Teachers' Guide towards a Contrastive Analysis

of Arabic and English

'A thesis submitted to the

University of Wales Trinity Saint David

in fulfilment of the requirements for the

the degree of Master of Arts'

2013

Maria Jannat Qasim

Master's Degrees by Examination and Dissertation

Declaration Form.

1. This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

Signed ....

Date: 9/05/13

2. This dissertation is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of *Master of Arts*

Signed ....

Date: 9/05/13

3. This dissertation is the result of my own independent work/investigation, except where otherwise stated.

Other sources are acknowledged by footnotes giving explicit references.

A bibliography is appended.

Signed candidate ....

Date: 9/05/13

4. I hereby give consent for my dissertation, if accepted, to be available for photocopying, inter- library loan, and for deposit in the University's digital repository

Signed (candidate) ....

Date: 9/05/13

Supervisor's Declaration.

I am satisfied that this work is the result of the student's own efforts.

Signed ……………………………………………………………………………

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter 3

Chapter 4

Chapter 5

Chapter 6

Appendices

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L2: Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

NL: Native Language

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

TL: Target Language

L1: First Language

CA: Contrastive Analysis

MT: Mother Tongue

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

NE: Native English

NA: Native Arabic

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

CS: Code Switching

EIP: English for Islamic Purposes

EIHS: European Institute of Human Sciences

S: Subject

V: Verb

O: Object

C: Complement

A: Adverbial

P: Predicate

Abstract

There has been a relative lack of work in the field of FL teaching in relation to Arabic students learning English. Numerous works highlight the constant grammatical errors made by Arab students due to negative MT interference, which suggests the need for practical solutions to help teachers overcome this difficulty. Therefore the major focus of this dissertation is to reveal common errors, analyse them according to the CA and provide a set of personalised lesson plans based on CA for teachers to utilise and understand how L1 can heavily impact the SLA if used judiciously. This study also investigates teachers' difficulties and identifies the importance of L1 usage by evaluating various teaching styles of the past and present; furthermore it justifies the reapplication of CA.

All this is obtained through an extensive study of relevant literature and the implementation of empirical research. The later was carried out through a case study at The European Institute of Human Sciences using different data collection techniques. Two EFL teachers were interviewed: NE and NA speakers. A more detailed analysis was carried out with the NA teacher and his twenty-five students through classroom observations, questionnaire and a thirty-minute test. The participants were all intermediate level students.

This research produced a number of key findings: both the teachers recognised the positive effect of L1 inclusion. The students displayed a relative need for CA, and ironically when their errors were defined using CA, it revealed how the NL plays a substantial role by causing negative interference. Additionally, the common errors detected from the test are listed as follows: word order, genitive possessive case, adjectives and personal pronouns. The main conclusion to be drawn from this work is that L2 learning is inadequate without referring to L1; moreover Arabic and English both share a linguistic and genetic relationship which is only made apparent after the CA study. Overall this study recommends the need for further research and work to continue the re-establishment of CA, supplying teachers' with practical guidelines and gathering more examples of errors committed by Arab students, and the means of addressing them by adopting a similar approach to that outlined here in the sample lesson plans.

Keywords: L1, MT, NL, L2, CA, EIP

Acknowledgment

First, and foremost, I would like to praise and thank my Lord, Allah. For without his help and innumerable blessings I would not have been able to complete this research.

I am truly grateful to the University of Wales Trinity Saint David for awarding the scholarship which enabled me to further my studies. I would like to express my gratitude for my tutor John Hughes for his enthusiastic teaching skills, motivation and always being a helping hand. I can positively say his contribution has greatly aided my methodology of teaching Arabic and English. I am indebted to my mentor, Paul Wright for his patience in providing continuous support, constructive comments and thoughtful guidance. I am also grateful to Dr Magdy Mahdy for allowing me the time to learn about the beauty of the Arabic language and lending beneficial literature to enhance my knowledge of Arabic. They have all shown sincerity, passion and great interest in my work for which I cannot thank them enough.

Lastly, I owe my respect and affection to my parents and brothers for their constant encouragement in helping me become an instrumental member of society. I would like to make a special mention of my mother for her prayers, moral support and providing the supportive and comforting environment needed to successfully complete my study.

I dedicate this to my beloved parents

for being involved in every step of my life,

and guiding me to the best of ways by the will of Allah.

1

Introduction

1.1 *Background*

The methods and approaches for second language (L2) teaching is of growing concern for teachers, practitioners, schools, universities and professional bodies. Language is a vehicle of communication and a conduit for meanings, for it is an essential ingredient in religious, societal interaction, knowledge and cultural exchange between countries and communities across the globe. The teaching of foreign languages (FL) has had a major role in influencing every corner of the world and throughout recent history we have seen an increase in the development of research in how to teach FL. The number of language teaching schools that have emerged over the last five decades worldwide, aided with the rise of telecommunications, has significantly impacted our understanding of one another and has led to a substantial effort in both investment and resources within universities and language organisations to further explore and research methods of learning languages.

Traditional approaches to teaching tend to rely upon a teacher centred approach: a direct transmission of knowledge, in which the learners are regarded as receptacles receiving and reproducing competent language skills. Accuracy is emphasised and detailed analysis of grammar rules are taught deductively with little or hardly any focus on communication. This resulted in translating texts from and to the L2, making use of both their native and target language (TL). From a position of dominance in the mid to late nineteenth century, the grammar-translation method (GTM) declined and was largely replaced by various communicative based theories and methods which tended to abandon the use of the native language (NL) to maximise fluency.[1] This marked a major shift from a focus upon the accuracy of structures towards oral proficiency in which communication strategies became pivotal. Currently communicative language teaching (CLT) is the dominant theoretical model, its

---

[1] Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), p.7.

primary focus is to inculcate students to interact and negotiate meaning.[2] Language items are contextualised so meaning is paramount rather than structure and form. The way in which grammar is communicated is of great significance, because it was due to this that CLT faced criticism.

Thompson outlines a number of CLT misconceptions, amongst which the abandoning of explicit grammar is mentioned. He suggests that this was a logical assumption derived from accounts of linguists like that of Krashen--- according to whom grammar instruction is pointless and language items are to be acquired unconsciously through deep exposure.[3] So if the teaching of grammar is not rejected as a whole as CLT suggests, then it is worth analysing its role. Thomson asserts that in CLT, learners are presented with new information within a 'comprehensible context,' to enable them to discover grammar individually and introduce explicit grammar discussions.[4] It is a student orientated approach under minimal guidance from the teacher. It is based upon the belief that the student can achieve more than when a rule is taught through detailed instruction. This can be described as an inverted GTM; instead of presenting grammar at the start of a lesson it is offered at the end by the students. It is, however, rather bizarre for students to discuss the grammatical forms and structures without any initial instruction. The position of grammar instruction attracts a considerable amount of interest from many adolescents and adults. Ellis gathered accounts by learners of German as a FL and he came to the view that they were deeply concerned when grammar was not understood. On the other hand, when grammar was acquired they felt a great sense of accomplishment.[5] Explicit grammar instruction provides the learner with conscious understanding of a particular feature and therefore the effectiveness of L2 is durable. The student is then able to describe and distinguish between various technical terms in grammar and apply them in a consistent way.

---

[2] Martin Dewey, 'Beyond Labels and Categories in English Language Teaching: Critical Reflections on Popular Conceptualizations', in *English A Changing Medium for Education*, ed. by Constant Leung and Brian V. Street (London: Multilingual Matters, 2012), pp.129-149 (p.131).
[3] Stephen D. Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981), pp.1-2.
[4] Geoff Thomson, 'Some Misconceptions about Communicative Language Teaching', *ELT Journal*, 50 (1996), 9-15 (p.11).
[5] Rod Ellis, 'The Place of Grammar Instruction in the Second/Foreign Language Curriculum', in *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*, ed. by E. Hinkel and S. Fotos (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2002), pp.17-34 (pp.20-21).

The centre for Language Teaching and Research released a report that documented the conceptions and practical implications of CLT by Japanese L2 teachers through interviews and observations. The way teachers imposed their attitudes towards CLT was rather ironic when compared to the initial theoretical developments. One of the main notions considered was the lack of 'grammar instruction' in CLT, yet the observational results implied that many teachers had a tendency to refer to its incorporation in various ways: explicit instruction, repetition, translation and 'teacher-fronted' approaches, because grammar was seen as a necessary "building block."[6] The teachers acceded to an extensive amount of drilling as a solution when the features of the NL and TL structures were diametrically opposed. The focal point of teaching grammar was founded through formal instruction and traditional practices were reinforced, such as the use of students' first language (L1). This elucidates the influential impact that grammar has upon teachers' techniques and beliefs regardless of what approach or method is favoured in the educational language sector. This is supported by Swan's view that teachers' practise is 'often rooted in more traditional ways of doing things.'[7]

The incorporation of grammar within the field of language teaching has a long and rich methodological tradition. There has been a serious debate amongst linguists regarding its status within language classrooms. The focus on grammar came into serious question and was seen as old fashioned and obstructive to the students' acquisition of fluent communication. Grammar was regarded as boring and instead the need for oral proficiency was prioritised. However, grammar has been and will always remain an important instrument for teachers and students. Grammar is a set of rules, from which sentences are constructed in a particular way; morphology and syntax. Words in a sentence are meaningless unless they are grammatically correct. Hence to fully understand any system of language, one should dig deeply into its roots and study the grammar. Givon stresses that language is a powerful tool and for meaningful communication to occur, every part of language interlocks with every other part and

[6] Kazuyoshi Sato and Robert C. Kleinsasser, 'Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Practical Understandings', *The Modern Language Journal*, 83 (1999), 504-505 (p.505).
[7] Michael Swan, 'Why is it All Such a Muddle, and What is the Poor Teacher to Do?' in *Exploring Focus on Form in Language Teaching,* ed. by M.Pawlak (Kalisz-Poznań: Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts, 2007), pp.287-299 (p.297).

'its structure is not divorced from its function.'[8] Thornbury suggests that 'grammar is a process for making a speaker's or writer's meaning clear when contextual information is lacking.'[9] He describes grammar as necessary to analyse the sentence and its structure. L1 learners acquire their NL implicitly and gain complex structures while being in the care of their guardians within a natural and communicative environment, just as one can learn to work without knowing the details of underlying biomechanics. However, L2 learners are expected to make use of both implicit and especially explicit knowledge.

Ellis states that the:

> Aim of explicit grammar teaching is to develop learners' implicit knowledge (i.e. to enable them to use grammatical features accurately in fluent, communicative language use). There is an assumption that providing learners with explicit knowledge will create a foundation for the development of implicit knowledge.[10]

Grammar must not be overlooked as some practitioners believe, such as Krashen, that the focus upon a grammatical form takes time and can inhibit communication. However Elizabeth and Heidi state a case study of a teacher named Amelia who realised that her student was not greatly affected by the 'four weeks' of "acquisition," but instead when instruction was introduced the student advanced further in her studies. This might suggest that the students' communicative skills are to be enriched and learning is to be significantly improved when formal instruction is present. Thus grammar teaching is effective in building communicative competence.[11] The grammar of any TL must be presented in an orderly manner. The explicit type of instruction is by and large the most successful approach to optimise an understanding of L2 grammatical forms as exhibited by the findings of the meta-analysis of grammar teaching which were conducted by Norris and Ortega.[12] Explicit learning is processed consciously through controlled instruction of linguistic features being taught in a deductive manner through presentation and explanation.

---

[8] Talmy Givon, *English Grammar: A Functional-based Introduction*, 2 vols (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing, 1993), I, 2.
[9] Scott Thornbury, *How to Teach Grammar* (Oxford: Longman, 1999), p.4.
[10] Rod Ellis, 'Does Explicit Grammar Instruction Work?', *National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics,* 2 (2010), 3-22 (p.8).
[11] Elizabeth A. Grassi and Heidi Bulham Barker, *Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Exceptional Students: Strategies for Teaching and Assessment* (London: Sage Publications, 2010), p.66.
[12] J. M. Norris and Ortega, 'Does Type of Instruction Make a Difference? Substantive Findings from a Meta-Analytic Review', *Language Learning*, 51 (2001), 157-213.

One of the easiest ways to grasp grammatical structures is through contrastive analysis (CA) in which the mother tongue (MT) plays a substantial role.[13] CA is an in-depth study of two or more languages. It deals with each grammatical form in a very precise and descriptive manner. The analysis of both languages helps discover the degree of linguistic relationship, thus revealing the integral parts of language features which are similar or different. The reassembly of contrasting the language system is indeed a vital source for the expansion of the second language acquisition (SLA). Although CA was discredited in the 1970s by Chomsky, it is reappearing in language pedagogy in response to the need to enhance the communicative fluency and most importantly grammatical accuracy. Macaro stresses that L1 proscription stands in the way of efficient learning activities like reading skills, thus highlighting the need for its return in order to increase students' ability to translate, a useful tool for the 'outside world.'[14] This push towards a CA between the NL and TL will demand innovations from teachers and educational bodies.

1.2 *Research focus*

English language is recognised as being amongst the most demanding of languages. Its influence in shaping the paradigm and ethos of other language societies has been manifest for generations. In the Arab world, there is an increasing demand for learning English for academic, business and travelling purposes. English has borrowed a great portion of loan words from the Arabic language; this assembly requires one to comprehend their connectivity from different angles, for example the vocabulary, language structure and grammar.

It is interesting to see if and how Arabic can be exploited in an English as a foreign language (EFL) setting. According to Sulaiman, the prohibition of L1 is the main cause of Saudi students facing great challenges. They may feel that their MT and its culture are disregarded while the English language overshadows them. This contributes to higher rates of academic failure. As a result learners might lose hope

---

[13] Carl James, 'Contrastive Analysis and the Language Learner', in *Linguistics, Language Teaching and Language Learning,* ed. by David J. Allerton, Cornelia Tschichold and Judith Wieser (Basel: Schwabe, 2005), pp.1-20 (p.1).
[14] Ernesto Macaro, 'Codeswitching in the L2 Classroom: A Communication and Learning Strategy', in *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession,* ed. by Llurda (New York: Springer, 2005), pp.63-84 (p.75).

and motivation and it may even cause some students to regard learning languages as a hopeless endeavour. Thus Jenkins' emphasises the need to incorporate L1 with L2 to help maintain students' motivation. [15] L1 is a reference point for learners to think and link with their new language. Etymology, the scientific study of word origins, can contribute towards enriching students' linguistic ability and at the same time help embolden them. Tracing back to the Middle Ages, we are able to analyse the relationship between Arabic and English. It is of great surprise to find that English has borrowed a great portion of Arabic loan words, being taken either directly or indirectly. A considerable number of words reached the English language indirectly through secondary means, like the Arab occupation of Spain. It has been estimated that Spanish has taken over four thousand words from the Arabic language.[16] Arabic being the language of religion and culture, it has become a significant presence in various languages. An example is the Arabic word al-qobbah, meaning vaulted which is derived from the verb qubbs 'vault.' It reached English with the name 'alcove' via the Spanish 'alcoba.'[17] This clearly depicts the influence of the Arabic language. During the sixteenth century, a number of Arabic loanwords entered the English language directly without the need of intervention of other languages. This was mainly due to the immediate contact between England, North Africa and the Levant.[18] It was trading that played an integral part in enabling speakers of diverse languages to converse and in turn borrow a new set of loan words. In this particular case, the English travelled out to the Far East, and interacted with Arabic speakers which resulted in gaining Arabic loanwords.

A number of factors are adduced by Ilson to explain how etymology has pedagogical relevance.[19]

    1- Disambiguate (e.g. *inflammable)*.

    2- Relate *(briny* can be related to its source *brine,* which is helpful because the two words may be alphabetically far apart, and *superman* can be

---

[15] Sulaiman Jenkins, 'Monolingualism: An Uncongenial Policy for Saudi Arabia's Low Level Learners', *ELT Journal*, 64 (2010), 459-461 (pp.459-460).

[16] Juan E. Campo, *Encyclopedia of Islam* (New York: Infobase Publishing, 2009), p.55.

[17] John Ayto, *Word Origins: The Hidden Histories of English Words from A to Z,* 2nd edn (London: A & C Black Publishers, 2005), p.15.

[18] Mary Sidney Serjeantson, *A History of Foreign Words in English* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1961), p.213.

[19] Robert Ilson, 'Etymological Information: Can it Help Our Students?', *ELT Journal,* 37 (1983), 76-82 (p.81).

related to its German source *Übermensch,* which will be of use to German-speakers).

3- Illuminate (as by providing an image to accompany an idiom and make it easier to remember).

4- Motivate (the intrinsic interest of the subject is shown by how much people like to talk about it; best-selling books about language are often popularized accounts of selected etymologies).

Scant attention is paid to the practical value of etymology in language teaching; hence the present study will seek the most appropriate ways to immerse Arab students in a love of English by introducing historical significance related to both Arabic and English. A recent study conducted in 2010 explores the extent of L1 use and the functions it serves for Arabic speakers learning English in an EFL classroom.[20] The participants were formed in pairs and engaged in three tasks: in which meaning and grammatical accuracy held crucial points of focus. Results proved that L1 assisted students in negotiating meaning with one another for completion of the assigned task. The peers supported each other by using an Arabic equivalent to understand the English word; this served social and pedagogical functions. Therefore L1 encourages students to carry out their tasks in a smooth and flexible manner. When a beneficial tool is at hand, it becomes incumbent upon one to utilise it rather than be foolish by abandoning it. Likewise, when teachers and students share a common language background, this mutual component needs to be used efficiently. Due to the NL being the core of one's cognitive faculties, the student will find it easier to adjust to the TL through means of transfer, so L1 inclusion within FL classrooms will facilitate L2 learning. Although the study is limited to Saudi male students, it suggests a clear picture, in acknowledging how students incorporate L1 within various tasks; jigsaw, composition and text editing. The text editing task was grammar focused and more students were inclined to make use of their L1 in such a task. This raises the need for a conscious awareness of grammar, so students can easily complete the task. Wolfgang relates to the universal aspects existing in the linguistic systems of both L1 and L2 and

---

[20] Neomy Storch and Ali Aldosari, 'Learners' Use of First Language (Arabic) in Pair Work in an EFL Class', *Language Teaching Research,* 14 (2010), 355-375.

suggests they play a substantial position in an EFL setting. He considers L1 as an indispensable tool for sound learning to take place.[21]

Issues have been raised concerning possible impediments to the adoption of L1 in a FL classroom: for example if L1 is not regulated well it can restrict and slow down the L2 learning process, and this requires new skills to deal with such obstacles. L1 must be combined intelligently using "sophisticated and powerful" techniques, so it can help build an efficient teaching programme.[22] A group of experts evaluated British published adult courses for global EFL students, and discovered that most of them neglected the needs of both teachers and students. The resources were problematic because sufficient advice was lacking: on how to utilise the materials to suit different learners.   Only a few courses catered for specific situations and included various teaching styles. They conclude with the proposal of an 'easy-to-use teacher's book with succinct and good suggestions for effective teaching.'[23] Clearly, an improvement in course materials is crucial for the success of L2 learning, and a major factor in devising innovative materials is the need to analyse the beliefs and difficulties of both EFL teachers and, for this study Arab learners at present. A major focus of this research will concentrate on Arab learners' errors, and reveal the linguistic differences and similarities between Arabic and English. In a broader context it entails knowledge of other major interrelated fields of study; like the rules of morphology and syntax, furthermore etymology will be discussed to a certain degree.

