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Interlingual and Intralingual Error Analysis of Georgian EFL Learners

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the types of linguistic errors made by Georgian learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), focusing on a structural classification of these mistakes and their underlying causes. Drawing on written samples from intermediate- to advanced-level university EFL learners, the research categorizes errors into morphological, lexical, and syntactic types. Employing an error analysis framework rooted in Corder (1971) and refined by James (1998), this study distinguishes between errors in morphology (e.g., tense-aspect marking, article misuse), syntax (e.g., subject-verb inversion, constituent order), and lexis (e.g., collocational deviance, semantic overextension).

The analysis further distinguishes errors by source: interlingual (L1-included) and intralingual (non-L1-related). Interlingual errors are attributed to negative transfer from Georgian, such as article omission due to the absence of articles in the L1, or confusion between English perfect tenses and Georgian aspectual systems. In contrast, intralingual errors, including overgeneralization of rules (e.g., “comed”, “cutted”, instead of “come”, “cut”), analogical creation, or simplification strategies, reflect internal developmental processes common among EFL learners regardless of their native language.

Qualitative data analysis involves typological classification of the collected errors, including analogical creation, overgeneralization, etc. The findings reveal that while L1 influence significantly shapes morphological and syntactic errors, lexical and pragmatic errors are more often rooted in the complexities of the target language itself. Out of 300 written assignments, we found 51 interlingual (syntax – 20, morphology – 16, and other – 15) and 69 intralingual errors (syntax – 29, morphology – 22, other – 18):

***Keywords**: EFL learners, error analysis, interlingual errors, intralingual errors, structural classification, second language acquisition.*

Introduction

From an inductive teaching perspective, mistakes are no longer the proper way to name students’ L2 flaws. In his book on mistakes and correction, Julian Edge (1989) suggested that we can divide mistakes into three broad categories: “slips” – mistakes, which students can correct themselves once the mistake has been designated to them; “errors” - mistakes which they cannot autocorrect and which,

therefore, need explanation; and "attempt" – it means when a learner attempts to say something but does not yet know the correct way of saying it. This study uses errors, since the other two terms— 'slips' and 'attempts' — are primarily associated with spoken discourse.

To learn is to err, predominantly in foreign-language learning. Especially in the past, but sometimes even today, language teachers considered their students' errors undesirable. Moreover, they diligently sought to prevent them from occurring. During the past 15 years, however, researchers in applied linguistics have come to view errors as evidence of a creative process in language learning. With the help of errors, learners employ hypothesis testing and various strategies in learning a second language. For the language teachers, errors demonstrate their learners' progress in language learning. They are also crucial for language researchers, as they provide insight into how languages and errors are significant to the language learner during hypothesis testing.

The analysis of learner errors has long been an essential concern in second language acquisition research. Pioneering works by Corder (1967, 1974) established that learn errors are not mere signs of linguistic deficiency, but rather a systematic indicator of interlanguage development. According to Corder, error analysis (EA) provides insight into the internalized rules that learners construct as they progress towards target-like competence. James (1998) further refined this framework by proposing a detailed taxonomy of error types in compensating linguistic, cognitive, and communicative dimensions. Within this tradition, Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory posits that second language (L2) learners develop a transitional linguistic system distinct from both the first language and the target language. This system is shaped by processes such as language transfer, generalization, and simplification, all of which contribute to systematic errors.

Given that Georgian and English belong to distinct linguistic families and exhibit minimal structural correspondence, substantial divergences naturally occur across all linguistic levels in the written discourse: morphological, syntactic, and lexical. Consequently, the instances of facilitation or positive transfer are exceedingly rare. Accordingly, the present study focuses on errors arising not only from interference or negative transfer, which typically reflect linguistic principles or inaccuracies, but also intralingual errors students make in the process of learning a foreign language. The paper investigates errors attributed to structural classification. The presented results are derived from 300 essays by Georgian learners collected throughout the year. The article concludes with general guidelines for teachers on correcting errors in second-language learning.

It is anticipated that this focus on interference-induced errors will offer valuable insights for educators and learners engaged in the study and instruction of English as a foreign language.

Types of Classifications

Recent research in applied linguistics underscores the significance of learners' errors in second-language learning. In this paper, the major classifications of errors in second-language learning are briefly outlined. Error analysis traditionally distinguishes between different types of errors according to their linguistic structure, surface strategy, and source (Corder, 1974; Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; James, 1998). On the one hand, interlingual errors due to the influence of the native language, and on the other hand, intralingual and developmental factors, including error causes, should also be considered in the analysis.

