instance, into lexical semantics, syntax, and language functions. Kellerman argues that transfer is restricted to "those processes that lead to the incorporation of elements from one language into another" (p. 301).

Concerning the definition, the term "transfer" is defined as "the ability to extend what has been learned in one context to new contexts" (Byrnes, 1996, p. 74). Concerning language, Lado (1957) claims that the phenomenon of transfer is that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings, of their NL and culture to the FL and culture" (p. 2). For Selinker (1966), it implies "a process occurring from the native language to the foreign language if frequency analysis shows a statistically significant trend in the speaker's native language" (p.103).

According to Dai and Wang (2002), based on the findings of Wang (1990), Xu (1992), Ellis (1994), Odlin (2001), and others, "cross-linguistic similarities and differences would result in the following consequences" (p.5). The first is "positive transfer," which can only be confirmed by students from various backgrounds (Dai & Wang, 2002). In terms of the specific concept of positive transfer, Odlin (1989) claimed that a learner's NL could aid their FL learning, which could be considered positive transfer in general. For example, similar vocabulary would increase FL reading abilities (Dai & Wang, 2002). A positive transfer occurs when the NL System shares information with the FL System (Yang, 2019). On the other hand, language interference, which is most commonly mentioned as a source of "negative transfer" (i.e. errors), occurs when speakers and writers transmit elements and patterns that are not similar in both languages (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008, p. 182). The term "interference," as an interchangeable concept for "negative transfer," is a term that is used by Weinreich (1953) to describe "non-target-like structures (errors) that represent the learner's original language" (p. 1).

In the late 1960s, claims concerning the predictive power of the behaviourist interpretation of the NL-FL link were heavily

contested. Some FL acquisition scholars, influenced by Chomskyan linguistics, were explicit in their rejection of early NL transfer theories. Chomsky (1965) claimed that children are born with a pre-programmed ability to learn a language. As a result, external influences have little influence on their acquisition, guided by a set of universal and innate systems (Karim & Nassaji, 2013). Several SLA researchers, like Krashen (1984) and Dulay and Burt (1974), suggested that adult NL learners are comparable to children's NL acquisition and that learners' NL backgrounds have little influence on this process.

When the behaviourist notion of transfer lost popularity in the 1970s, the cognitivist paradigm redefined the meaning of language transfer (Meriläinen, 2010, p.12). This theory is based on the idea that NL is guided by systematic rules that are distinct from those of the language being acquired and those of the learner's original language (VanPatten & Benati, 2010, p.100). Moreover, Laughlin (1987) states that interlanguage is "the interim grammar constructed by second-language learners on their way to the target language" (p.60). This happens due to two factors. The first one is NL negative transfer. For example, tag questions like, "*She is my teacher, isn't she? He is my teacher, isn't he?*" In the Kurdish language, only one utterance is used for both previous tag questions like, (وانیه؟ [Wa nye?]). The second factor is FL overgeneralization. For example, regular verbs are changed to past by adding (-ed), but learners overgeneralize this rule for irregular verbs like (*make: maked*).

Many studies were conducted on language transfer and the theory of "negative transfer" because, traditionally, errors were considered to be a hindrance to language learning. This issue also helps learners become acquainted with their NL differences. Nisa

(2018) researched to detect, classify, and assess the impact of the mother tongue on grammatical errors in English as a Foreign Language. Findings demonstrated that grammatical errors are the most common of errors resulting from the influence of the mother tongue. Brogan (2015) conducted research at California University to examine the role of NL transfer in the FL classroom. The focus was primarily on lexical structures and idiosyncratic differences in verb requirements in English as an NL and Spanish as an FL. The findings demonstrated some differences that caused difficulties in learning the FL.

According to Mishra (2005), when learning an FL, a learner already has the habit of studying the NL, and therefore there would be interference from the NL in FL learning. This interference could be beneficial to the learning of an FL. It could also be negative and impede the acquisition of an FL (p. 43). As mentioned above, grammatical differences have received the most attention, perhaps because that is where the most negative transfer occurs. For example, in one study of Spanish high school students, Alonso (1997) found that of 138 interlingual errors, 96 were due to the transfer of grammatical structure. Grammatical differences are essential and are mostly focused on between languages. As Brown (2004) predicted, "Before the learner becomes familiar with the system of the FL, the NL is the only linguistic system upon which the learner can draw." "Therefore, not having enough knowledge in this sense will lead learners to use their system of syntax in the FL, and this interference makes them erroneous" (p. 298. For instance, Xiaoqing Sun (2014) shows that the Chinese expression mode disturbs the students' expressions in English. He claims that to distinguish the differences in syntactic structure between English and Chinese. One must first identify the differences in syntax between the two languages.

In line with previous studies, Kurdish and English have similarities and differences. Al Bajalani (2008) investigates the errors of Kurdish learners of English; she worked on the 1st-grade students' composition errors belonging to negative transfer. She tabulated the students' errors and found common mistakes in general that the majority of the participants face due to the distinctions between the Kurdish and English languages.

Although several studies compare the Kurdish and English languages in some linguistic aspects, no studies have been found to compare Kurdish language patterns to their English equivalents in the field of grammar. This can be the gap for further research to find those differences that cause negative language transfer. Consequently, this project attempts to fulfil the significance of negative transfer in grammatical sentence structures for EFL learners.

Methodology

This project adopts an exploratory mixed-method design. It is characterized by "an initial qualitative phase of data collection and analysis, followed by a phase of quantitative data collection and analysis, with a final phase of integration or linking of data from the two separate strands of data" (Berman, 2017, p.6). This study uses students' written texts as an instrument for data collection. This means that the data collection tool in this study was to ask students to produce a written text (Latief, 2009).

The data was gathered from 60 first-grade students in the English Language Department/Faculty of Art and the English Language Department/Faculty of Basic Educational Studies at Soran University in Soran district/Kurdistan region/Iraq. They were asked to write a written composition in English. NL interference

was detected, and grammatical errors were identified. First-year college students are more likely to struggle with producing correct expressions and grammatical sentence structures.