Reiss posits:

> Due to the fact that differences between the grammatical systems of languages are frequently quite great, it is the morphology and syntax of the TL that clearly deserve priority unless there is some overriding factor in the nature of the text or some special circumstance.[24]

On the linguistic level, morphology and syntax are both central to the language-learning repertoire in order for one to become a competent and proficient learner. Additionally, etymology will be discussed from an historical perspective to adopt a

---

[21] Wolfgang Butzkamm, 'We Only Learn Language Once. The Role of the Mother Tongue in FL Classrooms: Death of a Dogma', *Language Learning Journal,* 28 (2003), 29-39 (p.30).
[22] Wolfgang Butzkamm and John A.W. Caldwell, *The Bilingual Reform: A Paradigm Shift in Foreign Language Teaching* (TÜbingen: Narr, 2009), p.16.
[23] Hitomi Masuhara et al., 'Adult EFL Courses', *ELT Journal*, 62 (2008), 294-312 (p. 302).
[24] Katherine Reiss, *Translation Criticism: The Potentials and Limitations,* trans. by Erroll F. Rhodes (Manchester: St Jerome Publishing, 2000), p.60.

rich learning environment. The goal is to offer teaching strategies to help students use their NL as the central element in acquiring a new language. Critical to the value and logic of the research in this study is an understanding of effective teaching that is required to prepare teachers who share a mutual language background with their students. It is necessary for structuring the linguistic elements of L1 and L2 through CA, with detailed instructions to help improve teacher skills. Exploring how teachers and students feel and react is therefore an area worth studying and one that would contribute reliable knowledge and results in applied linguistics.

The amount of research on the usefulness of Arabic within an EFL setting is extensive and promotes L1 inclusion as detailed previously, but there is no source of advice addressing issue of practical implementation, leaving teachers in the dark by only providing theoretical views. Teachers must be equipped with solid information to understand and anticipate some of the linguistic variations that may arise with students. This suggests the need for structured guidelines for teachers, with a set of pre-planned lessons to use and make further adjustments to depending on the level of students. The importance of research in this field becomes even more apparent when a number of published resources present an insight into the difficulties of Arab learners but pay scant attention to practical implications. In a critical review of a famous book '*Errors in English among Arabic Speakers: Analysis and Remedy*.' O'Sullivan declares 'the "remedy" claim of the book's title appears rather misleading.'[25] This calls for immediate action to produce newly crafted suggestions to redress this omission. He also makes reference to other sources and says 'they offer little for those seeking "practical tips".'[26]

Although it has been nineteen years since this review was written, the need for action still exists mainly because no real effort has been made in laying down practical solutions but the focus has just been upon analysing the errors. The collection of books, articles and journals suggest no renewed interest in the relevance of tackling the errors. The literature review (chapter 2) will document various examples to prove this point. Thus the need for this study is even more essential to enrich the language pedagogy.

---

[25] Andrew O'Sullivan, 'Handbooks for Teachers of English to Arab Students', *ELT Journal,* 47 (1993), 172-174 (p.173).
[26] *Ibid*., p.174.

The MT is the foundation from which other languages are learnt due to direct comparison with it, and Butzkamm highlights the need for 'new paths in teaching methodology and materials production.'[27] The chosen field of research is both theoretical and practical. It is hoped that the intended research will complement the current state of scholarship in this area by providing a more comprehensive insight by deeply investigating how to make use of grammatical items through means of contrast within the classrooms. This study has significant implications for novice and advanced teachers.

1.3 *Overall research aim and individual research objectives*

The overall aim of this research is to identify the similarities and differences between English and Arabic language structures for the ease of both students and teachers. This CA should give the researcher a platform for devising a systematic and structured approach which lays the foundations for newer and better teaching techniques to evolve within the classrooms. The main aim of any language teaching method is to make the target audience learn and understand both written and oral styles of language, for it is the means of human communication. The ability of one to communicate in a FL clearly contributes to the global community and its cohesive unity which is achieved by our awareness of each other's cultures and societies which in many instances can only be truly understood through language.

The following objectives have been identified of paramount importance in helping to achieve the aforementioned aim:

1- Identify the importance of the NL and then explore the legacy of CA to discover its beginning, end and current importance in relation to teaching Arabic speakers English.

2- Evaluate critically the methods and approaches to FL teaching.

3- Implementation of a case study to explore two kinds of EFL teachers; native English (NE) and native Arabic (NA) speakers. The aim is to examine

---

[27] Wolfgang Butzkamm, 'We Only Learn Language Once. The Role of the Mother Tongue in FL Classrooms: Death of a Dogma', *Language Learning Journal,* 28 (2003), 29-39 (p. 38).

teachers' beliefs, practises and difficulties in relation to teaching Arab students, and to further examine students' underlying problems.

4- Devise an efficient set of personalised lesson plans specifically for teaching English to Arabic speaking students.

Two main research tools will be exploited to facilitate this study: an in-depth review of relevant literature and the collection and analysis of empirical data. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies will be pursued, in order to learn about the challenges faced by both teachers and students. The complete details of the research strategy and the data collection methods will be discussed in the section entitled Research Methods. The first objective attempts to answer the question 'How important is L1 grammar in SLA and its need for comparison with L2'? Objective two is of obvious relevance to enable teachers to gain awareness into the various methods and approaches. A literature review will be used to answer both these objectives, because only after outlining what researchers have proposed will it then be easier to expand upon it. As for the third objective, empirical data will be used to provide an opportunity to gain meaningful insight in the views of academic staff. Also students will be assessed using different testing techniques. The research methodology which will be adopted is a single case study in a university setting using various qualitative and quantitative data techniques.

Lastly, objective four will make the key contribution to the research. Empirical data will be gathered and then analysed through a study of the language structure of both Arabic and English to prepare teachers for a systematic approach to combining L1 while teaching L2 using a contrastive strategy. Chapter 5 'Contrastive Analysis' will provide the necessary preliminaries for designing teaching materials. It is an essential extended topic of discussion to help contextualise the lesson plans. The aim is to find solutions for students' errors and teachers' difficulties. This will be formulated as a result of both a review of literature and the collection and discussion of empirical data.

This research is important for a number of reasons, most notably the fact that the existing materials do not provide guiding principles on how to make use of Arabic within an EFL learning environment. The work which is accessible is rather limited in relation to theoretical knowledge and the lack of practical guidance is misleading.

Thus this research will add value to the field of applied linguistics and be advantageous as a reference for EFL teachers, trainers, translators and developing practitioners working with Arab learners. In addition it could be beneficial for teaching English students Arabic, a rich study to accommodate the needs of teachers and students.

2

Literature Review

2.1 *Is the native language important when acquiring a second language?*

L1 acquisition is considered the process by which children acquire their NL. The way it is developed over time can greatly impact various spheres that depend on language, like learning a L2. According to the famous linguist Chomsky, children are endowed with a special ability to acquire any language structure. He proposes the 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD), an innate processor situated in the brain being stimulated through verbal input to result in linguistic competence, describing the child's initial state.[28] The input received plays a significant role as it triggers the LAD to operate. The brain is pre-programmed for controlling speech through discovering certain structures and gradually acquiring them naturally. Thus the rules of language are obeyed without apparent understanding.

Each language represents its unique set of structures which are chained together to build a purposeful band of meanings. It must be clearly understood that the L2 acquirer approaches the TL with an already fully assembled set of L1 grammatical rules. Surely the NL will then affect the way in which the L2 is acquired, especially as an adult whose subconscious state of mind is limited when compared to his/her childhood. Schmidt and Frota state the significance of conscious knowledge in adults when comparing grammatical forms with L1 and L2, for if this is not maintained it

---

[28] Noam Chomsky, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge: M.T.I. Press, 1965), p.32.

will result in a fossilised form.[29] For adults, their consciousness plays a central role as they have the tendency to use rational logic to teach themselves.

The input children receive is what makes them think, speak and develop a certain level of communication. It is this NL which becomes a part of their everyday living. As they gradually grow these inbuilt grammatical principles functioning in their brain will automatically operate in all possible circumstances. It is this unconscious ability they own which is stored in a non-declarative memory storage, which is only made available due to the exposure to implicit learning. In contrast adults' learning mainly relies upon the declarative type of memory, in which explicit form of learning takes place and is then processed as part of the long term memory. The L2 learners are fully equipped with their NL properties, and therefore it is believed that SLA is influenced by the learners' L1 to varying degrees. This implies that in an L2 classroom the native equivalent of a word will need to be addressed, for example, an Arabic speaker will not understand the meaning of 'bread' unless he/she is taught its equivalent in Arabic which is 'kubz.' This technique is referred to as code switching (CS), a powerful way to maintain students' motivation. According to Cook, substituting vocabulary items from the students' L1 is needed to highlight important concepts and explain difficult words. 'The language classroom becomes a real L2 use situation in which both languages are concurrent.'[30] CS is defined as 'the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems.'[31] This strategy is a useful tool in assisting English language teaching and learning, due to the effective transfer of information from the teachers to the students to achieve a number of communicative and metalinguistic ends. CS in the classroom is a legitimate strategy, providing a good opportunity for language development.

Similarly forming any kind of sentences involves finite patterns which may vary from one language to another, and the L2 learner will probably have a tendency to apply his/her L1 syntactic elements, e.g. verbs, articles, prepositions, etc. Several studies support this view and recently Tahaineh analysed students compositions with the intention of discovering the kinds of errors made in the use of prepositions. His case

---

[29] Richard W.Schmidt and Frota S., 'Developing Basic Conversational Ability in a Second Language: A Case Study of an Adult Learner of Portuguese', in *'Talking to Learn': Conversation in Second Language Acquisition,* ed. by R. Day (MA: Newbury House, 1986), pp.237-326.

[30] Vivian Cook, 'Using the First Language in the Classroom', *The Canadian Modern Language Review,* 57 (2001), 402-423 (p.412).

[31] John J. Gumperz, *Discourse Strategies* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982), p.59.

study targeted Arab Jordanian students learning English, and his findings proved that the faulty usage of English prepositions was attributed to the MT interference (1323 errors=58% of the total errors 2290).[32] Arabic was found to play a significant role because learners delete, add or select improper prepositions by transferring L1 habits over to the TL. Additionally, the author concludes that a major form of difficulty lies within 'interference from the NL which is related directly to the problem of literal translation from Arabic into English.'[33] He infers that teachers must certainly make their students conscious of this 'transfer strategy' through reading and listening skills, so they can differentiate between positive and negative transfer because teachers are the primary cause of good and bad interference through their methods of teaching. The present study aims to explore the pedagogical implications of this realisation by incorporating the transfer strategy within the lesson plans to prepare teachers for a linguistic comparison.

2.2 *Contrastive analysis development*

The NL holds a dominant status within the minds of L2 learners; it deeply influences them in many ways. In order to understand how we could make use of the learners' native and TL in a systematic framework, we need to turn our discussion towards the CA.

> The term "contrastive hypothesis" refers to the theory itself while "CA" focuses on the method of implementation of the hypothesis. On the other hand, "CA hypothesis" emphasizes both the theory and method simultaneously.[34]

In the 1950s and 1960s CA was practised as an application of structural linguistics, because every method is based on a particular theory. In structuralism, the language is mastered systematically, so students study the phonological, morphological and syntactic systems to grasp the grammar of any language. Fixed structures exist in all languages; therefore comparison can be easily documented. There were also strong connections with Skinner's behavioural psychology which is based on the stimulus-response theory that students learn by habit formation and drilling. The individual develops certain responses to given stimuli and depending on their response, they

---

[32] Yousef Sharif Tahaineh, 'Arab EFL University Students' Errors in the Use of Prepositions', *Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 1 (2010), 76-112 (p.98).
[33] *Ibid*., p.99.
[34] Byung-gon Yang, 'A review of contrastive analysis hypothesis', *Dongeui Journal*, 19 (1992), 133-149 (p.133).

either receive positive feedback for it to become a habit or negative feedback to prevent further errors.[35]

Fries was responsible for CA's original development. His focus was built upon predicting L2 learning difficulties due to the in-depth study of structural relationships which exist between the native and TL. CA defines the points of similarities and differences between both language structures at the level of syntax, morphology, phonology and semantics. American applied linguists regarded CA as a major component of their teaching as it was believed to prevent the potential problems in SLA.

Fries stated the following:

> 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 NL of the learner.[36]

Lado expanded this theory, and implied that L2 learners are inclined to the fundamental principle of 'transfer.' He positively propounded that 'the learner tends to transfer the habits of his NL structure to the FL.'[37] The notion of transfer means "carrying over the habits of his MT into the L2."[38] According to this definition, L1 substitutes for the subsequent learning in particular situations. The MT is heavily relied upon because its structure affects the acquisition of the L2, and it is expected that the features which are similar in both languages are easy to acquire, whereas those features which are dissimilar are difficult to grasp. Therefore CA is aimed at aiding the field of SLA by facilitating the needs of both students and teachers. Once the teacher studies the common factors between L1 and L2 it will enable him/her to distinguish between which grammars need to be addressed deductively or inductively, and which grammatical structures are the root causes for potential errors.

---

[35] B.F. Skinner, *Verbal Behaviour* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957), cited in Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), pp.56-57.
[36] C.C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945), p.9.
[37] Robert Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957), p.59.
[38] S.P. Corder, 'Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis', *IRAL*, 9 (1971), 147-160 (p.158).

Fisiak makes a remarkable division between both the 'theoretical' and 'applied' contrastive study.[39] Theoretical study deals with the comparison of two or more languages to discover their differences and similarities. This can be taken a step further and using those results from the theoretical study to create a practical framework which is referred to as the applied contrastive study. This is of great benefit for teachers to enhance their syllabus and teaching techniques.

2.2.1 *Criticism*

Wardhaugh suggests that CA exists in two forms: a strong and weak version.[40] Firstly the strong version was formulated by Fries and Lado which he deems as unrealistic and impractical due to its demanding criteria which were difficult to meet. It had not offered a precise set of universal guidelines which linguists could use and from which they could derive accurate contrasts. This attitude is rather daunting because CA has had a significant effect on researches as it has allowed specialists to embark on further research, proving that Fries early ideas were just the beginning, and the research he conducted has proved to have had a positive and lasting effect.

CA has been challenged on various accounts and many scholars allege that CA does not predict all kinds of errors. No doubt non-linguistic errors will also be made but that does not invalidate CA by any means because as James states that it had never claimed L1 interference is responsible for all errors.[41] CA deals with one of many kinds of errors and is a valuable tool that cannot be ignored within language pedagogy. Brown states that "the principal barrier to the L2 system is the interference of the L1 system with the L2 system."[42] Hence MT is the prime cause of negative interference and not the sole cause.

It can be safely argued that not all predictions judged on the scale of differences are going to occur, at least not for all language learners. The grammatical analysis of French and English by Zobl will help one to understand this phenomenon. He states

---

[39] Jacek Fisiak, *Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981), pp.2-3.
[40] Ronald Wardhaugh, 'The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis', *TESL Quaterly,* 4 (1970), 123-30 (pp.124-26).
[41] C. James, 'The Exculpation of Contrastive Linguistics', in *Papers in Contrastive Linguistics*, ed. by Nickel G. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971), pp.53-68 (p.56).
[42] H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (San Francisco: Pearson Longman, 2000), p.208.

that the positioning of the direct pronoun objects vary in both languages. In French, it is positioned before the verb, whereas in English is it placed after a verb. This difference accounts for a problem in SLA, but only for the learners of French and not with learners of English. [43] Although CA would generalise the prediction to both FL learners, in reality this is not the case when reflecting on students' L2 performance.

A major criticism of the claims of CA has been established in another area: the occurrence of positive interference when similarities exist between the native and TL. Odlin affirms that the verb *be* exists in English and Spanish. According to CA this will not result in a negative transfer. Yet a number of studies question this view of CA because Spanish-speaking learners of English are known to omit the verb *be*. [44] These mispredictions are amongst one of the reasons for the inadequacy of CA. Also behaviourism was challenged by Chomsky as he proposed that "language is not a habit structure" and constant repetition is not the way to learn sentences but they are produced from the learner's underlying competence.[45] This led to the decline in the use of CA because it was closely associated with Behaviourism, while the Chomskian linguistics and cognitive psychology gained popularity.[46]

As for CA's weak version, it 'requires of the linguist only that he use the best linguistic knowledge available to him in order to account for observed difficulties in L2 learning.'[47] It does not imply a priori prediction of difficulties like the strong

---

[43] Zobl H., 'The Formal and Developmental Selectivity of L1 Influences on L2 Acquisition', *Language Learning,* 30 (1980), 43-57 (p.52).

[44] Terence Odlin, *Language Transfer* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989), pp.17-18.

See the following reference for a study on learners of English:
G. Butterworth and Evelyn Hatch, 'A Spanish-Speaking Adolescents' Acquisition of English Syntax', in *Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Reading,* ed. by Evelyn Hatch (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978), pp. 231-245.

[45] Noam Chomsky, 'Linguistic Theory', in *Chomsky: Selected Reading,* ed. by J.P.B. Allen and P. Van Buren (London: Oxford University Press, 1966), pp. 152-159 (p.153), cited in Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), p.65.

[46] It is important to note why CA was closely linked to behaviourism. It all relates back to the early 50's, when it was the beginning of a new era for teaching languages using the Audio-lingual method which was based upon the behaviourist theory of learning. Gradually this method revolutionised and CA became its integral part to help arrive at potential problems of interference based on linguistic habits of the L1 which were different from the L2. Thus CA was exploited to suite the purposes of Audiolingualism.

[47] Ronald Wardhaugh, 'The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis', *TESL Quaterly,* 4 (1970), 123-30 (p.126).

version, because in this type reference to errors is a prerequisite for CA to take place as it aims at detecting errors for future prevention and to enhance teaching materials. In general, it is wise to spend time on that which is known to be a barrier to SLA rather than waste time on mere predictions which can either be correct or incorrect. This version has been developed into Error Analysis (EA) which is a better approach for determining errors and their causes through reflection upon the empirical data of learners' errors which is authentic and reliable.

'CA hypothesis is a theory or hypothesis while the EA is an assessment tool.'[48] Thus the CA hypothesis and EA go hand in hand, and it becomes evident that EA had no proper status, it was a mere addition to CA. Accordingly they are complementary: as Johansson suggests 'the primary aim of both is to reveal learners' difficulties.'[49]

The procedures of both CA and EA shall be provided below to further emphasise this point.

CA procedure:

1- Formal descriptions on L1 and L2.
2- Selecting any linguistic unit for contrast.
3- Making a contrast of the chosen linguistic unit.
4- Prediction of difficulty based on the contrast.

EA procedure:

1- Collection of data (for finding errors).
2- Classification of the error types.
3- The frequency of errors.
4- The explanation of errors (MT interference will be explained by contrasting the structures).

---

[48] Byung-gon Yang, 'A review of contrastive analysis hypothesis', *Dongeui Journal*, 19 (1992), 133-149 (p.136).
[49] Stig Johansson, 'The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis (1)', *ELT Journal,* 29 (1975), 246-253 (p.249).

In EA the errors are thoroughly investigated and CA is used as part of the explanatory stage to address difficult areas. On the other hand in CA, the predicted errors are only extracted based upon the linguistic contrast between L1 and L2. They both delve into deep level of contact within grammatical categories but at different stages. In CA the contrast is attended to at the beginning, whereas in EA the contrast takes place at the end.