Error typology in EA research often follows two main principles: source-based and structural classification. Structurally, errors can be grouped into morphological, syntactic, lexical, and pragmatic categories (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; James, 1998). Morphological errors typically involve tense-aspect marking, pluralization, or article use, while syntactic errors concern word order and clause structure. Lexical errors include collocational deviations or inappropriate word choice, and pragmatic errors relate to illocutionary force or register. From a source-based perspective, Richards (1971) distinguishes between interlingual errors, resulting from negative transfer from L1, and intralingual errors. They spring from developmental processes within L2 itself. This dual classification is essential for ascertaining whether a given error reflects specifically Georgian linguistic structures or universal strategies of second-language learning.

In addition to L1-induced transfer, intralingual arrows arise from internal learning processes. These could be overgeneralization, simplification, and analogical reasoning. For example, forms such as 'goed' for go or 'more funnier' for funnier illustrate the learner's tendency to overapply rules or combine morphological markers redundantly. These errors are not L1-dependent, but indicative of the learners' evolving internal grammar. Ellis (1994) and Lightbown & Spada (2013) note that such developmental phenomena are universal across L2 contexts, highlighting the cognitive dimensions of SLA.

Errors can be classified according to the linguistic level at which they occur:

1. **Phonological Errors** – mispronunciations resulting from phonemic differences between Georgian and English. For instance, difficulties with English interdental fricatives (/θ/, /ð/) often lead to substitutions like 'tink' or 'sink' for 'thing' and 'I think'.
2. **Morphological Errors** – errors in word formation and inflection. Common examples include tense and agreement errors (*he go yesterday*), pluralization errors (*informations*, *advices*, *childs*, *mens*), and misuse of articles (*he bought book*), the latter strongly influenced by Georgian's lack of an article system.

3. **Syntactic errors** – deviations in sentence structure, such as in correct word order (*I very like it*), omissions of auxiliaries (*he going home*) or misplacement of adverbs (*she always is late*). These reflect both transfer from Georgian's flexible word order or incomplete acquisition of English clause structure.
4. **Lexical Errors** – misuse or overextension of vocabulary items, including false cognates (actual for current), collocational errors ('strong rain' instead of 'heavy rain'), and literal translations from Georgian.
5. **Pragmatic errors** – misuse of language functions, or inappropriate register, such as overly direct requests, or failure to use politeness markers, reflecting differences in sociolinguistic conventions between Georgian and English.

Following surface strategy taxonomy, Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982), errors can also be described in terms of the learner's manipulation of linguistic form:

1. **Omission errors** – leaving out necessary elements (*She going school*);
2. **Edition errors** – adding unnecessary forms (*he didn't went*);
3. **Misformation errors** – using the wrong form of a structure (*he buyed it*).
4. **Missordering errors** – Incorrect sequence of elements (*What she is doing*?)

This taxonomy captures how errors reflect learners' hypotheses about the target language structure, showing gradual approximation towards correct usage.

Adopting only Structural classification and the surface strategy taxonomy is not enough to analyse learners' errors. Source-based classification, together with the previous ones, provides a broader picture of analysis. From a sociolinguistic perspective, errors can be attributed to different sources:

1. **Interlingual** (**L1 Transfer**) **Errors** – These arise from negative transfer of Georgian linguistic patterns. The most common examples include article omission, incorrect preposition choice, and non-target-like word order – all traceable to the Georgian morphosyntactic system;
2. **Intralingual** (**Developmental**) **Errors** – independent of L1 influence, they result from the internal processes of second-language learning. They include rule overgeneralization (*comed*, *childs*), simplification (*he go home*), and hypercorrection (*she didn't went*);
3. **Context-Induced** – errors caused by the learning environment or teaching materials, such as confusion due to insufficient contextual exposure or misleading examples in textbooks.