NL interferences were detected, and grammatical errors were identified. Through their compositions and NL interferences, while writing the compositions, we can find evidence to prove Kurdish language interferences in learning English as a foreign language and support the claim of the impact that NL has on the learning of FL. The data was used to answer the following two research questions:

1. What are the common grammatical sentence structures negatively transferred by Kurdish learners of English while learning the language?

2. How do the English and Kurdish language grammatical differences and negative transfer impede learning English as an FL?

The research strategy to select the participants is "cluster" sampling. The sample type is when "the whole population is divided into clusters or groups" (Wilson, 2014, pp. 196–197). Subsequently, a random sample is taken from these clusters. Thus, the participants were selected randomly from two faculties of Soran University, and among the four grades, grade one was chosen. Concerning the sample size, according to the English language department in the College of Arts and College of Education, selecting 60 students as participants among 1st-grade students at the level of college equals approximately 25% of the total students at this level.

Data Analysis

Linguists have established two important tools to analyze learners' FL skills and detect the causes beyond the errors they make when learning FL. The first one is Contrastive Analysis (CA), a deductive approach that belongs to the behaviourist school. The second tool is error analysis (EA), an inductive cognitivist approach (Fischer & Fischer, 1979). The goal of CA is to compare and analyze the differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar between the learner's FL and NL. On the one hand, it looks for similarities to improve positive transfer that facilitates the process of learning and differences to prevent interference (Zhao, 2019, p. 943). According to Lado (1966), CA is based on the assumption that "we can predict and describe patterns that will cause difficulty in learning, as well as those that will not, by systematically comparing the language and culture to be learned with the student's target language and culture" (p.vii). CA assumes that the patterns and rules of NL cause difficulties in FL learning (Albalawi, 2016).

For many years, the performer's NL had been presumed to be the only major source of syntactic errors in adult FL performance. A lot of material preparation was done with this assumption in mind (Banathy et al., 1966). Subsequent empirical studies related to errors made by FL students led to the discovery that many errors are not traceable to the structure of the NL but are common to FL performers of different linguistic backgrounds (e.g., Richards, 1971; Buteau, 1970). These findings have led several scholars to question the value of CA and to argue instead for error analysis. Then, Corder captures the transition from the CA to the EA approach (Bajalani, 2008). According to Corder (1975), FL errors do not reflect faulty imitation. Rather, they are to be viewed as indications of a learner's attempt to figure out some system, that is,

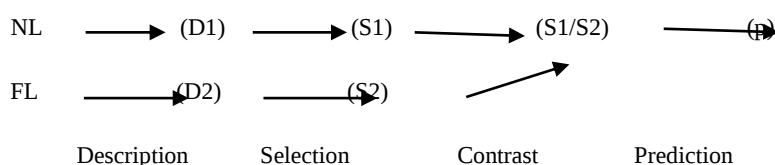
to impose regularity on the language the learner is exposed to (p. 202). According to Fisiak (1981), CA must be carried out despite some flaws because not all CA hypotheses are incorrect. Fisiak (1981) further explains, "EA as part of applied linguistics cannot replace CA; it can only supplement it" (p. 7). CA is to compare the NL and FL for similarities and differences. (Gass, 2001, p.102).

CA is mostly concerned with (1) describing the contrasts and similarities between two or more languages in detail. (2) It serves as a good model for comparing them. (3) It determines which items are comparable and how they should be compared. It defines terms like congruence, equivalence, and contrast, among others. (5) It's curious about how a universal concept like X is expressed in languages A and B. (6) It identifies potential difficulty areas in the target language (TL) where interference is likely to occur. (7) It also highlights the importance of both similarities and differences (Fisiak and Mickiewicz, 1981, as cited in Boskany, 2015, p. 80).

This study used data from a group of individuals to analyze and describe the grammatical errors that occur naturally with no intervention. Samples of grammatical errors from the students' compositions were argued intensely to earn evidence for corroborated Kurdish language interference in learning English as an FL. After that, the evidence was shown in tables and numbers. The compositions were read carefully to detect every grammatical error and interlanguage or interferential error. Then, any grammatical errors related to Kurdish interferences in English were determined.

Previously, "contrastive" and "errors" analysis approaches were explained theoretically. Here, only CA was utilized to form the applicable approach to data analysis. The goal of CA is to discover principles that can be applied to practical problems in

language education, with a particular focus on transfer, interference, and equivalence (Fisiak & Mickiewicz, 1981, p.1; Hartmann & Stork, 1972, p.240). In compliance with the stages of the CA approach, like description, selection, contrast, and prediction (Whitman, 1970, p. 191), students' errors were detected and analyzed. The four steps are: (1) Comparing Kurdish (NL) and English (FL) in terms of grammar and writing formal descriptions (D1 and D2) of them. (2) Choosing the forms (S1 and S2) for comparison from the descriptions. (3) Contrast the chosen forms (S1/S2). (4) Making a difficulty prediction (P) based on the contrast:



The contrastive analyst gives a formal description of the learners' NL and FL at the description stage. All contrastive linguists are likely to agree that the two descriptions must be of the same formal type, as in contrast to linguistic forms, one of which is described transformationally and the other is tagmemic. The former generates only the well-formed or grammatically correct sentences of a language, and the latter defines the basic units of language as composite elements. However, the difficulties associated with the concept of similar descriptions must be acknowledged, particularly when applied to diverse language stocks (Belasco, 1964, pp. 5–10).

Selection is the second step in the contrastive process, which is often considered the most essential since it reflects the investigator's conscious and unconscious beliefs about the nature of language contrast, interference, errors, and so on. The analyzer

selects certain forms (linguistic elements, norms, structures, and so on) for contrast at the selection stage, as it is difficult to contrast every aspect of two languages (Whitman, 1970, p. 191).

Then, the contrastive process is performed at the contrast stage, highlighting the parallels and differences between the two languages. Finally, the contrastive analyst anticipates the significant issues and obstacles that the learner may or may not face when learning the FL at the stage of prediction (Whitman, 1970, p. 191). When a difference between NL and FL is selected, contrasted, and predicted, it is possible to interfere with NL items, rules, or structures in the FL. Differences lead to interference, which causes language learners difficulties and challenges.