2.2.2 *The need for contrastive analysis's revival in current language programs*

As early as the beginning of the second half of the twentieth century, interest in EFL teaching in the Arab world began. Possibly the first study of the difficulties faced by Arab learners in learning English was by Raja Nasr in 1955, which was supervised by the founder of CA, Robert Lado. Since then, there has been a great deal of literature in the field of Arabic and English CA/EA, for they are considered as an essential part of learning and teaching a FL. Notwithstanding, attempts to overcome the learners' difficulties, Arab students are still faced with many obstacles. Hashim reviewed the available literature to gather the common kinds of syntactic errors committed by Arab speakers learning English, and surprisingly they were mainly caused by the interference of the MT.[50] Moreover, one of the latest studies investigated the composition of Arab university students learning English to underline common errors and to further classify them according to their features. Three hundred and forty five grammatical errors have been analysed and L1 interference was amongst its major causes.[51] Whilst these and other studies report a positive correlation between L1 and L2, there is limited conclusive evidence to support remedial procedures in tackling negative MT interference. The aim of CA is not merely a better understanding of the linguistic structures between two languages, but also applied deductions, meant to raise the entire teaching system which lays the foundation of what to teach and how teach. Analysing the aforementioned studies, it seems as though no real effort is being taken to rectify the errors, and there are general outcries about the continuous need to

---

[50] N. Hashim, 'English Syntactic Errors by Arabic Speaking Learners Reviewed', in *Pan-Asiatic Linguistics: Proceedings of the Fourth International Symposium on Language and Linguistics,* 5 vols (Salaya, Thailand: Mahidol University, Institute of Language and Culture for Rural Development, 1996), II,1441-1465.
[51] Ibrahim Abu Shihab, Abdallah Hussein El-Omari and Mahmoud Tobat, 'An Analysis of Written Grammatical Errors of Arab Learners of English as a Foreign Language at Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan', *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 20 (2011), 543-552 (p.546).

improve the standards of teaching Arab speakers. Hence, a more sophisticated and principled framework is essential and it is important that it is seen in the context of CA's revival.

Increasing attention is given to L1 usage in order to make a positive contribution to the learning process if used judiciously by both students and teachers. In a review of Arab learners' difficulties, the authors suggest that 'tertiary EFL institutions need to accept the need for and adopt a more realistic policy for L1 use.'[52] L1 plays a supportive and facilitating role but the teachers are not aware of how to exploit such a useful instrument. Meyer proposes that L1 should be used 'to contrast/raise consciousness of similarities or differences between the students L1 and the L2' in order to maintain students' interest and to make the learning meaningful.[53] This raises two important points: firstly new information should be related to the learners' structure of knowledge, especially for adults as it becomes highly retainable; secondly, CA is undeniably important because when an individual acquires new data in the TL, he/she is bound to refer to the innate linguistic competence, thus L2 is inseparable from L1. Meaningful learning is the solution as it can be anchored to one's cognitive structure. The study of etymology helps learners to become more sensitive to the meanings of words and their relation with other languages and words. Pierson urges teachers to exploit the practical features of etymology to offer meaningful learning within SLA curriculums. Rote learning will remain 'cognitively unstable as long as it is unconnected to previous word knowledge.'[54] He proposes a congenial approach to make learners competent and skilful by integrating etymology because it will maintain a strong link with their NL.

2.3 *Various methods and approaches for employing the first language*

History demonstrates how the field of teaching has experienced diverse methodologies over years of practise, study and experience. Methods are either gradually evolved or are suddenly introduced in order to adapt to new and ever changing teaching techniques.

---

[52] Mufeed Jadallah and Fuad Hasan, 'A Review of Some New Trends in Using L1 in the EFL Classroom',<http://www.qou.edu/english/conferences/firstNationalConference/pdfFiles/drMufeed.pdf> [accessed 22 May 2012].
[53] Harry Meyer, 'The Pedagogical Implications of L1 Use in The L2 Classroom', (2008), 147-159 (p.149) <http://www.kyoai.ac.jp/college/ronshuu/no-08/meyer1.pdf> [accessed 22 May 2012].
[54] Herbert D. Pierson, 'Using Etymology in the Classroom', *ELT Journal,* 43 (1989), 57-63 (p.60).

Diane Larsen-Freeman refers to the term "language teaching method" with a remarkable definition: 'a coherent set of links between actions and thoughts in language teaching.' The thoughts represent the ideologies and beliefs, whereas the actions are techniques applicable within the classroom.[55] Rodgers and Richards mention Anthony's model which implies that at the head of each method, there stands an approach where the teacher recognises a certain theory of language or theory of language learning. Consequently, this leads to a systematic arrangement of material design known as the method.

Lastly the practical application identified as the technique follows.[56] All three parts interlock and constitute an important contribution for L2 teaching. Throughout the centuries, FL students have been exposed to many versions of teaching methods, due to the impact of technology, culture and the teachers' aims and objectives. The objective is to first classify different language teaching methods and generally discuss how L1 is employed in each of them. The methods are classified into three kinds: Traditional, Alternative and Current.

2.3.1 *The Traditional Method*

Latin was the world's most widely studied FL five centuries ago. Gradually its spoken form began to diminish due to political change in Europe, and French, Italian, and English gained prominence within society. Nevertheless Latin took on a whole new role as 'an "occasional" subject in the school curriculum.'[57] Latin was taught with a very vigorous approach by detailing every grammatical aspect, and this became a standard model for teaching other FL up until the nineteenth century. This classical approach was later known as the GTM. Hadley asserts that, in GTM, the focus was to help students understand their L1 better through a contrast with L2, by applying grammar analysis and translating texts into and out of the L2.[58] This implies that if the learner revisits the L1 and studies it explicitly, it would become easier to learn a new language.

---

[55] Diane Larsen-Freeman, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2nd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000), p.1.
[56] E.M. Anthony, 'Approach, Method and Technique', *English Language Teaching,* 17 (1963), 63-67, cited in Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), p.19.
[57] Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), p.3.
[58] A. Omaggio-Hadley, *Teaching Language in Context,* 3rd edn (Boston: Heinle, 2001).

During the GTM era, accessing literature such as classical manuscripts was used to enhance ones mental and intellectual knowledge of the FL. The need for translating each language into the other was a fundamental principle of GTM, thus reading and writing skills were the primary focus. Students' NL was attended to in almost all circumstances. Rodgers and Richards illustrate this point in further detail: [59]

- The NL was the medium of instruction.
- Students had to memorise NL equivalents for L2 vocabulary words.
- The meaning of L2 was only made clear by translating it into the NL.
- Comparisons were made between students NL and L2 through detailed analysis of grammar rules.

At present English has taken its position as the world's most prestigious language in relation to commerce, culture, education, government, business and much more. In the Arab world the need for English has been tremendous as mentioned previously ('contrastive analysis development' chapter 2.2). However in this chapter we shall explore how Arab speakers can utilise English as a religious tool. To start with, all religious primary texts for Muslims are preserved in the Arabic language; mainly because Arabic is the language of Islam revealed to Prophet Muhammad (Peace be Upon Him). Hence it becomes imperative to translate such eminent works into the universal language. This can be viewed as a reversed GTM, because in GTM a language (Latin) was learnt for the purpose of accessing its valuable literature. Whereas in this particular case, the students' L1 (Arabic) is the one which holds the sacred text, and L2 (English) must be acquired in order to translate the Arabic literature into English for the benefit of the laymen and the masses of people who cannot access the valuable texts available in the Arabic language.

According to Tahir's statistics, in 1906-1955 a total of twenty-six thousand references on Islamic studies were available in Western languages, and by the 1980s a total of seventy-three thousand and five hundred and eighty seven references were indexed in Index Islamicus.[60] The relationship between Arabic and Islam is crucial in the Arab world. It is has been established that many Arab students learn English in order to propagate their Islamic values. Arabic serves as a medium for transmitting Islamic

---

[59] Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), pp.5-6.
[60] *Ibid.*, p.4.

traditions to the Western world through translation of Arabic books into the English language. Al-Abed Al-Haq examined the position of English and Arabic in Saudi Arabia from 1940-1990, and discovered that religiously-committed people favour the use of Arabic as the medium of instruction. Furthermore, they regard English as an instrumental tool for religious needs.[61] This exemplifies the essence of language, for it interlocks with an individual's religious identity. English will help them gain a position in non-Arabic speaking countries for the spread of Islam. This is in line with the latest Jordanian case study in which four hundred students participated in an attitudinal questionnaire. A strong religious attitude was shown towards learning English because of its international recognition, as well as its economic and commercial benefits. The respondents were eager to utilise their NL (Arabic) to the extent of applying it as a medium of instruction in order to maintain its value and because it is capable of assimilating all kinds of sciences. In addition, the authors postulated the need for developing materials based on 'English for Islamic Purposes (EIP).'[62] Thus, English is an important vehicle for spreading Islam throughout the world. The present study intends on capturing a traditional and Islamic perspective when teaching English and this shall be revealed in the lesson plans.

After analysing the above literature and placing the work in context, it becomes clear that today there is a strong need for applying certain GTM principles in teaching FL, especially with Arab students. The use of MT in giving instruction, teaching grammar rules and translating into and out of the TL is essential for students rooted in religious mind-sets, since Arabic is the impetus for one to learn a new language, in order to communicate Arabic literature into international languages. Therefore if Arabic is minimised it will affect their motivation. The demand for Islamic and Arabic literature has been continuing since the Middle Ages, so Arab students must acquire English to be part of its development and continuity.

---

[61] Fawwaz Al-Abed Al-Haq and Oqlah Smadi, 'The Status of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) from 1940-1990', in *Post-Imperial English: Status Change in Former British and American Colonies, 1940-1990,* ed. by Joshua A. Fishman, Andrew W. Conrad and Alma Rubal-Lopez (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1996),pp. 457-484 (p.477).
[62] Fawwaz Al-Abed Al-Haq and Amer Lahad Al-Masaeid, 'Islam and Language Planning in the Arab World: A Case Study in Jordan', *Iranian Journal of Language Studies,* 3 (2009), 267-302 (p.297).

2.3.2 *Alternative Methods*

Innovative methods of FL teaching developed in the 1970s-1980s and directed their focus upon communicative strategies, and took a step back from grammar. This period witnessed many methods, but only two of its kinds shall be mentioned due to their relevance to L1 usage.

The Silent Way

This method cogently suggests by its given name that teaching is facilitated through the use of silent awareness. Indeed it is based on the general premise that the teacher should be as silent as possible allowing the student to concentrate and discover how the language works. Stevick states that learners use "the knowledge of their own language to open up some things in a new language."[63] Once more this reinforces the significance of the L1 in the minds of all L2 learners, and they are expected to develop autonomy in linguistic creativity. This method is certainly distinctive from others because both teachers and learners are required to interact with physical objects, such as Cuisenaire rods to practise prepositions, pronouns and other syntactic areas. Larsen-Freeman suggests that the NL can be used for feedback sessions to point out specific errors and to give instructions for activities. Also, if the teacher realises a frequent difficultly in the students learning it can be addressed via the NL, for example to help a student to improve his/her pronunciation skills.[64]

Suggestopaedia

This method was devised by Georgi Lozanov, whose goal was to bring students into a comfort zone; the physical surroundings and atmosphere of the classroom played an important role. Suggestopaedia thus has a relationship with music to optimise learning to bring about a relaxed and energetic attitude within the students. Harmer notes three stages of the method. Firstly, there is an 'oral review' in which previously taught material is used as the basis for discussion. In the second part of the class, new material is presented and its NL translation is discussed. The lesson ends with the teacher reading the dialogue while music plays in the background, and the students

---

[63] E.W. Stevick, *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1980), p.42.
[64] Diane Larsen-Freeman, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2nd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000), p.67.

begin to leave quietly.[65] The method comprises three learning strategies; visual, auditory and kinaesthetic.

2.3.3 *Current Methods*

The Bilingual Method

Developed by Dodson between 1967-1972, the bilingual method has had lasting effects till the present day. This method makes use of students' L1 in a judicious manner, recognising when MT needs to be or does not need to be addressed. It begins as a bilingual approach and becomes monolingual at the end, meaning use of the MT is gradually diminished as students advance in their studies. The teacher is in position of controlling the amount of MT used, for if it is not systematically balanced there would be deficiency in their learning as the aim is to ensure both accuracy and fluency in the TL. An effective practice used for the establishment of basic sentence patterns is the drilling technique in which the teacher reads out a dialogue and the pupils repeat it.[66] The teacher is expected to be highly skilled in both the MT and TL, to acknowledge when and where the students are struggling. Miles has a high opinion of the bilingual method, and postulates that advocates of this method may deem the L1 as an essential component for the distinction between L1 and L2 grammar because it is one of the more crucial and complex areas to deal with, hence L1 needs to be used for simplified explanation.[67] Miles also disapproves of the monolingual approach, where the MT is excluded to maximise L2 exposure for better results. He argues that the monolingual approach is impractical and exposure is not the only solution for learning a FL.[68]

No doubt L2 exposure is important but to a certain degree because L1 restriction may impede learning. Students' capability must be taken into consideration. This suggests that L1 is inescapable because it is the pupils' only source in which they think and process new information. This falls in line with a case study pertaining to a positive use of the MT, which was conducted in a Saudi public school. Although various

---

[65] Jeremy Harmer, *The Practise of English Language Teaching*, 3rd edn (Harlow: Longman, 2001), pp.89-90.

[66] M.F. Patel and Praveen M. Jain, *English Language Teaching: Methods, Tools and Techniques* (Jaipur: Sunrise Publishers, 2008), p.82.

[67] Richard Miles, 'Evaluating the Use of L1 in The English Language Classroom' (unpublished master's thesis, University of Birmingham, 2004), pp.7-8.

[68] *Ibid*., p.9.

groups pre-suppose different kinds of views, this specific case study is relevant for the present research for two reasons. Firstly, the thirty participants were intermediate level students, having Arabic as their NL. This is similar to the data subjects involved in the present research: twenty-five Arabic speaking students pursuing English at an intermediate level. The attitude of both teachers and students were examined in relation to the MT, and surprisingly 70% of the students demanded that Arabic be interlarded with English. In addition 83% favoured a systematic approach which contrasts both languages.[69] The most common practise for teachers was found when teaching L2 grammatical aspects through the MT. The author, Al-Nofaie proposes that teachers need to increase the use of bilingual dictionaries because students tend to ask their peers for the NL equivalent, but dictionaries will account for accurate definitions and instil independency.[70] L1 is a major source for maintaining students' motivation; hence the present study will engage itself into the ideal way to teach, present and practise L2 alongside L1.

CLT

CLT has appealed to many teachers and is currently one of the most popular teaching methods available. CLT first appeared in the late 1960s, and is based on the theory that the primary function of language use is communication. Hymes' central aim is "communicative competence",[71] to learn useful information which helps in accomplishing a high level of proficiency in speech, enabling learners to perform in a variety of social situations. CLT has become a master tool for the majority of contemporary language teachers worldwide. In accordance with Al-Haq's findings, Arab students acquiring English will gain a good position in non-Arabic speaking countries for the spread of Islam.[72] This demonstrates that communication skills are essential in every way, communicating with English speaking citizens and communities is the only way forward for a respectable profession. When Arab speakers equip themselves with English; they find themselves in a unique position to

---

[69] Haifa Al-Nofaie, 'The Attitudes of Teachers and Students Towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools', *Novitas ROYAL,* 4 (2010), 64-95 (pp.73-77).
[70] *Ibid*., p.76.
[71] D. Hymes, 'On Communicative Competence', in *Sociolinguistics,* ed. by J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1972), pp.269-293.
[72] Fawwaz Al-Abed Al-Haq and Oqlah Smadi, 'The Status of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) from 1940-1990', in *Post-Imperial English: Status Change in Former British and American Colonies, 1940-1990,* ed. by Joshua A. Fishman, Andrew W. Conrad and Alma Rubal-Lopez (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1996),pp. 457-484 (p.477).

transmit knowledge of both the classical Arabic text and Islamic literature. Besides achieving a goal or a career, some Arab students are interactively motivated, although they are the minority.[73] Cooper and Fishman term this kind of motivation as "developmental," pertaining to personal desires, e.g. reading books and watching television.[74] Nevertheless, the main stimulus for learning English is to access the vast array of global and international data which will allow the speaker to integrate within society and provide new opportunities, such as travelling and jobs etc.

Rodgers and Richards argue that CLT permits the judicious use of students NL, and translation into and out of the L2 should be made available for enhancing students' SLA.[75] Although CLT places an emphasis on the spoken word and its fluency, it still makes use of traditional aspects like the NL because that qualifies as an ideal source for any task to be expedited more efficiently.

2.4 *Pertinent issues and the need for empirical research*

The study of relevant literature reveals that language teaching is a complex and moving landscape. It has also identified a gap in existing research in that there was ample evidence on the need for teachers to be provided with a systematic CA, and focus more attention on the pedagogical relevance of the MT in the real world by forming practical guiding principles. To accommodate this new paradigm shift in teaching, it is required to undertake empirical research, which will explore teachers' views and the relationship between students errors and it causes to meet the needs of both teachers and students. The performance data of learners will, it is hoped provide remedial techniques and structured lesson plans with an Islamic perspective, tailored for Arab students learning English. Teaching guidelines were identified as a vital prerequisite for preparing teachers in what and how to teach. A valuable aspect to this research work relates to objective three as mentioned in chapter 1. The next stage of this research will detail the Research Methods to be used to capture the empirical data.

---

[73] Diala Abu-Ghazaleh and Deema Hijazai, 'Jordanian Graduate and Undergraduate University Students' Attitudes Towards the English Language', *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 21 (2011), 625-637 (p.626).
[74] R.L. Cooper, J.A. Fishman, 'A Study of Language Attitudes', in *The Spread of English,* ed. by J.A. Fishman, R.L. Cooper and A.W. Conrad (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1977), pp. 239-276 (p.243).
[75] Jack C. Richards and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001), p.156.

3

Research Methods

3.1 *Research strategy*

The research strategy that will be adopted here is a case study, because the focus of this research lies in exploring a number of learning issues related to MT interference. A case study is defined in the following way.

> …the case study researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit – a child, a class, a school or a community. The purpose of such observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit.[76]

These facets of case study strategy fit perfectly with the aim of objective three of this research: to probe deeply into the causes of students' errors and find solutions through CA planning, and the opportunity to gain an insight into the teachers' challenges and perspectives. The implementation of this case study is concerned with close observation of how a particular population group behave in a particular context. Hence, the research was conducted within a real university setting. Both students' and teachers' views, difficulties and practises were intensely analysed. All this is based on the assumption that reality is best understood through observations, connections, social constructions and interactions. Therefore a case study is best suited to facilitate an in-depth analysis of learning and teaching strategies in the EFL context.

3.2 *Data collection*

Site and Sample Selection

This single case study was based on students and teachers from The European Institute of Human Sciences (EIHS), Wales. Refer to Appendix A to view the pictures of the setting. This institute was chosen for its diverse data pool, consisting of two EFL teachers: a male NA speaker and a female NE speaker, and twenty-five foreign

---

[76] L. Cohen, Manion L., *Research Methods in Education* (London: Routledge, 1995), p.106.

students consisting of both males and females from six Arabic speaking countries: Morocco, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Algeria and Egypt. In normal circumstances, getting data from different geographical locations can enhance and create more detailed results than those that are based on one particular location. However, in this instance the aim was to gather as many different NA speakers from numerous countries which will increase the chances of a more controlled and coherent study.

EIHS is the only accredited institute in UK which offers a comprehensive teaching of Islam in the medium of Arabic which is of course a great benefit for the NA speakers. Prior to coming to the UK they are not required to know English because the study is in Arabic, nevertheless the institute arranges for EFL study courses as part of the degree. Fortunately they are based in the UK which means that the students are also exposed to English, in this unique setting; a truly valuable Data Model is provided which is directly related to the specifics of the case study.

The department of Islamic Law is of particular concern because it offers a bachelor's degree which is taught through the medium of Arabic, and incorporated within this course is an EFL programme. This allowed a focused approach to the study, giving teachers the opportunity to express detailed views on their Arab speaking students' NL interference, and learning about teachers' EFL lesson preparation.