According to various researchers (Lado, 1957; Richards, 1971; Corder, 1974; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Tomas, 1983; Touchie, 1986; David & Han, 2004), this paper compiles the factors that account for learners' errors. Interlingual and developmental errors are due to the difficulty of the second/target language. Intralingual and developmental factors include the following:

- **Communication strategies** – errors made when learners try to express meaning beyond their current linguistic competence using approximation, circumlocution, and simplification. Deals with the grammatical rules and not only, for example, using the simple present instead of the present perfect.
- Overgeneralization – e.g., *-ed* past tense marker usage with all types of verbs in English, *go – goed, come – comed*;
- **Hypercorrection** – sometimes teachers' efforts to overcorrect their students' errors induce the students to make errors in otherwise correct forms. For example, learners avoid constructions in casual speech because they associate them with incorrectness (e.g., 'I am going to the store' instead of 'I'm going to the store').
- **Faulty teaching** – teacher-induced (pedagogical) errors, especially coming from non-native teachers' lack of target language competence.
- **Fossilization** – some errors, especially errors in pronunciation, persist for long periods and become pretty challenging to get rid of.
- **Avoidance** – some syntactic structures are tricky to pronounce for some learners. Consequently, these learners avoid these structures and use simpler structures instead.
- **Inadequate learning** – mainly caused by ignorance of rule restrictions, under differentiation, and incomplete learning. For instance: the omission of the third person singular 's', as in 'he want'.
- **False concepts hypothesized** – many learners' errors can be attributed to the wrong hypotheses they form about the target language. For example, some learners think that 'is' is the marker of the present tense, so they produce: 'he is talk to the teacher'.
- **Performance errors** – Temporary mistakes, slips in speaking or writing caused by lapses in attention, fatigue, or distraction, not by lack of language competence. An example of this is 'he come yesterday', when the speaker knows it should be 'he came yesterday' but accidentally says so.
- **Social, linguistic, and cultural factors** – errors arising from differences in cultural norms, politeness strategies, or pragmatic conventions between L1 and L2; for example, a Georgian learner might say 'give me water' instead of 'could I have some water please', a direct translation that sounds impolite in English.

The classification of errors across structural, surface, and source-based dimensions provides a comprehensive framework for understanding Georgian EFL learners' errors. The L1 chiefly stipulates syntactic errors, while lexical and developmental errors emerge from universal acquisition processes.

Recognizing these distinctions is crucial for designing pedagogical interventions that target specific error types and promote more accurate and fluent English production among Georgian learners.

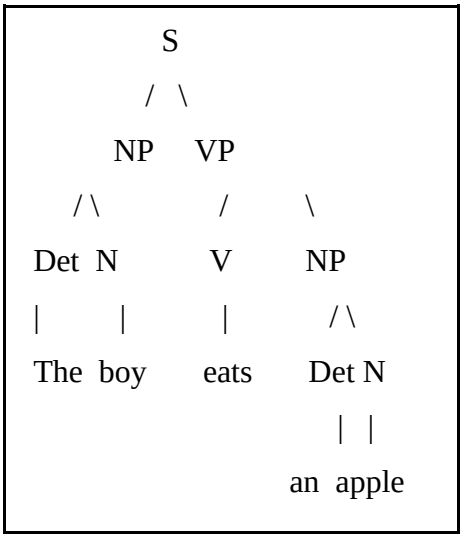
Research data and methodology

Georgian and English belong to distinct linguistic families and exhibit minimal structural correspondence; substantial divergences naturally occur across all linguistic levels in the written discourse: morphological, syntactic, and lexical. Consequently, the instances of facilitation or positive transfer are exceedingly rare. The syntactic characteristics of the English language refer to the structural rules that control how words are combined to structure phrases, clauses, and sentences. Here are some distinguishing features of English syntax.

1. **Word Order** (**SVO pattern**) – English is primarily a subject-verb-object (SVO) language. For example: She (S) eats (V) bananas (O). Word order is crucial because it determines meaning: the dog chased the cats is not the same as the cat chased the dog.
2. **Use of the function words** – Relies heavily on function words (for example, articles, prepositions, auxiliaries) to convey grammatical relationships. Examples: the, of, two, is, have, can. This compensates for the relatively limited use of inflectional endings compared to languages like Latin.
3. **Dependence on word order over inflection** – English is an analytical language. Like highly inflected languages, English syntax depends more on word order than on morphological changes. Example: *She loves him* vs. *He loves her* – The word order changes the meaning even though the verb form does not change much.
4. **Auxiliary verbs** – English uses auxiliary (helping) verbs to form tenses, questions, negatives, and modality. Example: *She can swim*.
5. **Complex sentence structure** – English allows coordination and subordination. Coordination: *she sang and he danced*. Subordination: *because it rained, we stayed home*.
6. **Use of phrasal verbs** – a distinctive feature is the use of phrasal verbs (verb + particle), for instance, *give up, look after*. Their meaning often cannot be deduced from the parts alone.
7. **Noun phrase structure** – a typical English noun phrase follows this pattern: (Determiner) + (Adjective) + Noun + (modifier). *The big brown dog in the yard*.
8. **Question Formation** – English uses inversion and do-support for questions. Example: ‘You are coming’ goes as ‘Are you coming?’.
9. **Use of relative clauses** – relative clauses add information about a noun using: who, which, that, etc.: ‘the man who came yesterday is my uncle.’