Different NL & FL items → Interference (NL into FL)
Difficulty in learning FL

Findings and Discussion

There is consensus among linguists who believe that at least "one of the reasons beyond errors in FL production is NL influence or negative transfer, especially in grammar" (Fauziati, 2017). "The role of NL influence on the learning of FL syntax has been a somewhat more controversial issue" (Meriläinen, 2010, p. 23). It is demonstrated that grammar is important because it teaches students how to put words together to form sentences. Therefore, the dissimilarities between NL and FL in grammar can impede a quicker learning process because this may negatively transfer the NL knowledge into FL. This study aimed to identify grammatical differences that cause negative transfer from Kurdish to English. Specifying the language patterns and sentence structures between both languages is essentially the premise of the project objectives. We try more to figure out how Kurdish and English are

grammatically different and how these differences cause Kurdish learners of English to make errors when they write in the FL.

One of the insights from the achieved data tells us that many language seekers, especially those in elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate levels, think in their NL before speaking in the FL. They think and produce language in their mind according to their NL rules and then convert their thoughts and ideas to the FL as they have appeared in their written texts and compositions. For example, one of the participants wrote this sentence: (**I plan for my next year studying tomorrow.*) It is incorrect concerning the tense of the sentence; using *simple present* tense for *the future* in this condition belongs to the participants' NL background. In the Kurdish language, *simple present*, *present continuous*, and *future simple* have the same sentence structure, but tense markers or adverbs of time (e.g., *every day*, *now*, *tomorrow*, etc.) identify the tense of the sentences. Consequently, the error may relate to this basic grammatical incongruity between the Kurdish and English languages.

According to Lado and Fries (1948), the negative influence of previous habits on acquiring a new language is referred to as interference. Language experts in the 1960s developed Contrastive Analysis as a pedagogic tool to study the interference effect of NL and FL learning and to help teach an FL in the most efficient way possible (Mishra, 2005, p.43). English and Kurdish, as two Indo-European languages, have several grammatical compatibilities and dissimilarities. For example, the sentence (*You must decide.*) has a similar Kurdish word order (تۆ پێویسته بڕیار بدەى, [*To pêwyste bryar bydêy*]). However, errors belong to incongruent patterns in the NL and FL. For instance, the Kurdish language includes no gender

pronouns; so many writers make such errors and hardly learn to use gender pronouns appropriately.

Fries (1945) stated, "The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (p. 9). In that, CA compares the structure of grammatical issues with each other to find parallels and discrepancies. The ultimate aim is to estimate which sections would be easy or difficult for students to learn. In this study, the focus is on the differences between the two languages because "what one has to do in learning a second language is to learn the differences" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 97). The steps of the contrastive approach are the machine and the analysis of the errors made by the participants. The steps are description, selection, contrast, and prediction (Whitman, 1970, p. 191).

1. Description stage: A formal description of the learner's NL and FL is provided. Major grammatical aspects are chosen and described. For example, English "pronouns" are divided into two groups: subject pronouns (*I, you, we, they, he, she, and it*) and object pronouns (*me, you, us, them, him, her, and it*), whereas, Kurdish has only one group of pronouns as subject and object (من *mn*, تو *to*, ew *ew*، ئێمه *êma*، ئێوه *êwa*، ئهوان *ewan*).

2. Selection stage: The selection stage involves selecting grammatical forms (S1 and S2) for contrast from the descriptions. Specific aspects of the language are selected and determined to clarify two parallel situations to prepare for the contract stage. For instance, at least five basic sentence patterns exist in both languages. In English, these sentence structures are very common (SV, SVO, SVC, SVOC, and SVOO) (Stockwell, Bowen, &

Martin, 1965, pp. 18–41). In contrast, the Kurdish language includes five basic sentence patterns (SV, SOV, SCV, SOVC, and SOOV) (Qalbakani Zmani Kurdi [*Kurdish Sentence Patterns*], 2017). The selection must be in similar grammatical fields; NL sentence patterns with FL sentence patterns, NL pronouns with FL pronouns, and so on.

3. Contrast stage: Making a comparison between the two forms (S1/S2). They are either the same or the different forms. For example, when the analyst chooses gender pronoun for third person singular, after contrasting English and Kurdish, the outcome implies that English distinguishes between the genders (*he* male, *she* female, and *it* neuter). However, the Kurdish pronoun (ئەو ew) is the only alternative to them (Zman w Adeby Kwrdy [*Language and Literature of Kurdish*] 7th Class, 2015, p.93). Incongruity is available between the gender pronouns of both languages.

4. Prediction Stage: Using the contrast stage to predict difficulty is the last step to recognize if there is a problem. Usually, difficulties comply with the differences between the FL and NL. In the case of the gender pronoun, as mentioned in the contrast stage, this may result in frequent errors, even at advanced levels. In composition 51, the writer incorrectly uses *his* on its behalf (**the dog died because of his reflection*). Therefore, Kurdish learners may face difficulties in learning English pronouns in general and gender pronouns specifically.

The participants' selected errors could prove the reality that Kurdish as an NL can influence English as an FL. Moreover, the errors that happen because of NL and FL grammatical differences can reveal that Kurdish learners' linguistic background interferes with learning English. We extract and analyze various samples

from the participants' written texts and compositions to better understand.

The symbol () means incorrect examples, but (-) means correct examples.*

In Kurdish, suffixes are added to nouns indicating whether they are definite or indefinite, but in English, articles are independent words that come before the nouns. In **Sample 1**, the article's omission may belong to the Kurdish article system usage, which says that Kurdish speakers use suffixes. Moreover, when an article is required before a word, Kurdish speakers tend to omit it, called an omission. For example, (**my sister is a nurse*) for (*my sister is a nurse*) because Kurdish speakers do not use articles in such statements before nouns.

In **Sample 2**, another issue manifests. The articles (a, an) are used in different cases, with the nouns that start with the five vowel letters (a, i, o, u, e) and *a* with the nouns that start with other letters. However, Kurdish has no such grammatical usage of articles; therefore, they may face difficulties.