This understanding of NL interference was enhanced further by observing students' performance. Therefore, twenty-five students were selected as an essential part of this research when their errors were investigated through an assessment test and classroom observation. A major focus of this study is to devise a set of structured lesson plans based on CA which are tailored for Arabic speaking Muslims, then selecting EIHS as the site for data collection is a great opportunity to address the issue efficiently.

If other universities in the UK were taken into consideration, it would become difficult to filter out Arabs from other foreign learners; therefore EIHS is the preferred option because all the FL students share Arabic as their NL. The studies on Arab learners' errors that were discussed in the literature review were carried out in Middle Eastern countries, like Jordon and Saudi Arabia which increases the need for this case study to be conducted in the UK.

The case study depends on various sources for its data collection to gain a detailed picture and grasp a better understanding for the overall study. Gathering data from ones institute raises the issue of objectivity. The researcher studied at the institute two years ago and has also taught an EFL course there. Implementing a case study within ones previous place of learning has the comforting advantage of access to research subjects; but if the case study were not managed properly, questions may be asked about its reliability and objectivity. Hence, the researcher agreed to take much care and limit the study to the 1st year students, so as not to be influenced by her prior knowledge of the older students' views and bring such knowledge to bear when analysing the raw data. It must be clearly understood that regardless of the type or number of institutes, the findings may be of great interest and benefit to any kind of institute or university where similar issues are found, or if they are keen on using CA, or an Islamic based syllabus for Arab speakers as a new model for teaching English. As a whole it will add incrementally to the knowledge base of CA research.

Data Collection Techniques

Convenience sampling was used to select both the university and the undergraduate programme. As the name suggests, it was highly convenient for the researcher to select EIHS for various reasons. Firstly, the researcher had studied there and was also opted to teach a number of EFL lessons based on work placement. It was then easy to access the research subjects and have ready access.

The qualitative data was measured through various data collection techniques. At the outset of the case study, necessary information was obtained through the vehicle of interviews. This opened the chance to generate a dynamic discussion and confront core issues with EFL teachers. Thus the interview questions and its overall structure were prepared prior to the meeting to help create an aura of professionalism. The nature of the interview was semi structured, in which both open-ended and closed questions were asked, to impose a rigid structure to the interview focusing upon the research topic, and then gradually introducing a degree of flexibility allowing new issues to emerge depending on the responses and willingness of the interviewee.[77] Berg mentions that semi structured questions are conducted in 'a systematic and

---

[77] Sharlene Nagy Hesse-Biber and Patricia Leavy, *The Practise of Qualitative Research,* 2nd edn (London: Sage Publications, 2011), p.102.

consistent order, but the interviewers are allowed freedom to digress; that is, the interviewers are permitted (in fact expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared and standardized questions.'[78] Fortunately the interview provided the respondents with the chance to express their opinions, enabling the conversation to flow smoothly. Interviewing two different teachers will allow for cross-comparisons of responses, encouraging different perspectives on teaching Arab students, e.g. perceived barriers, staff support required and challenges. Please refer to Appendix B to view the kinds of questions that NA and NE teachers were asked. Communicating effectively helps establish a good standard of data collection; Berg notes that 'interviews must be conducted at the level or language of the respondents.'[79] Therefore Arabic was spoken at times when interviewing the NA teacher. Interviews allow for an in-depth exploratory study, so the questions will be articulated in a well-structured manner. The interviews were recorded via Dictaphone for two reasons: to ensure that the analysis of data is based upon an accurate record and to be able to extract the most crucial comments and nuances after reviewing the interview because in one sitting not all points can be jotted.

Secondly, the researcher observed two EFL lessons of the NA teacher, the reason for only observing this one teacher is because the aim of the study is to focus upon bilingual teaching; how Arabic and English can work together. Observational lessons enable the observer to assess the methods and techniques, and highlight major and minor issues; like the advantages and disadvantages of L1 usage. Furthermore cross referencing of related points from the interview will be offered to help determine if the teacher acted in accordance to his stated beliefs when placed in a practical situation. Lists of things to observe were documented beforehand in order to focus on one thing at a time; please refer to Appendix C to view the observational sheet. To maximise the accuracy of the data collected, the lessons observed were audio recorded via Dictaphone in order to reflect upon various aspects such as the tone and flow of the students' speech, as well as the errors. Although such an activity will prove time-consuming, it will surely enrich the data because if the researcher constantly takes notes then surely important points will be missed which could have only be noticed when being immersed within the lesson itself. Lofland recommends that the researcher

---

[78] Bruce L. Berg, *Research Methods for the Social Sciences,* 4th edn (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 2001), p.70.
[79] *Ibid.,* p.77.

writes up the notes soon after the event while taking enough time to consider salient points.[80] Filming would have been a better approach but its expense was not affordable.

Lastly, the quantitative data was approached through a questionnaire. The participants were intermediate level, and the researcher targeted the students who were taught by the NA teacher to keep consistent with the case study. The questionnaire comprised of two parts. Part A was aimed at measuring the students' attitudes about learning English. It was designed using a Likert-type scale, where students were required to respond to each given statement by circling the appropriate degree of agreement or disagreement. The scale included the following keys: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree. Kothari mentions that a Likert-type scale allows the researcher to examine whether participants are more or less favourable to a topic. It is the most popular kind of scale used by researchers, because it is relatively easy to construct.[81] The questionnaire was translated into Arabic in order to achieve reliable results. The questionnaire along with the Arabic translation is provided in Appendix D.

Part B was a grammar assessment test with a time limit of thirty minutes, incorporating areas of syntax and morphology depending on the students' current level. There were five questions to the test, each question having three parts, refer to Appendix E to view the test questions. It was created by the researcher after discussing with the teacher, what the students learnt and the areas they were expected to know at that particular stage. The test was conducted in a classroom under strict examination conditions, while students were supervised by the researcher and the main language teacher. This testing strategy aims at targeting the lack of students understanding and that is, how objective 3 will be formed. Detecting the errors is a cumulative process, dependent on the result from a number of data collection techniques.

---

[80] J. Lofland, *Analysing Social Settings* (New York: Wadsworth, 1971), p.104.
[81] C. R. Kothari, *Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques*, 2nd edn (Delhi: New Age International Publishers, 2004), p. 86.

3.3 *Framework for data analysis*

Both qualitative and quantitative data will form the basis of the case study, and the way the data is to be analysed is the key issue of contributing to the field of CA and applied linguistics. The case study is approached in a highly structured way, using themes which reflect the overall aims and echo crucial points arising from the literature review. The themes are identified as follows:

- Methods and techniques
- L1 in the classroom
- CA
- Experiences and challenges
- Students errors

The empirical data consists of interviews, observational lessons and questionnaires. All the results emerging from these techniques will be linked to one another in order to enrich the discussion and generate a strong list of recommendations. In terms of contrasting the findings, firstly the teachers' views will be contrasted to understand if and how an Arab EFL teacher may have an advantage over the English EFL teacher. The study intends to concern itself with the judicious use of Arabic within an EFL setting therefore the lessons of the NA teacher will be analysed and in turn related back to the interview findings. Furthermore, contrasting the results with the literature review will impose a meaningful interpretation.

The students results derived from the questionnaire and the test will be integrated into the appropriate themes. Results will be shown using graphical models (bar charts/pie charts) to convey basic statistical information. The errors will be organised according to their grammatical terminologies, e.g. word order, adjectives, past simple etc. In terms of deep analysis of both qualitative and quantitate data, objectives 3 and 4 will come into play. Firstly the 3rd objective is where the errors will be analysed through CA and that will lead towards the 4th objective in which a set of personalised teaching plans will be designed, specifically for teaching English to Arabic speaking students.

Qualitative	Quantitative
Analysis Process	Analysis Process

Compare findings:

-NA teacher against the NE teacher.

-Interview results against the observational findings.

-Literature review findings against the interview results.

Collected data
(Interviews/ observational lessons)

Collected data
(Questionnaires combined with a grammar test)

Compare findings:

- Students' views against teachers' views using the interview results.

-Students' errors (from the questionnaire) against the teachers' views about errors.

-Literature review findings against the attitudinal questionnaire results.

Describe and **compare** the **data**

Analysis

The detected errors will lead towards a **Contrastive Analysis**

Lesson plans

Figure 1: Step by step approach for the case study

37

4

Empirical Findings and Discussion

This chapter reveals the results of the case study described in Chapter 3. The transcriptions of the interviews are available in Appendix F; the two lessons observational sheets can be found in Appendix G; and the students' original copy of the questionnaire (part A) are in Appendix H and part B are accessible in Appendix I. The raw data is described, discussed and analysed according to the following themes:

- Methods and techniques
- L1 in the classroom
- CA
- Experiences and challenges
- Students' errors

4.1 *Methods and techniques*

The NA teacher does not favour the GTM due to its vigorous approach in which reading and writing are the major focus and accuracy is emphasised, while fluency is given little or no systematic attention. He considers speaking and listening as the only way forward for acquiring a L2, which explains why he prefers the CLT approach. He mentions that 'reading and writing do not make you acquire language.' This is a rather bizarre statement because these two skills are essential in everyday life just as one learns to communicate verbally. In fact all four skills --- reading, writing, speaking and listening ---- supplement one another and play an integral role in L2 learning. However when analysing the NA teacher's lessons, more emphasis was given to reading and writing which is rather ironic. Both lessons had a very limited communicative focus, because whenever the students spoke between themselves they mainly used Arabic and this contradicts the aim of a CLT teaching theory. Teachers may not always be in a position to apply their personal beliefs and practises within the classroom because the institute has laid down a curriculum which they must abide by.

GTM incorporates useful techniques which were highly favoured by the students. The pie chart below illustrates that they are interested in learning how to translate from Arabic into English. This is one of the key features of the GTM, and unfortunately the teacher ignores it. During the observational lesson two, students were organised into pairs to correct wrong sentences and were found translating sentences into their NL to find any form of similarities or differences although that was not mentioned in the instruction.
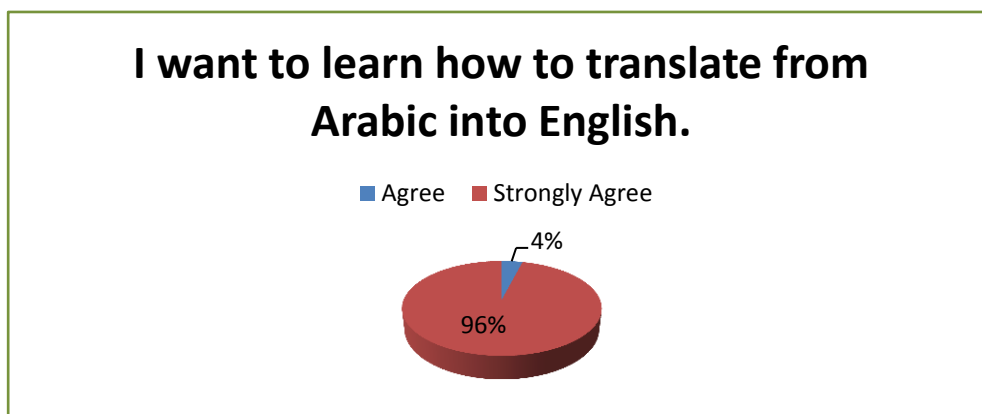
Figure 2: Students' attitudinal responses about translating from Arabic into English

Both teachers are of the opinion that GTM does not enhance SLA, but the NE teacher is more flexible and allows the use of GTM when a lesson involves grammar teaching, and this method is famous for its traditional style of learning grammar.

Drilling and practise holds a contradictory position in the eyes of both teachers. For the NE teacher, it is very important as it helps develop their language skills through participation of quizzes and timed question and answer activities based on a relevant context to practise the items learnt. For the NA teacher, it is not the best of ways to acquire vocabulary or sentence structures. However, he prioritises the need of having learnt a sentence structure from the NE teacher because they will know the proper form that is used in everyday life; this entails the concept of culture and society. This is a detailed study and will not be mentioned here due to its irrelevancy with the present topic.

4.2 *L1 in the classroom*

In general both teachers correlate a positive response regarding L1 usage. The NA teacher postulates that L1 keeps students motivated and engaged; however 'it should

only be used when the situation is demanding.' He stresses the importance of actions, facial expressions and realia. This was supported by the first observational lesson, in which the teacher taught adjectives through the overhead projector, flashcards and facial expressions. Through close observation, the teacher was not making use of L1 in a proper manner. He was using Arabic to describe the role of an adjective, when a more sophisticated explanation through CA would have been more appreciable. Referring to the students' attitudinal responses as shown in the two pie charts below, it is evident that when Arabic is used to deliver the lesson, they are not as keen as they are for CA between the two languages. Although the NA teacher emphasises that L1 is used for simplifying L2, he lacks the concept of how to bring about this efficient approach.

I find it useful when the tutor uses Arabic to teach the English language.

■ Disagree ■ Neutral ■ Agree ■ Strongly Agree

4%
16%
20%
60%
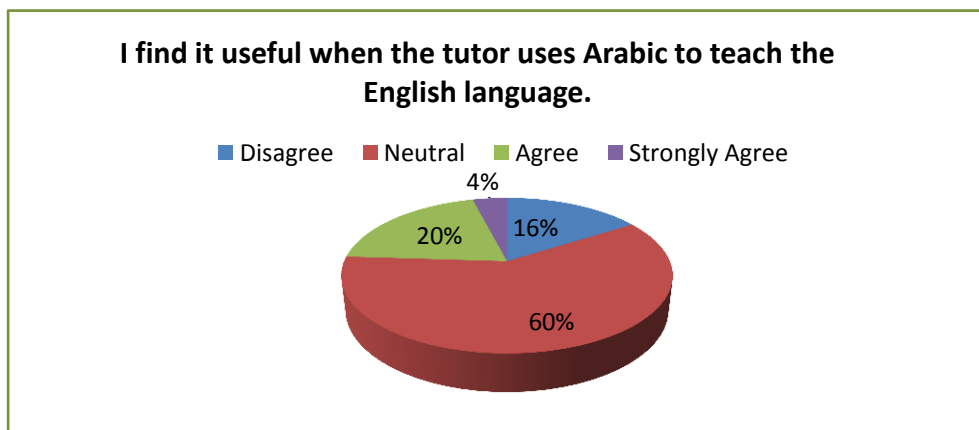
Figure 3: Students' attitudinal responses about teachers using Arabic to teach English

I want the tutor to teach English grammar by contrasting it with Arabic grammar, recognising the similarities and differences between both languages.
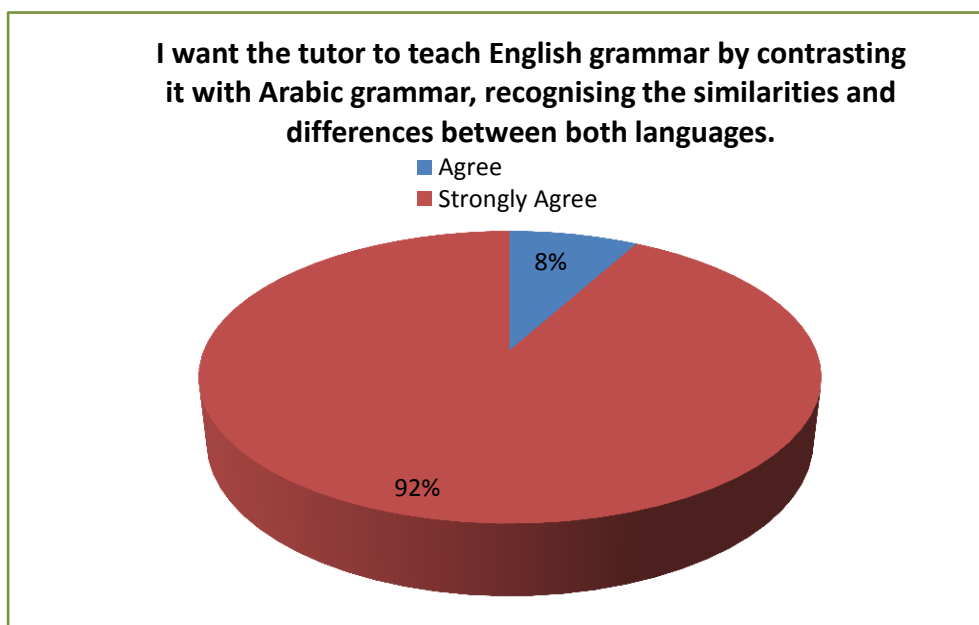
■ Agree
■ Strongly Agree

8%
92%

Figure 4: Students' attitudinal responses regarding contrastive analysis

The NA teacher sates:

> Students should not be permitted to use L1. L1 is only for the teacher to aid students and must be kept to minimum. Teachers must not feel comfortable with using L1 all the time, and must use it reluctantly.

Although the teacher strongly views L1 as a hindrance when utilised by the students, after observing the two lessons, there were many situations in which L1 was used and the teacher did not reprimand them. E.g. pair activities. A personal belief is at times difficult to apply in a given situation, especially when all the students speak the same NL. L1 has its drawbacks for NA teachers and the observational lessons helped reach the following conclusion: students begin to feel comfortable and are more likely to use L1 than L2 which counteracts with the aims and objectives of SLA. When certain activities are designed to incorporate L1 and L2, the teacher adheres to L2 only whereas those activities which are exclusively for L1, then the teacher integrates between L1 and L2 usage. This disrupts the pupils' learning and is an inconsistent approach to use.

The NE teacher believes L1 is a useful tool that is exchanged between students. Although the teacher lacks the ability to use L1 herself, she allows her students to take advantage of it i.e. when comprehension is lacking, students help one another by giving instructions in their NL and exchanging vocabulary items from Arabic into English. This falls in line with research conducted by Storch and Aldosari, in which L1 was found to facilitate deliberations over vocabulary.[82] Therefore CS is the best way forward to teach vocabulary. The teacher is happy for students to adhere to this practise only because they share Arabic as their NL, but at the same time suggests that this approach of L1 needs to be regulated. Therefore rules and regulations need to be set beforehand in their NL to manage a proper learning environment. Such as guidelines about when to use and avoid L1, and also making references to specific situations in the classroom (e.g. names and instructions of activities). On the negative side, the NE teacher believes that teaching the beginners level is challenging, due to the fact that both parties lack communicative skills and cannot understand L2 instruction. Both the NA and NE teachers agree that instruction is the most appropriate area for L1 inclusion.

---

[82] Neomy Storch and Ali Aldosari, 'Learners' Use of First Language (Arabic) in Pair Work in an EFL Class', *Language Teaching Research,* 14 (2010), 355-375.

It was interesting to discover their views about whether it is more important to be a NE or NA speaker when teaching Arabs. The NA teacher states 'a lot of people seem to be obsessed by the idea of the teacher being native.' There is this 'crazy' dogma which is appealing to many institutions and students but as the NA intelligently puts it 'being native is only beneficial in two ways. First, awareness of his language culture and secondly, correct pronunciation.' The NE teacher suggests that none are important as long as the teacher is giving his/her best to teach the students in every possible way.

The NE teacher seems more understanding in terms of her students employing Arabic between themselves, while the problem with the NA teacher is that he does not know how to judiciously use L1. Sharing a NL with students is a tool that one needs to manage effectively. For example, if a man owned hundreds of pens and was illiterate what would be the use of him having them if he did not learn how to read or write? Similarly, the NA teachers need to be taught how to deal with Arab students to maximise the benefit. This understanding is based on a number of factors: the literature review revealed the general lack of NA teachers' techniques and the urgent need for appropriate guidelines and materials specifically aimed at L1 adoption. This was further proven when the NA teacher showed weakness in employing L1 effectively.