10. **Use of passive voice** – the passive construction is formed with be + past participle: 'the play was written by Shakespeare.'
11. Use of a participle clause, which functions like an adverb in the sentence, makes sentences more concise and is common for formal writing.

Let's analyze the tree structure using standard phrase structure notation.



Explanation:

S (Sentence) split into:

NP (noun phrase) → the boy

VP (verb phrase) → eats an apple

Within VP:

The V (verb) = eats

The N (object) = an apple

Each NP consists of:

Det (determiner) + N (noun)

The table illustrates the hierarchical nature of English syntax: sentences are built from phrases, which are built from more minor constituents (words), all following predictable patterns.

The Georgian language is characterised by free word and constituent order. The neutral order can be either SVO or SOV. All other possible orders convey information structure (topic and focus). In neutral order, the modifier precedes the modified noun, although the reverse order is also possible. The subject and object agree with the verb in person and number. The noun is always marked with a case suffix.

In (X), the subject of the transitive verb *gatʃ'ra* "to cut", *k'atsma* "the man", is marked with the ergative case suffix *-ma*, which is indexed by the *-a* suffix in the verb (3rd person singular subject).

The object *tok'i* "the rope" is marked with the nominative suffix *-i*.

(X)	*k'ats-ma*	*ga-tʃ'r-a*	*tok'-i*
	man-ERG	PREV-cut-3SG.SBJ	rope-NOM
	'The man cut the rope.'		

In (Y), the subject of the transitive verb is marked in the same way as in (X), and the pronominal object (written in brackets, as pronouns are often optional) is cross-referenced by the *m-* prefix (1st person singular object).

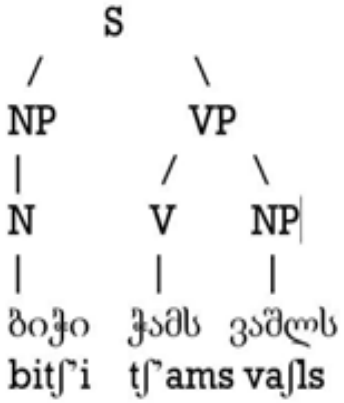
k'ats-ma	*da-m-tʃ'r-a*	(*me*)
man-ERG	PREV-1SG.OBJ-cut-3SG.SBJ	1SG
'The man wounded me.'		

The modifier precedes the modified noun, as in (Z). They agree in case (both are in the nominative case).

(Z)	*k'etil-i*	*k'ats-i*
	kind-NOM	man-NOM
	"A/the kind man"	

The reversed order is often found in texts when the author wishes or needs to express a difference from the neutral expression of ideas, especially in poetry.

The syntactic tree can be similar to English, but there are some differences. Like English, Georgian also has the NP and VP in the clause. The VP contains both a verb and a noun (the direct object). Unlike English, Georgian does not have an obligatory determiner, such as an article.



Bearing these distinctive features in mind, the paper dares to illustrate examples from the collected data. During a year, two semesters, we have collected 300 written assignments written by Students with the levels B1-C1. From almost 300 written assignments (including essays, articles, reports, bar charts, process descriptions, and map descriptions), we identified 120 errors. Out of which there were 51 L1-stipulated errors (inter-lingual) and 69 non-L1 (intra-lingual). The collected examples will be discussed in the next section of the article.

Results and Discussions

The section covers both interlingual and intralingual examples, with explanations. Out of 300 written assignments, we found 51 interlingual (syntax – 20, morphology – 16, and other – 15) and 69 intralingual errors (syntax – 29, morphology – 22, other – 18).

Here are some examples, which will be discussed below.

Classification of interlingual errors

In addition to illustrating the interlanguage errors produced in both directions by structural differences between English and Georgian, the above examples demonstrate the patterns of interlanguage errors (syntax: 20; morphology: 16) that result from the numerous structural differences between the two languages. Here are two examples of such structural differences. The sentence *This is so bad for country* exemplifies article omission, a morphological error caused by the fact that Georgian has no articles. The sentence *In the country are many poor people* demonstrates the absence of a fixed grammatical Subject-Verb-Object order, showing how Georgian's flexible word order leads to the omission of this order in English. In Georgian, word order is not determined by grammatical rules but rather depends on the topic and focus of the sentence, or on its neutral SOV/SVO options. Beyond grammatical structure, instances of calque (literal translation), such as *bread money* „პურის ფული", indicate that learners rely on L1 conceptualization when their L2 lexical repertoire is insufficient or when they lack knowledge of appropriate English idioms. The data therefore confirm that L1 influence significantly shapes the initial hypothesis testing and rule construction for Georgian EFL learners, particularly in areas where English depends on features (such as articles and fixed word order) that are absent or markedly different in the L1.