*Reading is a important thing in our life.

- Reading is an important thing in our life.

*They haven't a enough time to relax.

- They haven't enough time to relax.

Plural S is the equivalent of the Kurdish plural suffix (ان [an]). In the majority of cases, they can be used similarly but in some cases, they have different uses. In sample 7, after *both* the noun is

plural, whereas in the Kurdish language (both, ههردووک) can be used with singular nouns. This might confuse Kurdish English speakers.

Another important point concerning the use of the plural “S” with the pattern (*adjective + Noun*), usually plural “S” is added to the noun like (*good girls*), while in the Kurdish language the suffix (ان) is shifted to the end of the adjective (کچه باشهکان [Kycê bashakan]), here, (باشهکان) is the adjective, which comes after the noun. This difference could mislead the language users as in Sample 4.

*Both gender create a beautiful friendship.

- Both genders create a beautiful friendship.

*These two different school.

- These two different schools.

The auxiliary (*v. to be*) is usually agglutinated to a noun or an adjective as a suffix in Kurdish, rather than being utilized in its full and independent lexis. As a result, Kurdish speakers may occasionally omit as has happened in Sample 5. For questions, auxiliaries are used according to the tense, subject, and verb form. All the auxiliaries like (*v. to be*, *v. to do*, *v. to have*) have only one Kurdish equivalent which is (ئایا [aya]), because of that, using the auxiliaries are usually difficult for Kurdish English learners and they may produce erroneous patterns in their process of learning English. Many participants made mistakes like in Sample 6. Various auxiliaries might be used interchangeably because of the auxiliary incongruity between both languages.

In the English language, third-person singular pronouns affect the use of auxiliaries. (*Do*) is used with *I, you, we, they*, whereas, (*does*) is used with *he, she, and it*. If you look at Sample 7, you see that the learner used an erroneous auxiliary to make a negative. In these cases, Kurdish learners of English face challenges because third personal pronouns do not create similar changes to the auxiliaries.

*My family always with me.

- My family is always with me. Omission

*Is earthquakes happen in our city?

- Does earthquakes happen in our city?

*In my live mother don't change.

- In my life mother doesn't change.

Pronouns are words that act as substitutes for nouns. They are frequently used to avoid repeating the nouns they refer to (Chan, 1986). The Kurdish language has only one set of personal pronouns, which can take the roles of subject and object in a sentence, but English includes two independent sets of subject and object pronouns (subject: *I, you, you, we, they, he, she, it*; and object: *me, you, you, us, them, him, her, it*). This difference can obstruct the learning of the target language. Learners could be confused about using "he" or "him" instead of the third-person singular male pronoun (هه [ew]), and in **Sample 8**, the participant used "him" instead of "he." For Kurdish learners of English, the noun that takes on the role of subject or object makes no difference when using a pronoun on behalf of the noun.

Even for “possessive adjectives”, English has another semi-independent set like (*my, your, our, their, his, her, and its*), whereas, Kurdish speakers add the prefix (هی [hy]) to every pronoun when making possessives. For instance, *I* becomes *my* in English, but (ئهو [ew]) becomes (هی ئهو [hy ew]) in Kurdish. **Sample 9** is an example of an error made by one of the participants; he misused the possessive adjective.

Independent pronouns are not used in some Kurdish statements; instead, agglutinated pronouns are used; for example, (من هیواده‌خوایم برۆم [mn hywadexwazm brom]) the underlined letter is the agglutinated pronoun that stands for *me*. The sentence translation is (*I hope I go*), but in Sample 10, the writer, because of his Kurdish background knowledge, didn't use the second independent pronoun *I*. Such negative NL transfer of knowledge is called first language interference.

In Kurdish, there is no gender distinction for the third person singular, whereas in English there is. For third person singular male *he*, female *she*, and neuter *It* are used, the Kurdish pronoun (ئهو [ew]) is the only option (Zman w Adeby Kwrdy [Language and Literature of Kurdish] &th Class, 2015, p.93). This may result in frequent errors, even at senior levels. □

*I hope him be successful in life.

- I hope he is successful in life.

*A dog was died because of his reflection.

- A dog was died because of its reflection.

*I said could draw classic picture.

- I said I could draw classic picture.

In Kurdish, the third-person singular "S" does not exist. Because the vast majority of verbs in the third person singular in the simple present are produced by adding -S to the primary form, it can obstruct accurate English learning. Teachers of English classes face difficulties helping their students overcome the third-person singular "S," which is difficult for Kurdish English learners. More practice and various techniques are necessary to adapt to this "S". **Sample 11** is an example of a participant's omission.

The "S" cannot be generalized to all the main verbs in the sentence because, when they come after modals, neither the modal nor the main verb takes the third person singular -S. This is another difficulty for the learners because they must distinguish between the two patterns (*subj. + v.* and *subj. + modal + v.*). Sample 12 is a grammatical example.

*Reading give you a bright future.

- Reading gives you a bright future.

*The hardest decision can makes.

- The hardest decision can make.

The English and Kurdish languages have various grammatical sentence structures and patterns. Although some of them are similar, there are still some incongruities. As for the dissimilarities, English is different from Kurdish in several sentence patterns (*SVO* vs. *SOV*, *SVC* vs. *SCV*, *SVOC* vs. *SOVC*, and *SVOO* vs. *SOOV*). For example, an English *SVC* sentence pattern like (*Azad sleeps in*

bed) becomes SCV in the Kurdish language (ئازاد له ناو جیگهیدا)
دهخهویت *Azad in bed sleeps).

Sample 13 is ordered incorrectly because the participant translated the Kurdish sentence into English. This is because the Kurdish SOV sentence pattern converts to SVO in English. For the same reason, the pattern of sample 14 is SVCO, which is Kurdish word order, while in English, it is SVOC. Such differences in structure lead the learners to organize the sentences incorrectly.