4.3 Contrastive Analysis

Surprisingly the teachers have opposing views on the implementation of CA. Prior to the interview; the researcher was of the opinion that the NA teacher would highly favour the CA due to his native-like connection with the students. However in the end this prediction was proved wrong because the NE teacher was enthusiastic while the NA teacher was not very keen with the application of CA.

Reviewing the responses of the NA teacher, he states:

> Personally, I think learners should avoid comparing between L1 and L2 especially grammar. Since languages differ in the way they are structured, it is recommended that the learner while learning L2 should totally forget about the way his MT is structured. The learner should merge in the language and learn it as it is.

This clearly contradicts the findings of Schmidt and Frota in which they consider the comparison between L1 and L2 as a major component of any FL learning.[83] The students' innate linguistic competence of depending on their NL cannot be rejected, and this might explain why CA is a significant model of teaching. The understanding of the NA teacher is rather limited and this is explained by the fact that he has not been through any literature on CA. The NA teacher's view concurs with Krashen's because he prioritises the subconscious process, similar to the way a child picks up a NL and at the same time disregards explicit instruction as it may impede the learning of a L2.[84]

Analysing the research tools, 92% of the students revealed their desire for Arabic to be interlarded with English. These findings seem to be consistent with Al-Nofaie's case study, in which 70% of students demanded that Arabic and English must be contrasted and 83% wanted an organised plan for CA.[85] Arab students have a strong inclination towards CA, and it is important for teachers to take their students' attitudes and preferences into consideration. This will not only speed up the learning but increase their inspiration to learn, and building motivation in students in an essential part of teacher management.

The NE teacher views CA as a useful strategy and aiding her 'ability to learn Arabic as well as teach Arabic speaking students.' This will give the teacher a chance to acquire a new language and become acquainted with its linguistic features. The teacher will then become a student at the same time. She suggests that CA will assist in anticipating learning problems. Therefore the teacher will become cautious and this will help speed the learning repertoire simply because negative interference of the MT will be highlighted from the start. This point is further emphasised by reviewing a study in which a total of three hundred and forty five grammatical errors of Arab students learning English were gathered, and L1 interference was amongst its major

---

[83] Richard W. Schmidt and Frota S., 'Developing Basic Conversational Ability in a Second Language: A Case Study of an Adult Learner of Portuguese', in *'Talking to Learn': Conversation in Second Language Acquisition,* ed. by R. Day (MA: Newbury House, 1986), pp.237-326.
[84] Stephen D. Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981), pp.1-2.
[85] Haifa Al-Nofaie, 'The Attitudes of Teachers and Students Towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools', *Novitas ROYAL,* 4 (2010), 64-95 (pp.73-77).

causes.[86] Consequently the NE teacher continues to favour the CA and mentions that even if some students find it confusing; its benefits outweigh the disadvantages. This was contrary to the NA teacher's view for he makes a general statement that it will confuse and lead to unnecessary questions while the NE teacher considers it 'more helpful,' especially for the students.

The NE teacher contributes a great deal of interest in the field of CA and believes it will provide her with an ideal lesson planning scheme, and this is the initial objective of this approach. Fries, the inventor of CA as previously stated in the literature review proposes that materials focused around a direct comparison between L1 and L2 will definitely enhance the teaching standard.[87] In conclusion, the NE teacher is happy to incorporate the CA within the lesson itself and to have students engage and learn the similarities and differences between L1 and L2.

On the other hand, the NA teacher agrees with CA easing the task of teachers so they can pick and choose appropriate items to teach, but wants to keep it at a basic level; not to discuss with students but to simply understand their problems.

4.4 *Experiences and challenges*

The NE teacher finds it challenging when students overuse L1 in the classroom. Instead of placing a restriction on its use, she allows students to continue to use L1 because she respects their language and culture. The literature review suggests that the NL is a vehicle for heritage and cultural identity and its exclusion may underline an ideological conception of L1 inferiority, so it is arguably beneficial for all language teachers to not undermine this aspect, but rather adjust to approaches that employ L1 appropriately. The NE teacher believes L1 has many benefits as mentioned previously in chapter 4.2 (L1 in the classroom). However she suggests that a form of balance is necessary, for example a set of rules should be provided in their NL so there is a mutual understanding from both sides. As for the NA teacher, L1 is completely beneficial because the teacher has many advantages over the NE teacher purely because he can communicate with them in their NL at any time. From this discussion

---

[86] Ibrahim Abu Shihab, Abdallah Hussein El-Omari and Mahmoud Tobat, 'An Analysis of Written Grammatical Errors of Arab Learners of English as a Foreign Language at Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan', *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 20 (2011), 543-552 (p.546).
[87] C.C. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945), p.9.

it is deduced that no one can degrade a NE teacher just because he/she cannot communicate with the students. Certainly more patience is required when teaching lower level students but that is part of teaching, a journey full of challenges and reward.

Both teachers differ in regards to how to react when a lesson is not going the way it was planned. The NA teacher would use the extension part of the lesson, but the NE teacher notes a list of things to do:

- Short break (5-10 minutes)
- Regroup the whole class
- Make slight changes to the lesson
- Games/quizzes
- Short spelling test

These points are more adequate as they will encourage the students to carry on learning. Sometimes it is good to consider their feelings and give free space in the classroom or even change the theme of the lesson. This helps establish a good relationship between the student and teacher.

Referring to the students' attitudinal responses as illustrated in the pie chart below, it strongly suggests that they are religiously motivated because they all ticked 'strongly agree.' This provides the teacher with an opportunity to deliver the lessons with an Islamic perspective as is the aim of the present study. This contributes towards the recommendations made by Al-Haq and Al-Masaeid because they proposed the need for materials based on EIP.[88]

---

[88] Fawwaz Al-Abed Al-Haq and Amer Lahad Al-Masaeid, 'Islam and Language Planning in the Arab World: A Case Study in Jordan', *Iranian Journal of Language Studies,* 3 (2009), 267-302 (p.297).

It can be argued that although this area of interest is specific to the institution and its selection policies, at the same time it can be applied to an absolute cultural uniformity for the following reasons:

- Islam is the impetus for one to learn English in order to communicate Islamic literature.
- Generally religion is a major concern for the Arab community in various aspects. Such as education, social interaction and work.
- Islam emanates a Muslim's motivation skills.
- English is an instrumental tool for religious needs.
- English is a means for propagating Islamic values.

Figure 5: Students' degree of religious motivation

4.5 *Students' errors*

Error making is part of language learning. The way errors are dealt with is a serious issue because it can either improve or weaken the students' ability or motivation skills. The NE teacher uses writing and speaking activities in the form of drilling to overcome any repeated errors, and also tends to reserve some time before the end of the lesson for its discussion. Consequently, the following lesson will address those errors to aid their learning repertoire. On the other hand, the NA teacher reacts to errors by an extensive number of activities. He recommends that teachers should avoid direct correction, meaning the teacher must immediately correct but without reprimanding and rather congratulate the students for attempting and then say the correct form after which the students repeat. This technique was used frequently throughout the two lessons. Secondly, he adds that only those errors which are associated with the lesson should be addressed and not others to avoid confusion because language should be learnt step by step in an orderly manner. During the second observational lesson, the NA teacher noted down the errors and explained them without pinpointing any names, this way students do not feel criticized or ashamed in front of others.

Both teachers strongly feel that knowledge of the students' NL will help in understanding and rectifying their errors. This complements the current study in which the errors gathered from the students' test is further analysed through CA of Arabic and English. Firstly, the test results are documented below according to each question, detailing the amount of errors using bar graphs. Question one was aimed at assessing pupils' conscious awareness of grammatical terms in their NL.

Amount of Errors

Legend:
- Verb فعل
- Doer فاعل
- Object مفعول به

Categories: Verb فعل = 8%, Doer فاعل = 12%, Object مفعول به = 16%
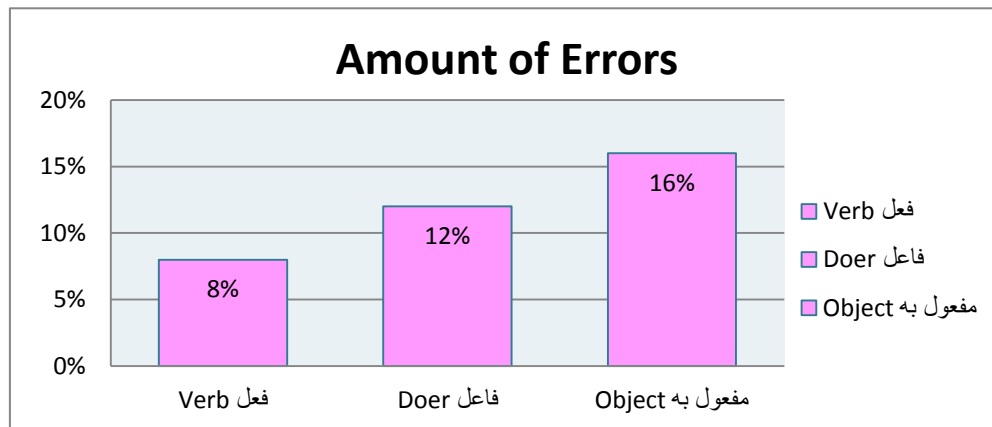
Figure 6: Students' knowledge of Arabic grammar

The results strongly suggest that Arabic speaking students are well equipped in the study of Arabic grammar. Twenty-two students were able to distinguish between the different parts of speech according to the correct terminologies. Part A of the questionnaire verifies that all twenty-five students are religiously motivated; this justifies their knowledge in the Arabic language for various reasons. Firstly the participants are all Muslims who believe in the Holy Qu'ran as their religious scripture, which was originally revealed in the Arabic language. Therefore it is expected from every practising Muslim to have an in-depth study of its grammar to fully comprehend the words of God. Secondly, EIHS offers a comprehensive study of the Arabic grammar as part of the degree.

For CA to work efficiently, students must have solid background in how their NL works systematically to help them connect it with the L2. According to the researcher's personal experience, the grammar of a FL was only made easy when the NL grammar was learnt. The test was particularly aimed at assessing students' knowledge in the field of English grammar according to their level (intermediate) therefore in questions two, three, four and five the following major linguistic areas were targeted:

    I.   Word order
   II.   Past simple and past continuous verbs
  III.   The genitive case and order of adjectives
  IV.   Gender: personal pronouns

The test results are presented below according to the above-mentioned linguistic categories.

I. Word order

This category constitutes the most problematic area for students. Arabic sentence structures have a varying word order. The bar graphs represent the different ways in which students constructed the sentences.

	VSO	VOS	OVS	SVO
Sentence 2a	56%	8%	4%	32%
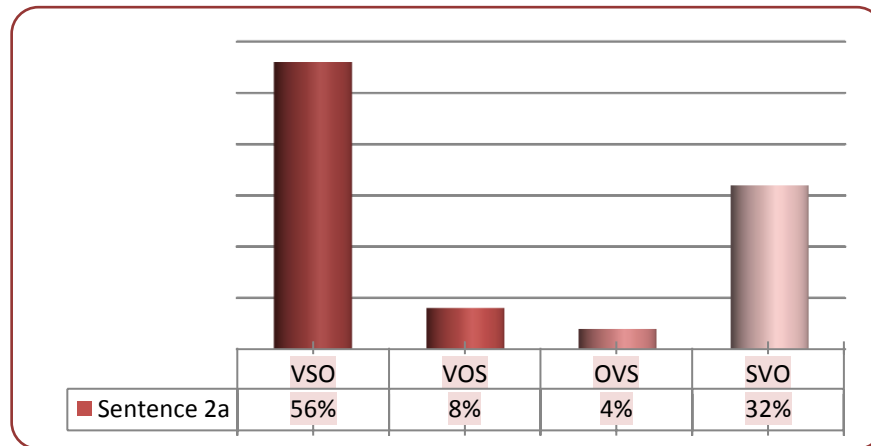
Figure 7: Students' test results for word order patterns (sentence 2a)

	VSO	VOS	OVS	SVO
Sentence 2b	64%	0%	4%	32%
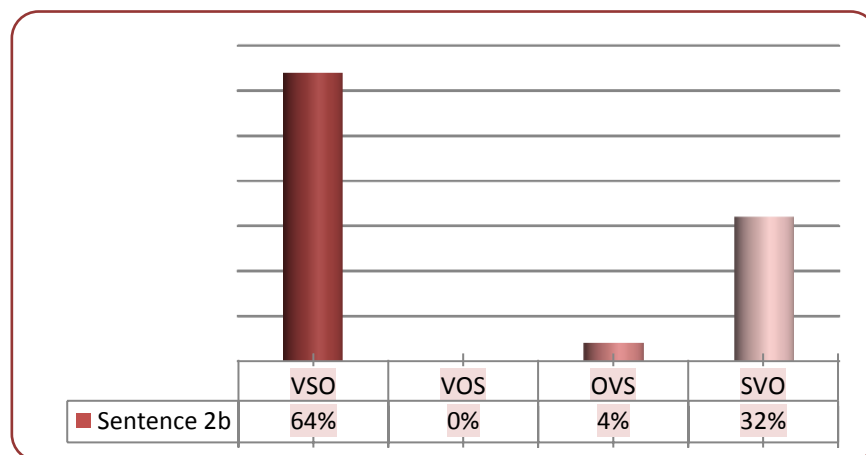
Figure 8: Students' test results for word order patterns (sentence 2b)

	VSO	VOS	OVS	SVO
Sentence 2c	40%	12%	0%	48%
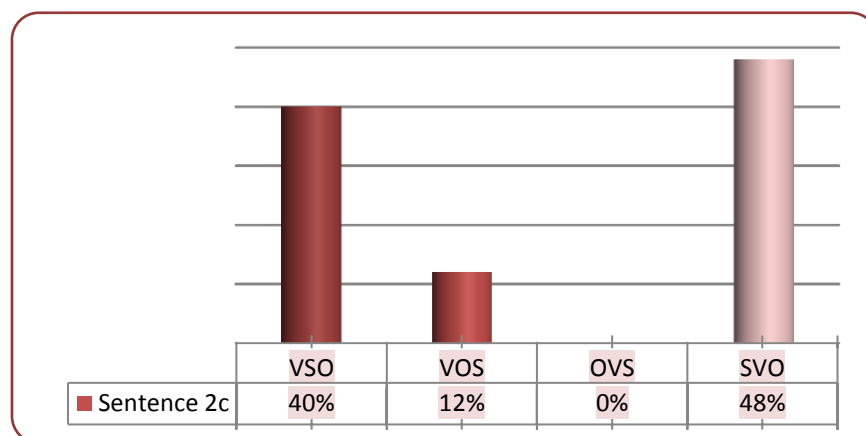
Figure 9: Students' test results for word order patterns (sentence 2c)

According to both teachers, students struggle to arrange the correct order of words in a sentence. This was further proven in lesson two where students constantly mixed the ordering of sentences and L1 interference was the cause of such problem. The following three tables present the students' sentences according to the specific word order pattern. The twenty-five test sheets in Appendix H have been arranged in the same way, for example the student's original transcript for number 16 *'Received the commandments ten moses'* can be viewed on page 16 of Appendix H.

Table 1: Students' sentences from the test (sentence 2a)

Sentence 2A			
VSO	**VOS**	**OVS**	**SVO**
1. Received Moses the ten commandments 2. Received moses the ten commandments 3. Received Moses The ten commandments 4. Received moses the ten commandments 5. received moses the ten commandments 6. Received moses the ten commandments 7. Received Moses the ten commandments 8. Received Moses the commandments ten 9. Received moses the commandments ten 10. Received Moses the commandments ten 11. Received Moses the commandments ten 12. Received Moses the commandments the ten 13. Received moses the ten the commandments 14. Received the moses ten commandments	15. Received the ten commandments moses 16. Received the commandments ten moses	17. The ten command-ments received Moses	18. Moses received the ten commandments 19. MOSES received the ten commandments 20. Moses received The Ten commandments 21. moses received the ten commandments 22. Moses received the commandments ten 23. Moses received the commandments ten 24. Moses received the commandments ten 25. Moses received the commandments the ten

Table 2: Students' sentences from the test (sentence 2b)

Sentence 2B			
VSO	**VOS**	**OVS**	**SVO**
1. Guarded the beautiful girl her modesty 2. Guarded the beautiful girl modesty 3. Guarded The beautiful girl her modesty 4. Guarded the beautiful girl her modesty 5. guared the beautiful girl her modesty 6. guarded the beautiful girl her modesty 7. Guarded the beautiful girl her modesty 8. Guarded the girl beautiful her modesty 9. guarded the girl beautiful her modesty 10. Guarded the girl beautiful her modesty 11. guarded the girl beautiful her modesty 12. guarded the girl the beautiful her modesty 13. Guarded the beautiful the girl her modesty 14. guaded the Beautiful girl her modesty 15. guarded the beautiful girl her modesty 16. Guarded the girl beautiful her modesty		17. Her modesty guarded the beautiful girl	18. the beautiful girl guarded her modesty 19. The beautiful girl guarded her modesty 20. The beautiful girl guarded her modesty 21. the beautiful girl guarded her modesty 22. the girl beautiful guarded her modesty 23. The girl beautiful guarded her modesty 24. The girl beautiful guarded her modesty 25. The girl the beautiful guarded her modesty

Table 3: Students' sentences from the test (sentence 2c)

Sentence 2C			
VSO	**VOS**	**OVS**	**SVO**
1. Sold Mary the big house 2. Sold Mary the big house 3. Sold Mary The big house 4. Sold Mary the big house 5. Sold Mary the big house 6. Sold mary the big house 7. Sold Mary the big house 8. Sold mary the house big 9. Sold Mary the house big 10. Sold mary the house big	11. Sold the house big Mary 12. Sold the house the mary big 13. Sold the big the house mary		14. the Mary sold Big house 15. Mary sold the big house 16. Mary sold the house big 17. Mary sold the big house 18. Mary sold the big house 19. Mary sold the big house 20. Mary sold The big House 21. mary sold her big house 22. Mary sold the house big 23. Mary sold the house big 24. Mary sold the house big 25. Mary sold the house the big

II. *Past simple and past continuous verbs*

This category accounts for the lowest number of errors employed in this study.

Amount of Errors

■ Past simple ■ Past continuous
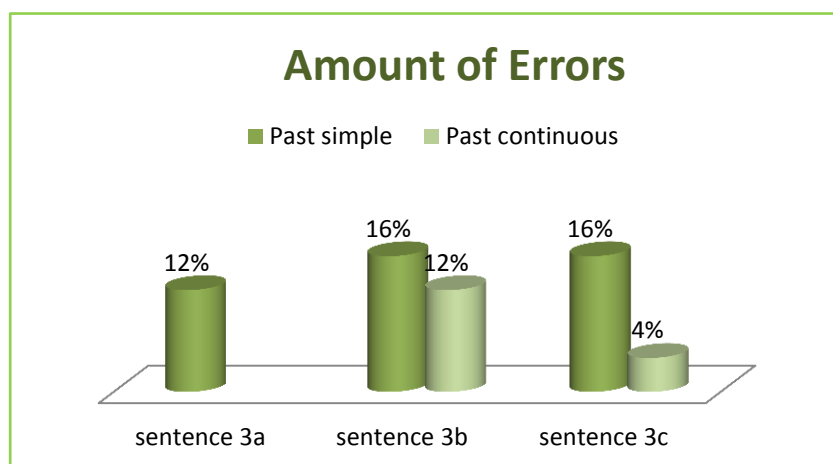
Figure 10: Students' errors with past simple/continuous verbs

The errors are divided into sub-categories in the table below:

Table 4: Types of errors made with past simple/continuous verbs

Types of errors	Amount
Past continuous instead of past simple	7
-ed regular form of past simple instead of the irregular form	4
Confusion between the various forms of the auxiliary verb to 'be' (are-was-were)	4
Total	**15**

The minority of the errors in this category are explained by analysing the linguistic structure of Arabic and English.