Example	**Source of Error**	**Type (Error Cause)**	**Grammatical Classification**
Not everything is how we want	Literal translation of „როგორც ჩვენ გვინდა“	Interlingual (Calque)	Sentence structure / Word order
I think all people wants to find a job, you know today you don’t have a job you don’t find a bread money too.	„პურის ფული“ directly translated All people want	Interlingual (Lexical calque) Subject verb agreement	Idiomatic / Vocabulary misuse Subject verb agreement
This topic has two sides, one good and one bad side.	„ამ საკითხს ორი მხარე აქვს...“	Interlingual (Literal structure)	Redundant / Word choice
They are working so hard, stressing in strange places...	„ნერვიულობენ უცნობ ადგილებში“	Interlingual	Word form / inappropriate lexical choice
In the country are many poor people.	,,ქვეყანაში ბევრი ღარიბი ადამიანია”	Interlingual (L1 structure interference)	Sentence structure/word order
They are starting to like lives there and forgetting about their country.	,,..იხსენებენ თავიანთი ქვეყნის შესახებ”	Interlingual	Verb + preposition misuse
This is so bad for country.	Missing article – influenced by Georgian (no articles)	Interlingual	Article omission
My name is Saba... I am 19 year	,,მე ვარ 19 წლის.”	Interlingual	Number agreement
High income help you surprise your	,,გააკეთო, რაც გინდა” → can what	Interlingual (Calque)	Verb phrase error

family and can what you want.	you want		
Teenagers... live like they want.	,,იცხოვრონ ისე, როგორც უნდათ”	Interlingual (Calque)	Clause structure error
I agree this opinion...	,,ვეთანხმები ამ აზრს”	Interlingual	Prepositional misuse (agree with)
It’s normal, because of they have something different ambitions...	Confusion between “because” and “because of” due to Georgian equivalents	Interlingual	Conjunction misuse
You have to get risk to grow your budget.	,,რისკი უნდა გასწიო”	Interlingual	Verb + noun collocation error
their responsibility is the clearest and make the biggest difference”	→ better phrased as “their responsibility is the clearest, and they can make the biggest difference.”	Interlingual	Subject ellipses
“handle this problems”	→ “handle these problems.”	interlingual	Determiner noun number agreement
Information previously accessible to the scientist or a researcher is now available to a regular citizen…”	could be streamlined to: “Information once reserved for scientists is now easily available to everyone.”	interlingual	Participle clause typical for academic English writing

Based on the comprehensive error classification, the study confirms a clear division in the sources of systematic errors among Georgian EFL learners. The influence of the Kartvelian language family, particularly its flexible word order, absence of articles, and rich inflectional system, accounts for the high frequency of interlingual errors, especially in the areas of English word order and determiner use. In contrast, the substantial number of intralingual errors, such as overgeneralization of the regular past

tense (*-ed*) and double comparatives, highlights the universal cognitive strategies learners use as they develop their interlanguage system, independent of L1 constraints. The prevalence of both interlingual and intralingual errors, with a slightly higher incidence of the latter (69 vs 51), indicates that while negative transfer is a significant factor, the inherent difficulty and complexity of the English grammatical system present a greater overall challenge to acquisition for these advanced-level students. These findings have direct implications for pedagogical practice.

Classification of Intralingual Errors

The table shows several common intralingual examples that might be regarded as universal for learners worldwide. Let us discuss some of them below. In addition to L1-induced transfer, intralingual errors arise from internal learning processes, including overgeneralization, simplification, and analogical reasoning. For example, forms such as 'comed' for come or 'more easier' for easier depict the learners' tendency to overapply rules or combine morphological markers redundantly. These errors are not L1-dependent, but rather reflect the learners' evolving internal grammar.