Sample 15 is disordered. The exact Kurdish expressions are translated into English. While adjectives in English generally come before (precede) the nouns (*a hard lesson*), they usually come after (follow) the nouns in Kurdish (**a lesson difficult*) (Alexander, 1999, p.82). Kurdish speakers may employ the same NL structure to create FL expressions like (**a car old*) for (*an old car*). In Sample 15, the participant translated his/her Kurdish meaning and words into English:

*Life without mother is not be.
↓ ↓ ↓ ↓
(Zhian babe daik nabetn)

EFL teachers must be aware of these distinctions to support their students' learning because these errors result from linguistic differences that have a negative influence on the transfer of NL knowledge into FL production.

*I should no time waste.

- I shouldn't waste time.

*I have lessons difficult.

- I have difficult lessons.

*Life without mother is not be.

- There is no life without a mother.

Tenses in Kurdish are different from English in some ways. Usually, prefixes and suffixes make various tenses, which are added to the main verb in the Kurdish language, like (present simple: *کتێبه‌که ده‌کرێت* [ktêbeke dekrêt], past simple: *کتێبه‌که‌ی ک‌ری* [ktêbekay kry], present perfect: *کتێبه‌که‌ی ک‌ری‌وو‌ه* [ktêbekey krywe], past perfect: *کتێبه‌که‌ی ک‌ری‌بو‌و* [ktêbekey krybw], and so on). whereas in English syntax, auxiliary verbs come before the main verbs to form various tenses in addition to adding -ing, -ed, and -S, for example (present simple: *He buys the book*; present continuous: *He is buying the book*; present perfect: *He has bought the book*; past perfect: *“He had bought the book*, and so on). The question that needs to be answered is: Are these differences beyond the errors? The answer is “relatively yes”. The following 16-17 samples demonstrate that Kurdish learners have difficulties when there are differences.

The structures of *present simple*, *present continuous*, and *future simple* tenses in Kurdish are similar, but each has its own independent pattern in English. Kurdish speakers differentiate the tenses by using time adverbs like (*هه‌موو پوڤژیک* every day, *ئێستا* now, *به‌یانی* tomorrow and so on). For example, for these three sentences (*John drinks water*, *John is drinking water* and *Jade will drink water*) Kurdish language has only one structure, which is (*یونس ناو*) [Yonis aw dexwatewe.]. For signifying the tense of the sentence Kurdish speaker use time adverbials like:

John drinks water everyday - هه‌موو رۆژێک یونس ئاو ده‌خواته‌وه.

John drinks water now. - ئیستا یونس ئاو ده‌خواته‌وه.

John drinks water tomorrow. - به‌یانی یونس ئاو ده‌خواته‌وه.

Although a wide range of grammatical errors can be heard in non-native speakers' speech, their types and rates are not random (Lee & Seneff, 2008, p.89). It has been discovered, for instance, that certain grammatical formations cause particular difficulties for Kurdish English learners. Therefore, it is difficult for learners to comprehend the structures and differentiate among the tenses. They may misuse and confuse them when using such tenses.

*They had push the car.

- They had pushed the car.

*I plan tomorrow for my next year studying.

- I will plan tomorrow for my next year studying.

Kurdish formality uses the private question word (ئایا [Aya]) to indicate a Yes/No question. There is no other Kurdish translation for (do/does/did/is/are...?). A Kurdish speaker could get all the auxiliary words necessary to create a question in an English Yes/No question mixed up. Additionally, the verb form remains the same when a Kurdish affirmative statement is transformed into a question. For instance, (تۆ چوویت بۆ بازاڕ) [To cwyt bo bazaar]) can be changed to question only by placing (ئایا) like (ئایا تۆ چویت بۆ بازاڕ؟) [Aya to cwyt bo bazaar?]). Similarly in English, one may say

(**Did you went to market?*) rather than say (*Did you go to market?*). Sample 18 confirms this phenomenon.

*Are you live for your goals?

- Do you live for your goals?

Concerning negatives, other distinctions that could lead to Errors by Kurdish English learners include the fact that in Kurdish, a statement can only be made negative by adding the prefix (ئ na, نه ne, نی ny, or مه me) to the verb (Zman w Adeby Kwrdy [Language and Literature of Kurdish] 7th Class, 2015, pp.33-34). Therefore, Sample 19 shows that 'Not' may be treated similarly by the Kurdish learners of English, which is regarded as negatively transferred knowledge. For example, (**He not eat breakfast.*) for (*He doesn't eat breakfast* or *He didn't eat breakfast*). Furthermore, in English the word "Not" is conjugated with auxiliaries to make negative, but in Kurdish the prefixes (ئ na, نه ne, نی ny, or مه me) are added to the main verb.

Confusion among the auxiliaries is another challenge for Kurdish learners. If you look at **sample 20**, you will see that the participant misused the auxiliary in making the sentence negative. For Kurdish learners, the pattern (auxiliary + not) is not applicable in making the sentences negative because they only add a prefix to the verb. As a result, Kurdish learners may encounter difficulties and make mistakes as a result of transferring their NL knowledge.

*You not always did that.

- You didn't always do that.

*We havn't judge quickly.

- We don't judge quickly.

Both Kurdish and English have significant grammatical parallels and variances. Kurdish learners may have difficulties because of grammatical variances; as a result, teachers can assist their students in overcoming these obstacles. CA is relatively helpful in exhibiting the similarities that assist the learners in learning easier and predicting the difficulties that might happen because of the differences.

In general, 331 errors were found in detecting the grammatical errors in the participants' written compositions. Within the errors, 213 (65%) are considered NL interferences because the errors belong to several incongruent aspects of grammar between the English and Kurdish languages, and 114 (35%) are counted as errors, not NL. That is because there are similarities between both languages in such matters. The obtained data after the detection process demonstrates that NL grammatical knowledge is transferred negatively into FL learning. Kurdish learners make errors because of both NL and FL differences. When NL becomes the source of the errors, it is called "interference" or "negative transfer" (Richards, 1974).