In English the past simple is used to talk about frequent events, exact time and existed situations which took place in the past.

E.g.   *They went for picnics most weekends*

They earned their money quickly that year.[89]

The Past Simple is formed by adding *–ed* to the main verb (infinitive), e.g. clean + *ed* = cleaned, known as the regular verbs. There is also a second category of irregular verbs which need to be memorised and bear no certain rule, such as: come-came, eat-ate, have-had, etc. The majority of the verbs have the simple rule of merely adding *–ed* suffix to the infinitive form. According to Crystal 'there are thousands of regular verbs, but less than three hundred irregular ones.'[90] Martin states that linguistic literature proves how students refer to the regular rule as the "default category,"[91] and because the irregular verbs are quite common the teacher must teach them in more meaningful contexts.

The structural basis of the Arabic language is that every word is composed of a set of root letters, mainly a three-consonant root. The verbs are formed by placing these root consonants into fixed patterns. The past simple verbs like English belong to both regular and irregular forms. All regular verbs share a basic pattern, an unchangeable state, whereas the 'irregular verbs can be defined as verbs that act differently from the basic patterns.'[92] Based on the similarities, we may form the inference that Arab learners of English are likely to show positive transfer in the use of past simple, regular and irregular verbs.

The past continuous aspect is composed of the auxiliary verb *be* and the *-ing* participle.

E.g. Joe *was watching* an old film.

In Arabic the word *kana* is used as an auxiliary verb for a past continuous tense. In this respect Arabic is similar to English.

---

[89] Gwyneth Fox et al., ed., *Collins COBUILD: Active English Grammar,* 2nd edn (Glasgow: Harper Collins, 2011).
[90] David Crystal, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996), p.70.
[91] Martin J. Endly, *Linguistic Perspectives on English Grammar: A Guide for EFL Teachers* ([n.p.]: Information Age Publishing, 2010),p. 240.
[92] Jane Wightwick and Mahmoud Gaafar, *Arabic Verbs and Essentials of Grammar,* 2nd edn (New York: McGraw Hill, 2008), p.19.

According to Alshayban:

> The English terms *was* and *were* have equivalents in Arabic, it is possible to expect that Arab English learners will retain the English copula in their English because the equivalent copula is present in their L1. Therefore, it is a case of positive transfer to English from their L1, which is Arabic.[93]

III. The genitive case and order of adjectives

Amount of Errors

	sentence 4a	sentence 4b	sentence 4c
■ Omission of the -'s possessive	64%	40%	60%
■ Incorrect order of adjectives	36%	32%	40%
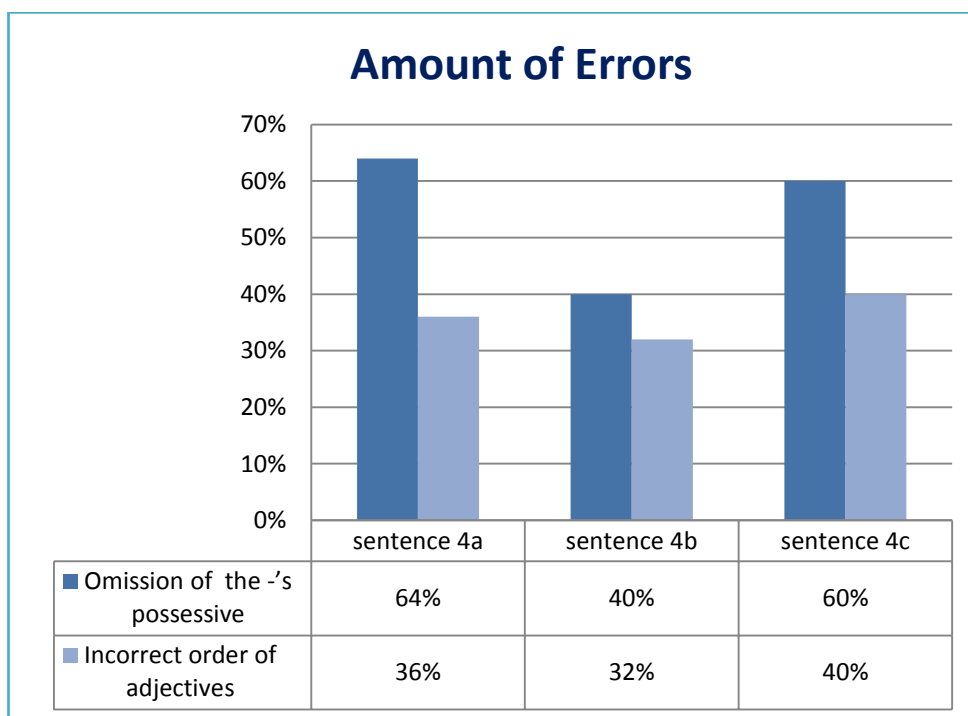
Figure 11: Students' errors with the genitive case and adjectives

The NE teacher includes the - *'s* possessive category amongst one of the most common grammatical errors committed by Arab students. The observed lessons of the NA teacher enabled the researcher to witness how students misplace the adjective, and almost always place it after the head noun, e.g. face sad.

---

[93] Abdullah S. Alshayban, 'Copula Omission by EFL Arab Learners' (unpublished master's thesis, Colorado State University, 2012), pp.36-37.

Amount of Errors

	sentence 5a	sentence 5b	sentence 5c
■ Male/Female Gender (he/she)	8%		4%
■ Neutral Gender (it)	60%	56%	56%
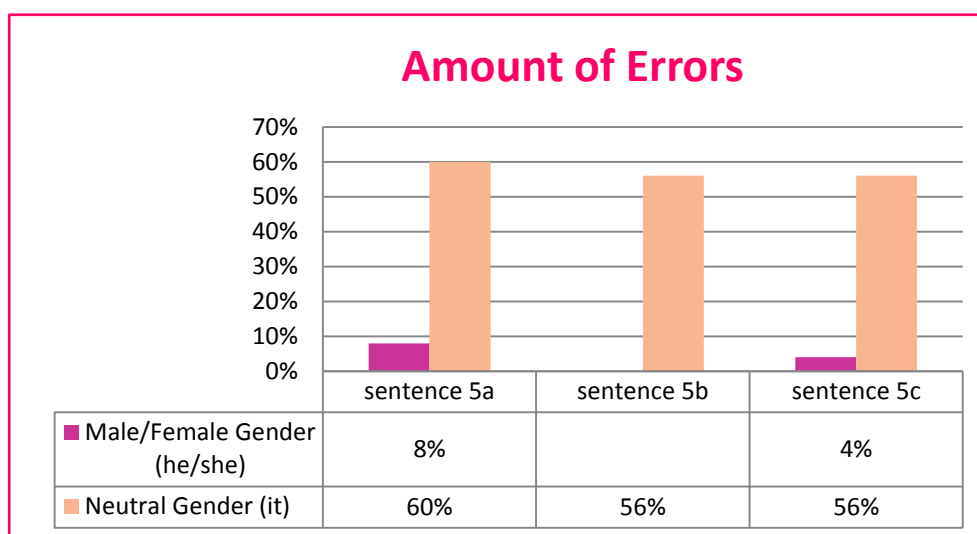
Figure 12: Students' errors with personal pronouns

The NA teacher mentions that it is common for Arab students to overuse the male and female gender forms, especially with inanimate objects.

In the succeeding chapter, the most common errors committed by students are analysed further through an in-depth CA and surprisingly they are all related to the negative interference of the MT.

5

Contrastive Analysis

This section contributes to objective 4 in which a set of personalised lesson plans will be devised to overcome students' errors and teachers' challenges. CA is a theoretical study that provides an in-depth means of discovering the differences and similarities between Arabic and English. This will then be used to create a practical framework for teachers. The grammar section is an essential focus to understand how both languages can be contrasted to help design effective materials.

The lesson plans will have an Islamic perspective as the researcher deemed that it would encourage learning if the subject matter was similar to what the students were already accustomed to. Additionally, Quranic Arabic will be incorporated as it is universally understood and used by Arabic speaking communities around the world.

Both the literature review and case study findings highlight the need for EIP due to the students' religious motivation. This research supports the notion of incorporating students' needs into pedagogical decision making.

5.1 *Word order*

English

Single words when not being used in a particular context or part of a sentence are ambiguous, e.g. if we say the word *leg* randomly, the listener is uncertain about what the speaker meant because it could refer to a number of things, such as leg pain, broken leg or a bloody leg. However when used in a particular context, e.g. the doctor asks 'Where is the pain?' and the patient replies 'leg' the meaning is made clear. A sentence is both meaningful and grammatical because the group of words are constructed systematically. E.g. I broke my leg. Thorne describes a sentence as a 'grammatical unit which has a meaning when it stands alone.'[94]

The term clause refers to the 'main unit of structure'[95] and is used to describe the specific ordering of elements in a sentence, each expressing a specific kind of meaning. The elements are briefly described as follows:

Subject (S)

A grammatical term used to describe the doer; the person or a thing that performs the action of the verb. The subject usually precedes the main verb in statements, but follows the auxiliary verb in a question.[96]

Mary smiled.   Are *you* going on holiday?

Verb (V)

An essential component in a clause structure because other elements can be omitted whereas without the verb the sentence is baseless and meaningless. Crystal gives the following example to illustrate this point: [97]

---

[94] S.Thorne, *Mastering Advanced English Language* (New York: Palgarve, 1997), p.33.
[95] Thomas Bloor and Meriel Bloor, *The Functional Analysis of English,* 2nd edn (London: Hodder Arnold, 2004), p.7.
[96] David Crystal, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996), p.52.

E.g. *That old farmer drinks beer by the bucketful.*

We can omit:

- The adverbial: *That old farmer drinks beer.*
- The object: *That old farmer drinks by the bucketful.*
- The subject, in usual style: *Drinks beer by the bucketful* (nodding in his direction).

But we cannot omit the verb: *That old farmer beer by the bucketful.*

Verbs are classified into two kinds: transitive and intransitive. Depending on the kind of verb being used, that determines the inclusion or exclusion of other elements in a sentence. Transitive verbs involve transfer of action to a receiver of an action which is the object, e.g. I *need* shoes. *Need* is a transitive verb because the thing or person which is needed must be mentioned or the sentence is worthless, so in this case the word shoes is an object. Intransitive verbs function without the object because the verbs cannot transfer action to a receiver, e.g. appear, happen, and digress.[98]

He *appeared* from the dark.

Object (O)

There are two types of objects: direct and indirect. 'The direct object typically refers to some person or thing directly affected by the action expressed by the verb.'[99]

Moses struck *the sea*.

'The indirect object typically refers to an animate being that is the recipient of the action.'[100]

Mary gave *him* a hug.

In this particular sentence the direct object is also mentioned (hug) but the indirect object precedes it.

---

[97] *Ibid*., p.48.
[98] *Ibid*., p.50.
[99] *Ibid*., p.54.
[100] *Ibid*., p.54.

Complement (C)

That which provides additional information about the subject (subject complement) or about the object (object complement). A subject complement generally follows the subject and its verb. A verb can either take the form of *be* (*is*, *was*, etc.) or as a copular verb (turn, feel, seem, etc.) that relates the complement meaning with the subject meaning.[101]

He is *a father*.   The tea turned *cold*.   Obaid seems *happy*.

An object complement generally follows the direct object; the following example illustrates the direct link between them both.

Sally baked him *a cake*.

Adverbial (A)

Adverbials provide further descriptive detail that expresses 'how', 'when', 'where', or to what extent something takes place. It can 'express a speaker's attitude to or evaluation of what is being said.'[102]

Sam kicked the football *gently*.

The five aforementioned clause elements combine into a number of patterns; Crystal mentions seven basic clauses:[103]

1. S + V
2. S + V + O
3. S + V + C
4. S + V + A
5. S + V + O + O
6. S + V + O + C
7. S + V + O + A

---

[101] Ronald G. Hardie, *Collins Gem English Grammar* (Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2004), p.204.
[102] S. Thorne, *Mastering Advanced English Language* (New York: Palgarve, 1997), p.14.
[103] David Crystal, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996), p.38.

The order of words is a crucial grammatical function which must be mastered by every student to be able to speak and write English coherently. Change of position of words will result in different meanings and functions.

An example of a sentence in the active voice:

a) Samari made the golden calf   b) The golden calf made Samari

The word *Samari* is a subject in (a), but an object in (b). Similarly, the word *golden calf* is an object in (a), but a subject in (b). On the other hand, the verb *made* remained in a fixed state in both sentences. All the words in the sentence either take the role of a subject, verb, or an object depending on their position within the sentence.

Word order in English is relatively fixed. Although the most common word order is the SVO (Subject + Verb + Object) pattern, the orders of certain elements are still subject to change in some exceptional cases. Crystal states that 90% of clauses belong to the SVO structure.[104] The meaning of a sentence is highly dependent on the arrangements of the elements, and due to this the reader or speaker may change the sequence to emphasize a certain point. E.g. Mary is my name. These exceptional cases will not be discussed at any further length because the main problem lies with the basic word order.

Arabic

Word order in Arabic displays a greater variety of choices than the English language for Arabic has more flexibility in the movement and distribution of its elements. The constructions of words in a sentence are only grammatically sound due to the states of each word. Therefore the sequence of words does not determine what role each word plays in a sentence, but it is the identification of the states. Sentences can be formed in various ways and still convey a similar meaning.

Arabic sentences are categorised into two kinds: verbal and nominal.[105] Both of these sentences have two main constituents: مُسْنَد *musnad* (predicate) and مُسْنَد إليهِ *musnad ilaihi* (subject). According to Sībawayh, these two features are equally important

---

[104] *Ibid*., p.37.
[105] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), p.19.

because the meaning of the first cannot be completed without the meaning of the second.[106]

Firstly, any kind of nominal sentence begins with a noun and its predicate can either be a verb or a noun. In a typical nominal sentence, the subject precedes the predicate (P) which gives a SP word order, known as مبتدأ *mubtadah* and خبر *khabr*.[107]

E.g. الْمُؤْمِنُونَ إِخْوَةٌ *Al-mu'min-oona ikhwatun*: the believers (are) brothers.

Nimah mentions certain cases where the word order can be reversed to PS:[108]

- When the writer or speaker intends to give precedence of the predicate over the subject to emphasize a point, then the subject is a postposed subject and the predicate is preposed. In Arabic this structure is called خبر مقدم و مبتدأ مؤخر *khabr muqadham wa mubtadah muakhar.*

  E.g. لَهُمْ عَذَابٌ *La'hum az'hab-un*

  The literal translation is: *for them (is) a punishment*. In English, this structure is used in certain contexts but in general the standard structure of SP will be used: *(there is) a punishment for them.*

- A second reason for preposing the predicate is to express optimism.

  E.g. في عافِية أنتَ *Fi a'fiyah anta*

  The literal translation is: *in good health you (are),* but in English the meaning will be expressed as: *you will get better soon.*

  في رَحْمَةِ اللَّهِ هُمْ *Fi rahma-ti'l-Allah-i hum*

  The literal translation is: *in (the) mercy of Allah they (are),* but in English the meaning will be expressed as: *they are (wrapped) in the mercy of Allah.*

The verbal sentence has two important features, *musnad* (predicate) and *musnad ilaihi* (subject). Although these elements are found in a nominal sentence, there is a great

---

[106] Sībawayh, *Al-Kitab* (The Book), 2nd edn ([n.p.]:Maktabat Al-Xanji, 1982), p.23.
[107] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), p.27.
[108] *Ibid*., p.33.

difference between them because in this particular structure the subject represents the فَاعِل *fa'il* (verbal subject) and the predicate is the فِعل *fi'al* (verb).[109]

The verbal sentence structure involves a number of word order patterns as described below:

1.

    i) <u>VS (Verb + Subject)</u>

E.g. جَاء الرَّسُولُ *Jaa'a ar-rasool-u*

The literal translation is: *came the messenger*, but in English the word order is SV, therefore the correct translation is: *the messenger came.*

    ii) <u>VSO (Verb + Subject + Object)</u>

Compared to the above pattern, the additional word is the مَفْعُول بِهِ *mafool bi'hi* (object), expressing the direct object or person which is affected by the action. Verbs are of two kinds: مُتعدي *muta'adi* (transitive) and لَازِم *laazim* (intransitive). The transitive verbs require an object in order for the meaning to be complete, whereas with intransitive verbs the object is not needed.[110] Therefore with this particular word order, the verb is transitive.

E.g. بَعَثَ اللهُ رَسُولاً *Ba'a'tha Allah-u rasool-an*

The literal translation is: *sent Allah a messenger*, but in English the word order is SVO, therefore the correct translation is: *Allah sent a messenger.*
The word messenger is the direct object which without the sentence would be incomplete.

VS and VSO are the basic word orders in the Arabic language. According to Mohammad these patterns are easy to construct because the verb is always in the third person singular form even if the subject is dual or plural.[111]

E.g. إِنْتَصَرَ المُسْلِمون *Intasara al-muslim-oon*

---

[109] Ibn Hajib, Kafiya (Sufficiency) (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, [n.d.]), p.26.
[110] Michael Mumisa, *Introducing Arabic* (New Delhi: Goodword Books, 2003), pp.35-36.
[111] Mohammad A. Mohammad, *Word Order, Agreement and Pronominalization in Standard and Palestinian Arabic* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2000), p.49.

The literal translation is: *won the Muslims*, but in English the word order is SV, therefore the correct translation is: *the Muslims won.*

While the SV and SVO are problematic because the verb must always agree with its subject. Therefore if the subject is a plural noun, the verb will also bear the plural form.[112]

E.g. المُسْلِمُون إِنْتَصَرُوا *Al-muslim-oon intasar-u*: the Muslims won.

2.

   i) <u>SV (Subject + Verb)</u>

   اللهُ يَعْلَمُ *Allah-u yalam-u*: Allah knows

   ii) <u>SVO (Subject + Verb + Object)</u>

   اللهُ خَلَقَ السَّمَاوَاتِ *Allah-u kalaqa asamaawati*: Allah created the heavens.

There are two different opinions regarding the SV and SVO word orders. The Basrah school of thought classifies them as nominal, only because they are initiated by a subject when they should have started with a verb. On the other hand, the Kufah school of thought categorises them as verbal sentences because it is a verbal subject and is only preposed for a particular reason.[113]

3.

   <u>VOS (Verb + Object + Subject)</u>[114]

   قَال الحقَّ مُحَمَّدٌ *Qala al-haqa Muhammad-un*

   The literal translation is: *said the truth Muhammad*, but in English the word order is SVO, therefore the correct translation is: *Muhammad said the truth.*

---

[112] *Ibid.*, p.49.

[113] Abdullah S. Al-Sahli, 'Non-Canonical Word Order: Its Types and Rhetorical Purposes with Reference to Five Translations of the Meanings of the Holy Qur'an' (unpublished Phd thesis, University of Durham, 1996), p.183.

[114] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), p.46.

4.