Overgeneralization, Simplification, and Analogy are the main ways in which intralingual errors are created. Learning overgeneralization occurs when a new linguistic rule is incorrectly applied to situations where it does not apply; this overgeneralization indicates that learners are trying to understand the target language systematically. For Georgian students learning English as a foreign language (EFL), this is shown through some morphological error examples, such as the use of regular past tense verb endings for irregular verbs (i.e., *He goed to school*) or combining morphological markers redundantly (i.e., *more happier*). Researchers such as Ellis (1994) and Lightbown and Spada (2013) have documented errors that occur in all L2 contexts. The presence of these errors indicates that the learner is not merely transferring the grammatical structures of their L1 to the L2 but instead constructing and testing their own hypotheses about how the grammatical structures of the L2 function.

Beyond overgeneralization, developmental errors often manifest as simplification strategies, in which learners reduce the complexity of L2 structures. Examples include the omission of obligatory functional elements, such as the missing infinitive marker ***to*** (e.g., ***it is best way improve yourself***) or dropping the possessive marker ***'s*** (e.g., ***Young people skills***). Conversely, a more advanced developmental process is **hypercorrection**, which may involve the double marking of features (e.g., ***Everything is depends on...***, blending the finite verb form *depends* with the copula *is*) or avoiding grammatically correct but perceived 'casual' structures. Collectively, these intralingual phenomena support Selinker's (1972) Interlanguage hypothesis, illustrating that the learner's temporary system is a dynamic, rule-governed entity that is distinct from both the L1 and the target L2.

Example	**Source of Error**	**Type**	**Grammatical Classification**
beautifull	Overuse of suffix – spelling pattern	Intralingual (Overgeneralization)	Morphological / spelling
people who go abroad is independent	Confusion with uncountable “people”	Intralingual (Rule confusion)	Subject–verb agreement
Firstly, in Georgia go abroad to find a job is on a high level	Misused infinitive as subject	Intralingual (Misrule)	Syntax / subject construction
more happier	Double comparative	Intralingual (Overgeneralization)	Comparative structure
He goed to school	Rule generalization of -ed	Intralingual	Verb tense formation
Young people skills	Missing possessive ’s	Intralingual (Form confusion)	Possessive / apostrophe
This help them	Agreement (singular/plural)	Intralingual (Rule misapplication)	SV agreement
Everything is depends on...	Double marking	Intralingual (Rule blending)	Verb form / syntax
it is best way improve yourself	Missing infinitive marker “to”	Intralingual (Omission)	Infinitive construction
Job with good income improves young people skills and make them...	Tense & agreement	Intralingual	Verb form / plurality
In recent years, social media is a big part...	Tense agreement error	Intralingual	Verb tense consistency
negative affects	Confusion between affect/effect	Intralingual (Lexical confusion)	Word form error

The examples given cover common errors that foreign language learners can make, ranging from spelling errors to complex grammatical structures such as infinitives, gerunds, and participle clauses. Overgeneralization of grammatical rules and lexical misuse were the most topical ones. From a pedagogical perspective, these examples are typically collected and discussed as a task during the delayed error-correction stage. Students, through self-discovery, easily overcome their ambiguity towards the grammar and lexis of the foreign language.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Teachers should not and cannot correct all errors committed by their students. The error-correction process should combine mistakes that affect a large number of students and are frequent, as they interfere with the overall meaning and understandability of the context. Stigmatizing or irritating errors should be given greater attention, as students with different sociolinguistic backgrounds vary in their language use. Errors relevant to pedagogical focus should receive more attention from the teacher than other errors. That meant the lesson's grammatical focus should be explicitly addressed, even if the teacher decides to ignore the rest of the mistakes made by his or her students.

Therefore, there are two types of errors: global and local (cf. Burt and Kiparsky, 1974). The local errors do not hinder communication or the understanding of the utterance's meaning. Global errors, however, are more serious than local errors because global errors interfere with communication and disrupt the meaning of the utterances.

The research categorizes the errors into morphological, lexical, and syntactic types. However, morphological and syntactic were in the majority.

Employing an error analysis framework rooted in Corder (1971) and refined by James (1998), this study distinguishes between errors in morphology (e.g., tense-aspect marking, article misuse), syntax (e.g., subject-verb inversion, constituent order), and lexis (e.g., collocational deviance, semantic overextension).

The analysis further distinguishes errors by source: interlingual (L1-included) and intralingual (non-L1-related). Interlingual errors are attributed to negative transfer from Georgian, such as article omission due to the absence of articles in the L1, semantic overgeneralization (e.g., “bread money”), and syntactic-word-order errors.

In contrast, intralingual errors, including overgeneralization of rules (e.g., “comed”, “cutted”, instead of “come”, “cut”), analogical creation, or simplification strategies, reflect internal developmental processes common among EFL learners regardless of their native language.

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