Among the compositions, **an example** included 21 (6%) grammatical errors, the highest number of errors. Of these 21 errors, seven of them are errors not related to NL. However, NL is predicted to be the source of the errors for the other fourteen because they are in grammatical topics measured as incongruent in English and Kurdish grammar. However, in **another composition**, no obvious errors were seen, even though the participant was in the first level at the university. Among the written texts, various numbers of errors were detected. For example, **a composition** includes 14 (4.2%) errors (9

interferences), **another** includes 10 (3%) errors (7 *interferences*), and **so on**. The grammatical difference between NL (Kurdish) and FL (English) is the factor that goes beyond choosing the number of errors as interference. This signifies that when there are differences, errors may happen.

The categorized data according to some grammatical areas facilitates the process of learning because it determines where and in which aspect the errors may be predicted to happen. The following table lists several grammatical categories:

	Grammatical categories relate to NL interference (The errors that belong to NL differences)	Total Errors in all (60) compositions according to each category
	Articles (misuse, omission)	35 (16.3%)
	Plural (S) and singular	31 (14.4%)
	Auxiliaries (misuse, omission)	29 (13.5%)
	Pronouns (Gender, Omission, Misuse, Sub. & Obj.)	26 (12.1%)
	3 rd Person Singular (S)	23 (10.7%)
	Infinitive + Gerund	18 (8.4%)

	Patterns and Word Order	13 (6.2%)
	Tenses	12 (5.6%)
	Negatives and Questions (wh-Q., yes/no Q., tag Q.)	12 (5.6%)
0	Passive Voice	6 (2.9%)
1	Comparative and Superlative	5 (2.4%)
2	Relative Words	2 (0.9%)
3	Phrasal Verbs	2 (0.9%)
4		Sum: 214 (%100)

There are other grammatical categories, but those 13 topics mentioned in the table are the topics where participants made errors while using them in compositions. They are the grammatical topics that differ from the participants' NL and FL. Moreover, other

grammatical categories or aspects are similar in both languages. The Kurdish language includes an object-independent set of pronouns, gender, third-person singular S, and so on. It means that while both languages are members of the same language family and share similarities, they differ in some grammatical aspects. These grammatical inconsistencies impede the process of learning by creating difficulties.

The data showed different types of errors committed by the participants. Among them were misuse and the omission of the article, which was the highest type of error compared to other categories. This is because misuse and omission of the article cause 35 errors (16.3%), and plural "S" and singular "s" come next with 31 errors (14.4%). Moreover, relatives and phrasal verbs had the lowest rate of errors. This data may be changed in some ratio if similar compositions are required for the same participants. However, they will still face similar challenges because we have chosen 60 participants from two different faculties at Soran University.

Even though EFL college first graders have been studying the language for 12 years before entering higher education, they do not seem to have a good command of English. Students still struggle while trying to produce proper English sentences and texts. One of the causes of these grammatical errors seems to be related to language interference. Therefore, Kurdish learners of English need much effort to be acquainted with grammatical differences so as not to produce English erroneously.

The study's findings prove the influence of NL and FL on students' language production. This confirms interference as one of the sources of errors in the interlanguage hypothesis put forth by Saville-Troike (2012), Gass and Selinker (2008), and Ellis &

Barkhuizen (2005), according to which learner language is vulnerable to invasion from both learners' NL and TL systems. Keeping to Owu-Evie & Lomotey (2016), Pudín et al. (2015), Solano et al. (2014), Watcharapunyawong & Usaha (2013), and Choroleeva, (2009), NL influence was discovered in the current study, including grammatical aspects.

In line with the hypothesis that the Kurdish language influences learning English as a foreign language, we remind readers of the "behaviourist theory" that Robert Lado presented in the 1950s. According to him, language users often transfer their native language forms and meanings when attempting to produce in an FL. Concerning this, 273 errors made by 60 participants support and enhance the behaviourist theory. On the contrary, Pit Corder (1967) gives a different comment and believes that only a few of the learner's mistakes are produced due to transfer" (p.202), but he still believes that some of the errors belong to the NL. Therefore, there is a relative consensus that NL influences grammar, in particular.

The first research question is answered by describing the most common grammatical and syntactical dissimilarities between English and Kurdish languages by comparing grammatical topics and fields according to English and Kurdish sources. Fourteen grammatical aspects were found and elaborated that differ from Kurdish native speakers' language with English as the target language.

As for the second research question about the impediments of learning English as an FL by English and Kurdish language grammatical differences, data analysis proved this reality through participants' various errors that belong to their NL. For example, if the teacher neglects the learner's native and foreign language

differences, the learners negatively transfer their mother tongue's grammatical rules. They may, for example, misuse the demonstratives and say (**this flowers*, ئەو گولانە) instead of (*these flowers*) because in the Kurdish language, even with plural countable nouns, a singular demonstrative is used.

Concerning the third research question concerning the significance of being familiar with the grammatical differences between both languages and how to deal with errors resulting from the differences, in miscellaneous areas and parts of the article, it is discussed that teachers need familiarity with the learner's native and foreign language differences and plan to get over them.

The results of this research on transfer issues and EFL learner strategies may be helpful to EFL teachers who are worried about transfer in their students' FL writing and speaking as well as to the students who are aware of the issue. It is important to encourage learners' awareness of the differences between their native language and the target language. Increasing students' awareness and knowledge of linguistic disparities necessitate that EFL teachers use the CA approach in their practical instruction (Yu, 2009, p.140). Strengthening the contrast between Kurdish and English is crucial in learning a second language, using CA to identify differences and similarities.

The intrinsic aspects of the learner's psychology must be in focus. As suggested by Thyab (2021), it is inevitable to make errors when learning a new language. By correcting every error, teachers should avoid discouraging their students. Teachers must also point out the usual errors that students make when learning the target language (p.3). The researcher would like to suggest some pedagogical implications for teaching based on the findings:

1- By highlighting the distinctions between Kurdish and English, English teachers can assist EFL students in reducing language interference.

2- Ringbom & Jarvis (2009) mentioned the importance of similarities, which says "Given the important role that cross-linguistic similarities play in language learning, a natural question to follow is whether and to what extent they could be put to effective use in teaching" (p. 114). While teaching, teachers must simultaneously provide students with appropriate guidance to encourage positive transfer rather than negative transfer.