<u>OVS (Object + Verb + Subject)</u>[115]

فَرِيقًا كَذَّبْتُمْ *Fariq-an kadhdhabtum*

The literal translation is: *a party (of messengers) you denied*. In English, this structure is used in certain contexts but in general the standard structure will be: *you denied a party (of messengers).*

More examples of verbal sentences will be presented below to help elucidate the flexibility of the word order in Arabic:

i.   VSO   أَرْسَلَ اللهُ رَسُولاً   *Arsala-l Allah-u rasool-an*

ii. SVO   اللهُ أَرْسَلَ رَسُولاً   *Allah-u arsala rasool-an*

iii. VOS   أَرْسَلَ رَسُولاً اللهُ   *Arsala rasool-an Allah-u*

iv. OVS   رَسُولاً أَرْسَلَ اللهُ   *Rasool-an arsala-l Allah-u*

All these sentences convey a similar meaning in Arabic; the only difference is that whatever is placed at the beginning of a sentence, that is the thing which is more emphasised by the speaker or writer. There are four possible word structures to choose from unlike the English language. We will present the word to word translation from Arabic to English for each sentence:

i.   Sent Allah a messenger

ii. Allah sent a messenger

iii. Sent a messenger Allah

iv. A messenger sent Allah

All the sentences are in the active voice, therefore the only acceptable structure in English is the SVO pattern (ii). These examples prove that word for word translation is not always the correct way to understand the meaning of a sentence. Considering the last sentence structure (iv), its translation distorts the message of Islam because it is Allah who sent the messenger. Hence it is imperative to learn grammar to be able to distinguish between the correct and incorrect word order patterns. In Arabic the positioning of the words in a specific order is not important to communicate meaning,

---

[115] Ibn Hajib, Kafiya (Sufficiency) (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, [n.d.]),p.61.

but it is the case endings on every noun which helps determine its grammatical function and meaning.

There are three states:

1. رَفع *Rafa*: Nominative
2. نَصب *Nasb*: Accusative
3. جَر *Jarr*: Genitive

Analysing the above mentioned sentences in Arabic, the elements (in this case the subject and object) carry a certain case ending which makes it distinctive from other nouns in the sentence. As stated previously, the grammatical states play the most crucial role within a sentence. The states are reflected in the last letter of the word, a particular ending for each state by a change in vowelling or lettering to identify its grammatical function.

Table 5: The Arabic words bear a certain state to determine their roles

State	VSO	SVO	VOS	OVS
Nominative (Subject)	اللّٰهُ Allah-u	اللّٰهُ Allah-u	اللّٰهُ Allah-u	اللّٰهُ Allah-u
Accusative (Object)	رَسُولاً Rasool-an	رَسُولاً Rasool-an	رَسُولاً Rasool-an	رَسُولاً Rasool-an
Genitive	_____	_____	_____	_____

This table illustrates how both nouns: object and subject retain their case endings in every kind of word structure. For the subject, the word bears an *u* sound at the end, while the object bears the *an* sound at the end of the word. If there was a slight change in the case marking, different meanings would be derived. In essence the main difference between the languages is that Arabic focuses on the case marking while English targets the order of each element in a fixed manner.

Please refer to Appendix 1 for the CA lesson plan to teach word order

5.2 *The genitive case*

English

Nouns have certain endings which helps determine their position within a clause. Nouns can either take the role of a subject or an object. The endings are referred to as the case system; a common or a genitive case.

The common case nouns are unmarked and do not undergo any changes.

> The *sister* was carrying his *bucket*.
> The *bucket* was being carried by his *sister*

The genitive case nouns are marked to express a possessive relationship, and undergo specific changes in either one of the two forms:[116]

1. The -*'s* possessive (a singular inflected form)

brother's leg
son's foot
father's hand
cat's tail
tiger's teeth

Hockett states that English has a 'genitival particle' which expresses the meaning of possession, 'when the possessor is a person, animal, or period of time: *John's* hat; the *man's* umbrella; the Mayor of *Boston's* wife; a *day's* journey.'[117]

When the possessors have names ending in −*s*, the word can either take -*'s* or the apostrophe alone. [118]

E.g. *Idris's house, Idris' house*.

2. The -*s'* possessive (an inflected form in the plural)

sisters' shoes
daughters' boots
mothers' smile
dogs' bones
cats' whiskers

[116] Ronald G. Hardie, *Collins Gem English Grammar* (Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2004), pp.134-137.
[117] Charles Francis Hockett, *A Course in Modern Linguistics* (New York: Macmillan, 1958), p.187.
[118] A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar,* 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980), p.12.

There are some irregular cases, where the plural nouns do not end in an *s* and therefore the first form genitive sign will be used-*'s*.

The *children's* classroom

When the common singular nouns ending in *s* are made plural, the writer has the option to choose between the -*'s* or - *s'* possessive.

The cactus's habitat   *The cactus'* spines

The following five noun classes bear the singular or plural inflected forms:[119]

- Traveling vehicles: *helicopter's* wing
- Time expressions: *today's* newspapers
- People: *men's* clothes / *wives'* gossip
- Countries: *England's* flag
- For + noun + sake: *for god's* sake

There is reference to another kind of genitive form which conveys the meaning of possession; the periphrastic genitive (the *of* genitive). This kind of sentence structure requires the following pattern:[120]

[Head noun phrase] + [*of*] + [Modifying noun phrase]

The walls *of* the town

The periphrastic genitive is chiefly used with inanimate possessors, including abstract ideas. Indeed there are some inanimate nouns which can also take the inflected genitive as stated previously. The main factor governing the choice of one or the other genitive is rather complex especially for L2 learners. 'The reason is that they are sometimes both interchangeable, for example, "the man*'s* name" can be changed to "the name *of* the man."'[121]
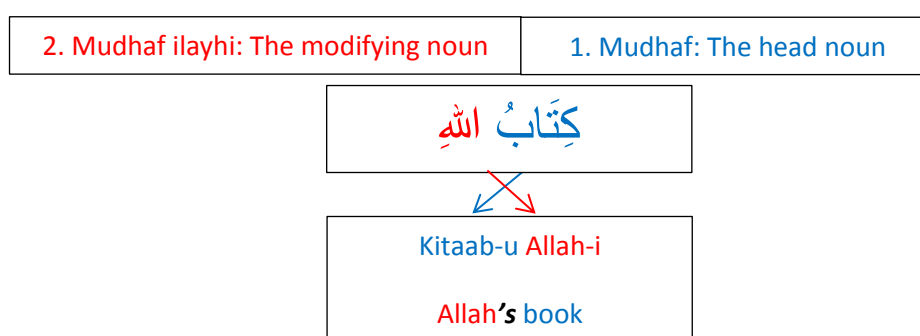
---

[119] *Ibid.*, pp.12-13.
[120] Randolph Quirk et al., *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (London: Longman, 1972), p.194.
[121] Keiko Muto-Humphrey, 'Frequent Errors in English Grammar: Articles and Possessive Markers', *Journal of School of Foreign Languages,* 31 (2006), 59-85 (p.60).

Arabic

An Arabic noun may appear in any of the three cases: nominative, accusative or genitive. These case endings are marked at the end of the word to indicate its grammatical function, for example a subject or an object. The genitive case is one of the most common ways for a noun to express its possession. Arab grammarians use the term إِضَافَة *idafa,* annexation to describe the process of constructing two nouns, the first of which has been related to the other and the genitive case is used for the second noun.[122] This involves the following procedure, and an important point to note is that Arabic is written from the right hand side as opposed to English.

2. Mudhaf ilayhi: The modifying noun	1. Mudhaf: The head noun

كِتَابُ اللهِ

Kitaab-u Allah-i

Allah**'s** book

The literal translation from Arabic into English is: 'Book Allah,' but this word order is incorrect in English because the modifying noun comes before the head noun when it bears the -**'s** possessive. Arab students tend to omit the *s* possessive as it does not exist in their NL. In order to help students overcome this reoccurring error, contrast the genitive category in both Arabic and English as explained in the second lesson plan (Appendix 2).

The other form of genitive in English is formed by using the periphrastic genitive between two nouns:

2. Mudhaf ilayhi: The modifying noun	1. Mudhaf: The head noun

يَوْمُ الحِسَابِ

Yowm-u- L-hisaab-i

The day **of** account

---
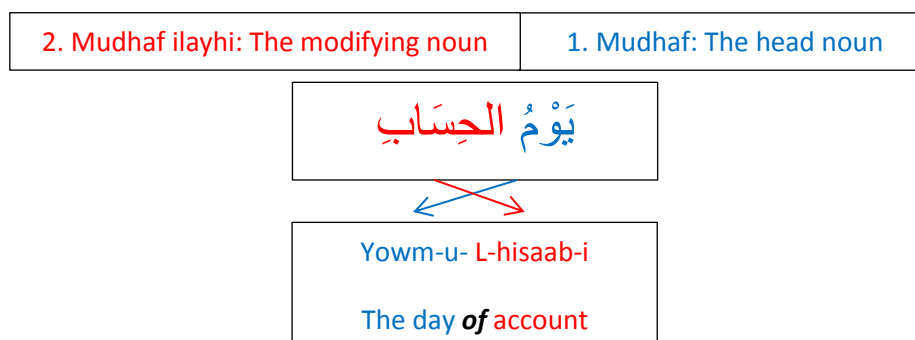
[122] Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), I (2006), 115-116.

The literal translation from Arabic into English is: 'Day the account,' and for its appropriate meaning the only slight difference is the insertion of the word '*of*' and the article changes its position.

The difference between the English singular or plural inflected form and the periphrastic genitive is with the modifying noun. In the former the modifying noun precedes the head noun, whereas in the latter the head noun precedes the modifying noun. This periphrastic genitive is similar to the Arabic language because the head noun always precedes the modifying noun as illustrated in the example above. Nothing can come between the *mudhaf* and *mudhaf ilayhi*, and the meaning of possession is only evident when the genitive case is attached to the end of the modifying noun with a nunation sign.

These signs are described as follows:[123]

- When the noun is singular, there are either one or two line(s) at the bottom of the last letter which is called the kasra and it gives an *ee/in* sound: رَبُّ العَرشِ *Rabb-u al'arsh-ee,* Lord **of** the throne.

- When the noun is in the dual form, the genitive case is indicated by يْن : رَبُّ المَشْرِقَيْنِ *Rabb-u al'mashriqayni,* Lord **of** the two easts.

- When the noun is a masculine plural, the genitive case is indicated by يْنَ : رَبُّ العَالَمِيْنَ *Rabb-u al'alamin,* Lord **of** the worlds.

- When the noun is a feminine plural, the word is vowelled with a اتِ : رَبُّ السَّمَاوَاتِ *Rabb-u as'samawati,* Lord **of** the heavens.

The signs of the genitive case vary from noun to noun depending on the number.

The Arab grammarians explain that the reason for the *mudhaf ilayhi* (modifying noun) bearing a genitive case is simply because it is preceded by an invisible genitive particle known as حَرف جَر *harf jarr*:[124]

---

[123] *Ibid.*, p.117.
[124] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), p.99.

مِن - from   فِي – in   لِ – for/of

It is a general rule in the Arabic language that every word that follows the genitive particle bears a genitive state. This understanding can be used when teaching Arab students the English periphrastic genitive because both languages share a common feature as shown below:

Arabic

1. Head noun	2.Invisable genitive particle	3.Modifying noun
بابُ المسْجِدِ		
التقدير: بابُ لِلمسْجِدِ		

English

1. Head noun	2.of	3.Modifying noun
Door of the masjid		

This exhibits the same word-order patterns in both languages. However the only two differences are that Arabic is written from the right hand side while English is from the left and the periphrastic genitive particle is written in English while it is invisible in Arabic (not written nor spoken).

Please refer to Appendix 2 for the CA lesson plan to teach the genitive case

5.3 *Order of adjectives*

English

The most common definition for an adjective is a 'word which qualifies a noun,' [125] so in simpler terms it is a describing word which modifies the noun by conveying a descriptive meaning. An adjective is positioned before the word it modifies, e.g. a *blue* bag or may occur after a verb, e.g. the bag is *blue*.

---

[125] Duncan Black et al., ed., *Collins Dictionary and Thesaurus: in Colour* (London: Harper Collins Publishers, 2009), p.7.

The two main features of an adjective are clearly defined below:[126]

1. *Attributive*: when the adjective is placed before the head noun and it attributes a quality or a characteristic to the noun.

<div align="center">

The *short* girl

</div>

2. *Predicative*: when the adjective is placed after a linking verb.

<div align="center">

The boy grew *tall*

</div>

Words which can function in both attributive and predicative positions are referred to as the central adjectives.

A *big* car   The car is *big*

In this example the meaning is consistent no matter where the adjective is positioned. However with certain words a change in the position of the adjective involves a change in meaning:

My *old* friend

The adjective old refers to the 'one who has been a friend for a long period of time.'

My friend is *old*

In this example, old implies that the friend is old in age.

On the other hand, some words can only function in either one of these positions, and they are termed as the peripheral adjectives.

The cat is *asleep*   *The *asleep* cat

Utter nonsense   *The *nonsense* is utter

'*Asleep*' can only be used as a predicative adjective, while '*utter*' can only function attributively.

---

[126] David Crystal, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996), pp.158-159

Gradability is a semantic feature of an adjective which is reflected in its ability to express a degree of comparison.

The three levels of comparison

Higher

Comparative

-er/more

Smaller

Taller

More interesting

More boring

Superlative

-est/most

Smallest

Tallest

The most interesting

The most boring

Positive

as…as

so

Positive

not as/so…as

Negative

This is as small as that.

He is not so tall.

This is not as/so small as that

Lower

less/least

This is less heavy than the wardrobe.
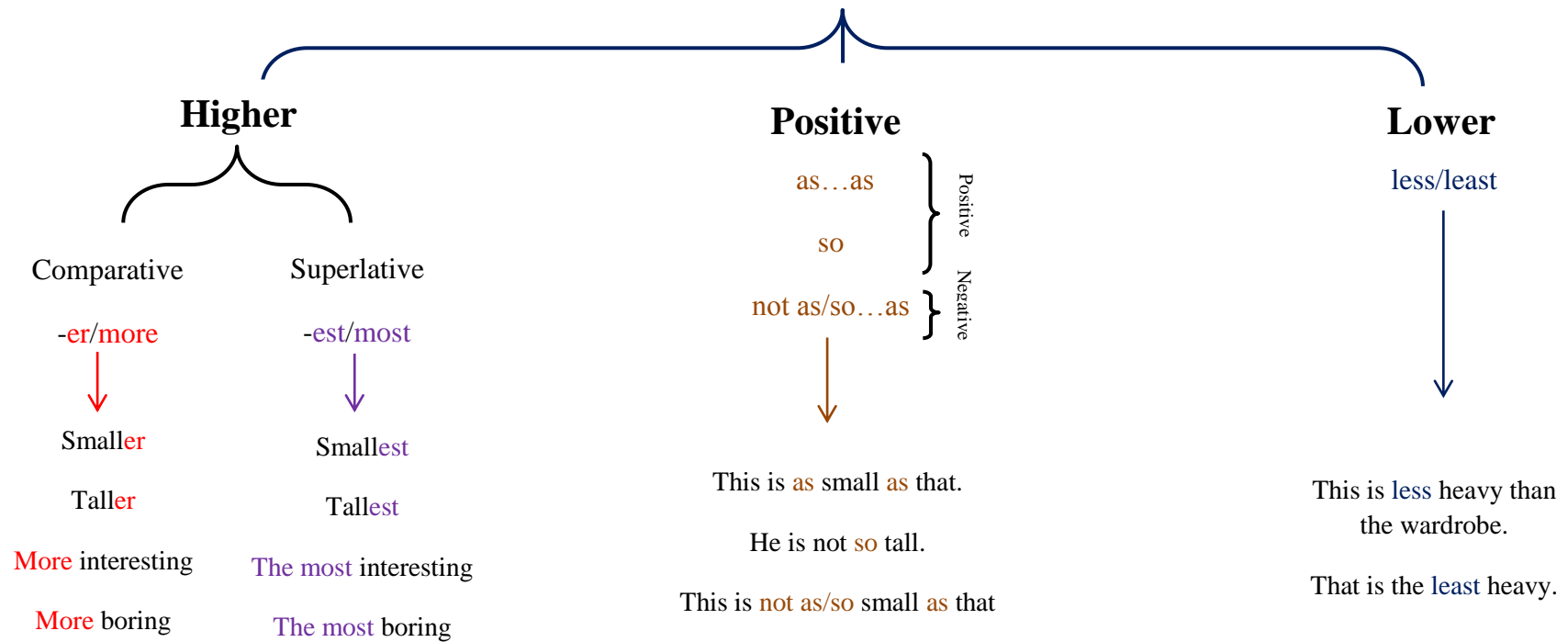
That is the least heavy.

70

Figure 13: Gradability of adjectives in English

The lower degree expresses the inferiority of the subject matter using the adverbs *less* and *least*. As for the positive degree, it uses the original form of the objective and when it does comparison to the same degree it makes use of the word *as*.

He is *as* smart *as* John

The comparative is used when comparing between two people, objects, or states and the word *than* is included to indicate the second part of the comparison (what the word is being contrasted with).[127]

Sara is *cleverer than* Jane.

Whereas when more than two entities are involved then the superlative form is used to show the intensity of its quality when compared with others. This higher degree takes the article *the* in front of the adjective, but it can be omitted in predicative positions.[128]

This is *the tallest* building I have ever seen.

Accept whichever pear is (*the*) *ripest*.

Thomson and Martinet state the choice between **-er/more** and **-est/most** is largely based on how long the adjective is. Adjectives of one syllable will take the **–er** for a comparative form or take the **–est** for a superlative form.

thin   thinn*er*   thinn*est*

Adjectives with two syllables are flexible and can either take **-er/more** and **-est/most**. Usually the words ending in *ful* or *re* take *more* and *the most*.

happy   happi*er*   happi*est*

                more happy   *the most* happy

obscure   *more* obscure   *the most* obscure

careful   *more* careful   *the most* careful

---

[127] Ronald G. Hardie, *Collins Gem English Grammar* (Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2004), p.170.
[128] *Ibid.*, p.170.

Adjectives with three or more syllables take *more* and *the most,* to form the comparative and superlative.[129]

beautiful   *more* beautiful   *the most* beautiful

There are certain adjectives that are irregular and do not follow a particular pattern, these include the following:

good   better   the best

bad   worse   the worst

Chalker argues that some adjectives cannot be graded and are therefore called ungradable, and are categorised into the following:[130]

- Attributive-only adjectives (former, outright, chemical)
- Nationality adjectives in their primary sense (English, Pakistani, Scottish)
- Adjectives with an absolute meaning (alternative, average, equal)

Arabic

An adjective in Arabic is called *na'at* or *sifa*.

There are two types of adjectives:[131]

1. حَقِيقِي *Haqiqi*: the 'direct' adjective post modifies the preceding noun.

2. The direct adjective	1. The noun

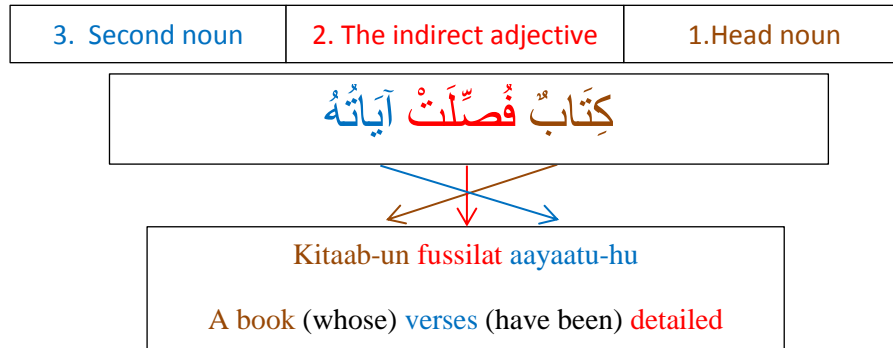أَجْرًا عَظِيمًا

Ajran Az'im-an

Great reward

---

[129] A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar,* 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980), p.16.

[130] S. Chalker, *Current English Grammar* (London: Macmillan, 1984), p.164.

[131] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), pp.51-52.

2. سَبَبِي *Sababi*: the 'indirect' adjective premodifies a noun that is coreferential with the head noun.