3- The teacher needs to spend some time and effort on these challenging subjects. The teacher should provide clearer explanations when teaching English grammatical differences between the NL and FL (Abbasi & Kerimia, 2011, p.535).

4- After giving several writing rules to English learners, some samples of their writings need to be transcribed and distributed to them for correction and analysis. They would be learning from their errors (Abi Samara, 2003, p.78).

5- The errors in the use of grammatical rules by Kurdish English speakers in this study show the influence of their NL, so the teachers and learners can benefit from this and similar studies to get over the negative transfer and enhance the process of learning.

6- Remarks must be included in the syllabi's design, and students must be taught how to learn from errors that result in a negative transfer.

In line with the hypothesis that the Kurdish language influences learning English as a foreign language, we remind

readers of the "behaviourist theory" that Robert Lado presented in the 1950s. According to him, language users often transfer their native language forms and meanings when attempting to produce in an FL. Concerning this, 273 errors made by 60 participants support and enhance the behaviourist theory. On the contrary, Pit Corder (1967) gives a different comment and believes that only a few of the learner's mistakes are produced due to "transfer" (p. 202), but he still believes that some of the errors belong to the NL. Therefore, there is a relative consensus that NL influences grammar.

Conclusion

In conclusion, as Richards (2014) stated, NL interference is a major obstacle in FL learning and a primary source of FL learners' linguistic errors (as cited in Alhajailan, 2020, p.192). Through secondary data from academic sources and the instrument used to collect data from the compositions written by 60 participants in first grade at Soran University, we identified some grammatical differences between Kurdish and English that negatively influenced the transfer between NL and FL. This frequently impedes learning because, if students are not exposed to these distinctions early on, they can mistakenly transfer data from the NL to the FL, leading to errors and inaccurate learning. Then, it becomes difficult to fix these errors. This demonstrates the need for the English teacher to know the grammatical incongruities between the learner's native and foreign language.

In short, adequate attention should be given to providing more evidence of negative language transfer. Studies for an innovative way of teaching by contrasting the learner's NL and FL may be able to improve efficient ways of teaching English as a foreign language by comparing similarities and differences between the native and the target language, especially between English and Kurdish. A practical step to develop a syllabus based on a contrastive analysis technique is a significant subject for future research directions. Investigations into how high-level students think and react to negative transfer errors can provide interesting ideas in the field and enhance English teaching in Kurdistan.

References

- Abbasi, M., & Kerimia, A. (2011). An Analysis of Grammatical Errors among Iranian Translation Students: Insights from Interlanguage Theory. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 25 (4), 525-536.
- Albalawi, F. S. (2016). Investigating The Effect Of Grammatical Differences Between English (L2) And Arabic (L1) On Saudi Female Students' Writing Of English. *European Scientific Journal*, 12 (14).
- Alhajailan, D. (2020). *A syntactic analysis of Arabic language interference in the written English of Saudi female college students*. London: (Doctoral dissertation, University of Roehampton).
- Alonso, M. R. (1997). Language transfer: Interlingual errors in Spanish students of English as a foreign language. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses* , 10, 7-14.
- Banathy, B. H., Trager, G. L., & Waddle, C. (1966). The use of contrastive data in foreign language course development. *Trends in Language Teaching*, 35-56.
- Berman, E. A. (2017). An exploratory sequential mixed methods approach to understanding researchers' data management practices at UVM: Integrated findings to develop research data services. *eScience Librarianship*, 6 (1), 2-24.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Rinehart and Winston.

- Boskany, S. A. (2015). A contrastive analysis of agreement in standard English and Standard Kurdish. *Kurdish Academy Publishing*.
- Brogan, F. D. (2015). Native Language Transfer in Target Language Usage. *An Exploratory Case Study* (3), 46-62.
- Byrnes, J. P. (1996). *Cognitive Development and Learning in Instructional Contexts*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Chomsky, N. (2015). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- Corder, S. P. (1975). Error analysis, interlanguage and second language acquisition. *Language teaching*, 8(4), 201-218.
- Corder, S. P. (1967). Error analysis and interlanguage. England: Oxford University Press. SP Corder, The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161-170.
- Creswell, J. W. (1999). Mixed-method research: Introduction and Application. *In Handbook of Educational Policy*, 455-472.
- Dai, W., & Wang, D. (2002). Language transfer studies: issues and reflections. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, 6, 1-9.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* (24), 37-53.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Fischer, B., & Fischer, L. (1979). Styles in teaching & learning. *Educational Leadership*, 36, 245-254.
- Foley, C., & Flynn, S. (2013). The role of the native language. *The Cambridge Handbook of second language acquisition*, 97-113.
- Fries, C. C. (1945). *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*. Michigan: Ann Arbour: University of Michigan Press.
- Gass, S. m., & Selinker, a. L. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition* (2nd ed. ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Gass, S. m., & Selinker, a. L. (2008). *Second Language Acquisition* (Third edition ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Hartmann, R. R., & Stork, F. (1972). *A Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*. London: Applied Science publisher.
- Iskandar, A. S. (2020). Native Language Interference in Learning English Written Text as a Foreign Language. *Journal Ilmiah Rinjani* , 8, 2442-3416.
- Jarvis, S., & Pavlenko, A. (2008). *Crosslinguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*. New York: Routledge.
- Karim, K., & Nassaji, H. (2013). First language transfer in second language writing: An examination of current research. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1 (1), 117-134.
- kellerman, E. (1983). *Language transfer in language learning*. Newbury House: Rowley, 54(12), 112-134.

- Khansir, A. A. (2012). Error analysis and second language acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(5), 1027-1032.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- KRG-Ministry-of-Education. (2011). *Sunrise 12 Activity Book*. Lebanon: Macmillan Education.
- KRG-Ministry-of-Education. (2016). *Zman u Adabi Kurdi [language and Literature of Kurdish] 12th Class*. Erbil: KRG Ministry of Education Press.
- KRG-Ministry-of-Education. (2015). *Zman u Adabi Kurdi [Language and Literature of Kurdish] 7th Class* (8th ed.). Erbil: KRG Ministry of Education Press.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. University of Michigan Press.
- Latief, M. A. (2009). *Collecting research data on students' writing skills*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh State University of Malang.
- Lee, J., & Seneff, S. (2008). An Analysis of Grammatical Errors in Non-native Speech in English. *IEEE spoken language technology workshop*, 89-92.
- Li, C. (2021). Study of Mother Tongue Negative Transfer on Senior High School Students English Grammar Learning. *Frontiers in Educational Research*, 1 (1), 49-55.

- Meriläinen, L. (2010). *Language Transfer in the Written English of Finnish Students*. Joensuu: the University of Eastern Finland.
- Mishra, K. C. (2005). *Correction of Errors In English A Training Course*. Sarup & Sons.
- Mitchell, R., Myles, F., & Marsden, E. (2019). *Second language learning theories*. Routledge.
- Nisa, B. (2018). Errors Analysis: Mother Tongue Influence on Grammatical Errors in Indonesian EFL Students' Papers. *Progressive Journal*, 13 (1), 1-6.
- Nunan, D., & Carter, R. (Eds.). (2001). *The Cambridge Guide to teaching English to Speakers of other languages*. Cambridge university press.
- Odlin, T., & Jarvis, S. (2004). Same source, different outcomes: A study of Swedish influence on the acquisition of English in Finland. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1(2), 123-140.
- Owu-Ewie, C., & Lomotey, C. F. (2016). L1 (Akan) interference errors in L2 (English) writing: The case of three junior high school students in Ghana. *American Journal of Language and Literacy*, 1(1), A1-A18.
- Richards, J. C. (1974). A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. *Error analysis: Perspectives on second language acquisition*, 172-188.

- Ringbom, H., & Jarvis, S. (2009). The importance of cross-linguistic similarity in foreign language learning. *The Handbook of language teaching*, 106-118.
- Saville-Troike, M., & Barto, K. (2017). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.
- Selinker, L. (1966). *A Psycholinguistic Study of Language Transfer*. Ph.D. Dissertation: Georgetown University.
- Thyab, R. A. (2021). The Influence of Negative Transfer on Students' Ability to Use Good English. *IJASOS-International E-journal of Advances in Social Sciences*, 6(18), 1056-1060.
- Whitman, R. L. (1970). Contrastive analysis: Problems and procedures. *Language learning*, 20(2), 191-197.
- Wilson, J. (2014). *Essentials of business research: A guide to doing your research project*. Essentials of Business Research, 1-376.
- Yang, X. (2019). A review of negative language transfer regarding the errors in English writing in Chinese colleges. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 10(3), 603-609

پوخته

ئەم توئىژىنەۋەيە مەبەستىيەتى لىكۆلېنەۋە بىكات لە گواستىنەۋەيە نەرينى رېزىمانى لە زمانى كوردى بۆ نيو زمانى ئىنگىلىزى ۋەك زمانىكى بىيانى لە پىرۆسەي فېربوونى زمانەكەدا. كاتىك فېرى زمانىكى بىيانى دەبين، ھەولەدەين زانىارى زمانى دايك بەكار بەيىنن لە بىياتنانى زمانە بىيانىكەدا، كە بە شىۋەيەكى ئاسايى ھەردو پوانگەي ئەرينى و نەرينى ھەيە. يەككە لە بنەپەتەكانى رېكخستنى قسە دەگەپىتەۋە بۆ بەكارھىنانى پىكھاتەي زمانى دايك كە ھەندى جار جياۋازە لە زمانى دوھم، بەمەش گواستىنەۋەيە نەرينى پروودەدات. بۆ ئەم مەبەستە شەست قوتابى قۇناغى يەكەمى زانكۆى سۆران لە بەشى ئىنگىلىزى داوايان لىكراۋە كە داپشتن بنوسن. لە پىرۆسەي گەران بەدۋاي ھەلە رېزىمانىكەكاندا، ۴۱۸ ھەلە دۆزرانەۋە كە ۲۷۳ (۶۵%) ھەلە ۋادانراۋە كە ھۆكارەكەيان گواستىنەۋەيە نەرينى بن لە زمانى دايكەۋە بەھۆى جياۋازىيە رېزىمانىكەكانەۋە لە نيوان زمانى كوردى و ئىنگىلىزىدا. ئەم توئىژىنەۋەيە دەتوانىت ھارىكار بىت بۆ مامۇستايان و فېرخوازەكانيان تا ئاشنابن بە جياۋازىيە رېزىمانىكەكان و چۆنيەتى زالبون بەسەرياندا لە پىرۆسەي فېربوونى زماندا.

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة الى البحث في التدخلات السلبية اللغوية بين اللغة الكردية والانجليزية اثناء التعلم. عادة ما تنطوي تعلم لغة ثانية علي استخدام مفردات لغة الام و ممارستها في اللغة الاجنبية، مما قد يكون له آثار إيجابية وسلبية في نفس الوقت. يعتمد منهج الدراسة على تصميم استكشافي او استنتاجي متعدد الأساليب من أجل معرفة مجموعة من الاختلافات اللغوية اثناء التعلم اللغة الانجليزية. بعد تجميع البيانات حول الاختلافات النحوية بين اللغتين الكردية والإنجليزية من مصادر مختلفة ، شارك ستون طالبًا في الصف الأول كمشاركين لكتابة المقاطع اللغوية. اثناء عملية البحث في الاخطاء ثم العثور على ٤١٨ خطأ نحوي في تراكيب المشاركين. ضمن الأخطاء ، تم اعتبار ٢٧٣ (٦٥٪) منها تداخلًا في اللغة الأم لأن الأخطاء تنتمي إلى عدة جوانب متضاربة في القواعد اللغوية بين اللغتين الإنجليزية والكردية. تُظهر هذه الدراسة أن أحد أصول الأخطاء في إنتاج الكلام لا يزال استخدام الطلاب للغة الأم. يمكن أن يساعد ذلك مدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية لمساعدة المتعلمين على التعرف على الاختلافات وحتى أوجه التشابه بين لغتهم الأم والأجنبية.