3. Second noun	2. The indirect adjective	1.Head noun

كِتَابٌ فُصِّلَتْ آيَاتُهُ

Kitaab-un fussilat aayaatu-hu

A book (whose) verses (have been) detailed

Comparisons of equality are expressed with the preposition كَ *kaaf* which gives the meaning of 'like' or 'as'. The letter kaaf is prefixed to the thing or person compared with.[132]

E.g. وَمِنَ النَّاسِ مَنْ يَتَّخِذُ مِن دُونِ اللهِ أَنْدَادًا يُحِبُّونَهُمْ كَحُبِّ اللَّهِ

Wa minannaasi may'yattakhizu min-duunillaahi andaadan yuhhibbunahum ka-hubillaah.

And among mankind (are those) who take other than Allah as equals (to Him). They love them *like* they (should) love Allah.

The term إسم تفضيل *ism tafdheel* is the noun of 'higher value' and is used to describe both the comparative and superlative forms in Arabic, whether denoting a positive or a negative meaning.

1- <u>Comparative:</u>

The comparative can be used when two people, objects or states share the same attribute, while one surpasses the other in the qualities expressed. The comparative adjectives generally agree with one common pattern: أَفْعَلُ *afal-u* (masculine) and فُعْلَى *fu'laa* (feminine).[133] The following example signifies the meaning of preference of one entity over the other:

---

[132] *Ibid.*, p.155.
[133] *Ibid.*, p.53.

مفضل عليه Mufdl-A'laihi: The thing which the mufdl is preferred over	حرف جر Harf jarr: Preposition	اسم تفضيل Ism tafdheel: Comparative adjective	مفضل Mufdl: The thing which is preferred
لَخَلْقُ السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ أَكْبَرُ مِنْ خَلْقِ النَّاسِ La'Kalq as'samwaati wal'ard akbar min kalq'innasi Surely the creation of the heavens and the earth (is) greater than the creation of mankind			

Two easy steps for modelling an adjective to its comparative form:

- Extract the three root letters from the adjective.

- Adjust the three letters respectively onto the scale of *afalu*.
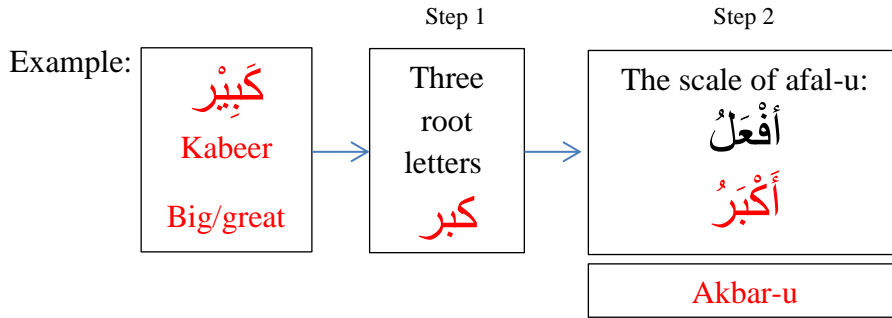
In English, the comparative adjectives generally bear the –**er** sign (thinn**er**), but some comparatives are not formed in this way and instead 'more' is affixed before the adjective (more fortunate). Likewise, the same applies in Arabic when certain words cannot fall onto the scale of *afal-u* so the following forms are used and each one signifies the meaning of 'more'.[134]

أشد *Ashad*　　　　　　أكثر *Akthar*　　　　　　أعظم *A'zham*

2- Superlative:

The superlative is formed following the comparative structure but with a slight modification. Firstly, add ال *'al'* which is a definite article and means 'the' and secondly omit مِن *'min'* which is a preposition in Arabic because the superlative is an adjective of pre-eminence and is not compared. [135] In English *'min'* is translated as 'from' but when it is used in a comparative sentence it is translated as *than*. For example:

---

[134] *Ibid*., p.54.
[135] *Ibid*., p.56.

<div style="border:1px solid black; text-align:center;">

يَوْمُ الْحَجِّ الْأَكْبَرِ

Yawm-u'l hajji-Al-Akbar

The day of the greatest pilgrimage

</div>

A very important feature related to the study of adjectives is the agreement system. The adjective must be in complete agreement with the noun it qualifies with regard to four characteristics:[136]

1- Definiteness (definite or indefinite articles)
2- Gender (Male or female)
3- Case (nominative, accusative or genitive)
4- Number (singular, dual or plural)

> *Please refer to Appendix 3 for the CA lesson plan to teach the adjectives*

5.4 *Gender*

English

Gender is traditionally classed into three classifications:[137]

1. **Masculine**: men, boys and male animals [higher].
2. **Feminine**: women, girls, female animals [higher] and some specific inanimate objects.
3. **Neuter**: inanimate things, animals [lower], babies and animals whose sex we do not know.

Gender division is built upon the animate beings and inanimate entities, as illustrated in the two figures below:

---

[136] Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), I (2006), 101.

[137] A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar,* 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980), p.8.
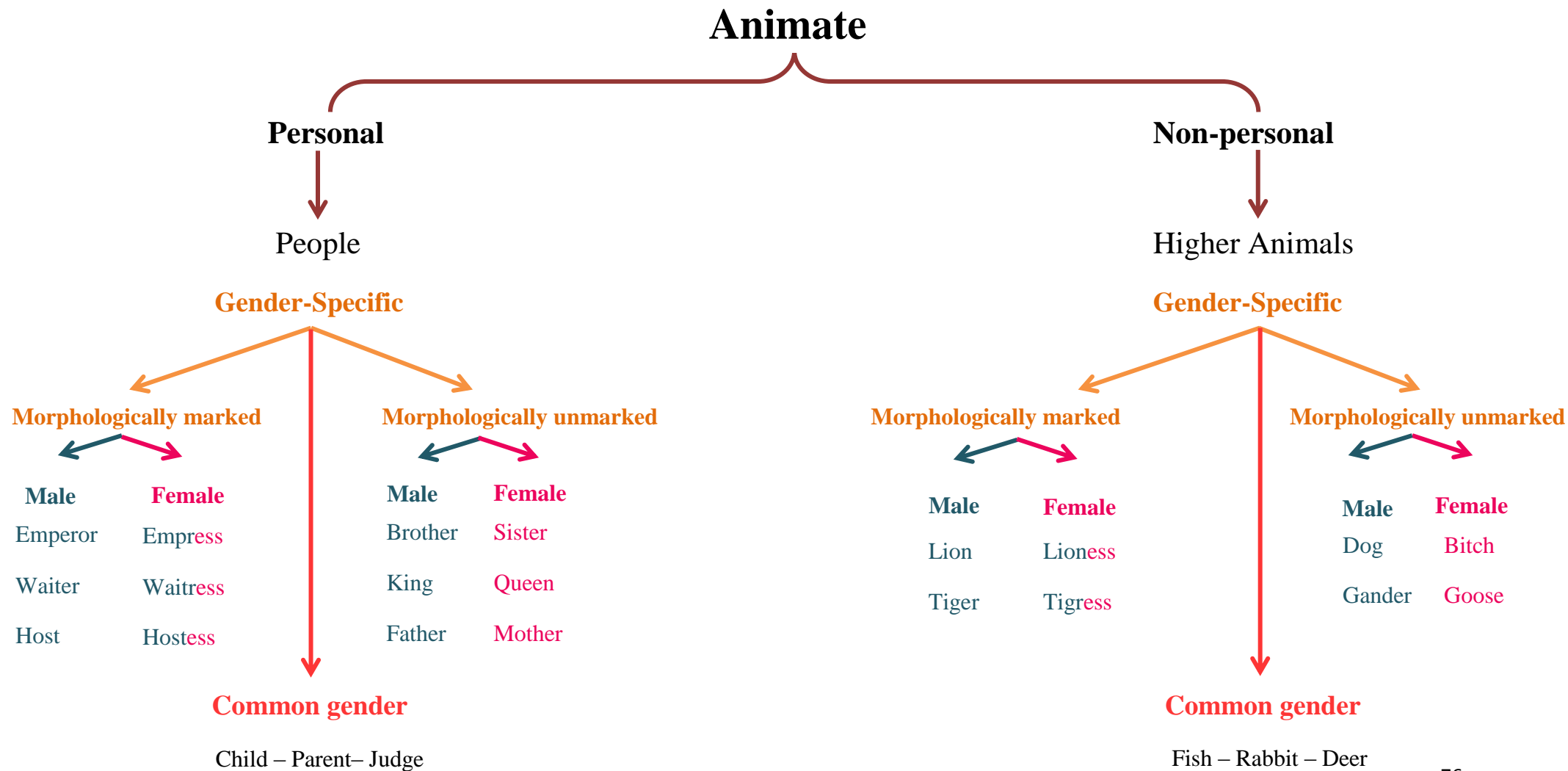
Figure 14: Gender of animate nouns in English

Animate gender comprises almost all the nouns for humans and animals. Quirk and Greenbaum divide personal nouns into two main categories: 'Morphologically marked' in which both the masculine and feminine have a derivational relationship. The suffix *–ess* is used with some nouns to make male-female distinction. The second type is 'morphologically unmarked' having no distinctive marking that suggests morphological correspondence between the masculine and feminine. There is also another division titled as the 'common gender' nouns which do not indicate a particular sex, and are used to refer to either the male or female gender, such as *teacher* and *student*.[138]

The non-personal nouns are related to the animals, and specifically the gender of higher animals.[139] Nouns which have a distinct male and female form and hold a special status within human society, will take *he/she/who*. While the common gender noun will be replaced by *it/which.*

Inanimate

Babies

(unknown sex)

Lower Animals

Ants – Cod

Animals

(unknown sex)

Inanimate objects

Book – Box

Abstract notions

Advice – Truth
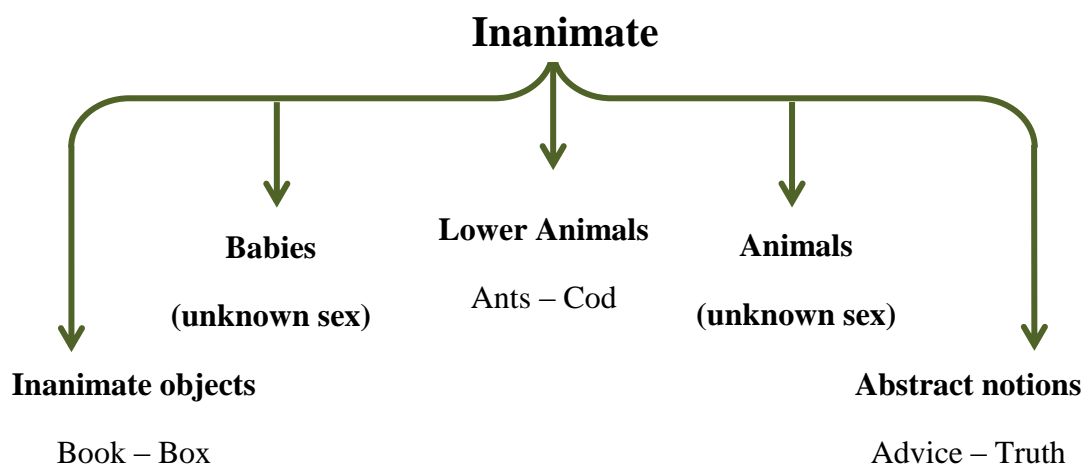
Figure 15: Gender of inanimate nouns in English

Inanimate nouns are gender free and therefore have *which* and *it* as pronouns. However there are certain exceptions related to the inanimate nouns. The following are considered feminine:[140]

[138] Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973), pp.90-91.
[139] *Ibid*., p.92.
[140] A. J. Thomson and A. V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar,* 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980), p.8.

- Travelling vehicles when regarded with affection or respect.

  E.g. 'The ship struck an iceberg, which tore a huge hole in *her* side.'

- Countries when referred to by name in some cases.

  E.g. 'Scotland lost many of *her* bravest men in two great rebellions.'

Some words such as *sun* can be referred to as *he*, while *moon* is referred to as *she*.[141] It must be born in mind that at the same time; these categories can indifferently be attributed as *it*.

Arabic

Arabic is a gender specific language and all forms of nouns are classified by either one of the following genders:[142]

1. Masculine
2. Feminine

Unlike English, Arabic belongs to the Semitic group of languages which do not have the neuter gender. This helps explain why many Arab students learning English overuse the male and female forms for all types of nouns such as inanimate entities, e.g. *she was delicious* instead of *it was delicious.*

Ash'araani defines the male gender as the 'origin' having no specific characteristics to mark its masculinity. Whereas the female gender is a derivative from the masculine form and requires distinguishing factors that denotes its femininity. Hence, the female gender is divided into two classes:[143]

1. مُؤنث حَقِيْقِي *Mo'annath haqiqi:* the true feminine

   Nouns which are feminine by nature and include the following examples:

   نَاقَة *Nakah*: she-camel   إمْرَأَة *Imr'a*: women   أُخْت *Ukt*: sister

---

[141] Frank Palmer, *Grammar* (Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1971), p.190.

[142] Ibn Hajib, *Kafiya* (Sufficiency) (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, [n.d.]), p.131.

[143] Abi Al-Muwahib Abdul-Wahaab Ash'araani, *Lubaab Al-Iraab* (Core of Declension) (Cairo: Al-Hai'a Al-Misriya Al-a'ma'lil Kitaab, 2007), pp.81-82.

The majority of the words which fall under this category have a masculine counterpart among living things, e.g. رَجُل *rajul* man. However there are certain terms whose meaning is only true in the female form. E.g. حَامِل *hamil* pregnant. This kind of category only accounts for animate beings, both humans and animals.

2. مُؤنث غَير حَقِيْقِي *Mo'annath ghair haqiqi:* the untrue feminine

This specific category only accounts for inanimate beings and is further divided into the following types:

i) Nouns which follow a conventional rule of bearing any of the three following signs at the end of the word.

$$ة - اء - ى$$

Note: These three signs can apply to the true feminine as long as the word implies a feminine signification. E.g. مُؤمِنَة *mu'mina*, believer.

There are certain masculine nouns ending with the feminine (ة *taa*) sign. They are easily recognisable due to the meaning, e.g. خَليفة *khalifah*, caliph.[144]

ii) Nouns which are feminine due to observation. These nouns are titled as مُؤنث السماعية *mu'anas as-samaee-a*, feminine by usage.

E.g. دَار *Daar*: house   شَمْس *Shams*: sun   نَار *Naar*: fire

According to Ibn Hajib, when a verb is being used with a *mu'anas as-samaee* noun, the speaker or the writer has the choice to make the verb in the male or female form when it is placed before the noun.

طَلَعَ الشَّمْس   *Ta'la'a ash-shams*: the sun rose
طَلَعَتْ الشَّمْس   *Ta'la'at ash-shams*: the sun rose

Whereas if the noun is mentioned first then the verb can only be in the feminine form.[145]

---

[144] Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), I (2006), 21.

[145] Ibn Hajib, *Kafiya (Sufficiency)* (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, [n.d.]), p.132.

الشَّمْس طَلَعَتْ *Ash-shams ta'la'at*: the sun rose.

Nouns belonging to this category are given more flexibility than others when complying to gender correspondence.

Included in this category are the names of the body parts which are in pairs, e.g.

اليد *Al'yad*: the hand   الرِّجل *Ar-rijl*: the foot

الكف *Al'ka'f*: the palm(of the hand)   الأُذن Al-uzan: the ear.[146]

In essence, every Arabic noun is considered to be masculine by default unless it falls under the above mentioned categories. Gender demarcation is a very important aspect of the Arabic language, without which the words are meaningless and cannot function in the proper manner. Personal pronouns are grouped according to various categories and gender is one of them. See below for examples in both Arabic and English:

Gender	English	Arabic
Male	He	هو Huwa
Female	She	هي Hiya
Neuter	It	_____

Please refer to Appendix 4 for the CA lesson plan to teach the rules of gender

5.5 *Personal pronouns*

English

A pronoun replaces a noun for the sake of brevity. Personal pronouns are grouped according to the following categories:

- Person (1st –2nd – 3rd)
- Number (Singular – Plural)
- Gender (Male – Female – Neuter)
- Case (Subject – Object)

---

[146] Abi Al-Muwahib Abdul-Wahaab Ash'araani, *Lubaab Al-Iraab* (Core of Declension) (Cairo: Al-Hai'a Al-Misriya Al-a'ma'lil Kitaab, 2007), pp.82.

Table 6: English personal pronouns

Person	Singular		Plural	
	Subject	Object	Subject	Object
1st Masculine + Female	I	Me	We	Us
2nd Masculine + Female	You	You	You	You
3rd Masculine	He	Him	They	Them
3rd Feminine	She	Her	They	Them
3rd Neutral	It	It	They	Them

Table adapted from Collins English Grammar[147]

The first person refers to the speaker, in which only there is no gender distinction.

E.g. *I* am a Muslim

We are Muslims

These sentences can be used by both males and females.

The second person takes the role of an addressee, having neither number nor gender distinction.

E.g. *You* are a hardworking student.

You are hardworking students.

The third person is used for "'third parties," i.e. excluding the speaker(s), writer(s) or addressee(s).'[148] This specific category makes a clear division between the singular, plural, and the three forms of gender.

E.g. *He* is pious

She is pious

It is tasty

---

[147] Ronald G. Hardie, *Collins Gem English Grammar* (Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2004), p.183.
[148] David Crystal, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996), p.152.

Palmer divides nouns into seven groups according to their pronouns because the pronoun system in English reflects the distinction between male, female and inanimate objects.[149]

Gender	Nouns	Pronouns
Male	Man, boy, uncle	He
Female	Women, girl, aunt	She
Neuter	Rock, chair, tree	It
Male/Female	Student, teacher, cousin	He/she
Male/Neuter	Stallion, bull, ram	He/it
Female/Neuter	Mare, cow, ewe	She/it
Male/ Female/Neuter	Horse, sheep, cat	He/she/it

Arabic

Personal pronouns are very distinctive as they are marked for features of person, gender, number and case. These pronouns are independent, meaning they are written and pronounced separately having an exclusive form. The detached personal pronouns can function in only two cases: 'the رَفع *rafa* nominative and نَصب *nasb* accusative.'[150] The number of categories of personal pronouns in Arabic is larger than in English. The following table contains all the forms for the nominative case:

---

[149] Frank Palmer, *Grammar* (Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1971), pp.189-190.
[150] Fuad Nimah, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005), p.113.

Table 7: Arabic personal pronouns (nominative case)

3rd P E R S O N	مُذكر M	Singular	He	هُوَHuwa
		Dual	They (2)	هُمَاHuma
		Plural	They (2+)	هُمْHum
	مؤنث F	Singular	She	هِيHiya
		Dual	They (2)	هُمَاHuma
		Plural	They (2+)	هُنَّHuna
2rd P E R S O N	مُذكر M	Singular	You	أَنْتَAnta
		Dual	You both (2)	أَنْتُمَاAntuma
		Plural	You all (2+)	أَنْتُمْAntum
	مؤنث F	Singular	You	أَنْتِAnti
		Dual	You both (2)	أَنْتُمَاAntuma
		Plural	You all (2+)	أَنْتُنَّAntuna
1ST PERSON	مُذكر M مؤنث F	Singular	I	أَناAna
		Plural	We	نَحْنُNah'nu

Table designed by the researcher using Nimah's book for the Arabic pronouns.[151]

M: Male

F: Female

---

[151] *Ibid.*

After analysing the table it becomes clear that the 1st person number distinction is similar to English, which only considers the singular and plural forms. The same point applies to gender demarcation, because both languages use the same form for both male and female.

The 2nd person encodes more detail about the number and gender. The number consists of singular, dual and plural forms, and covers distinctive forms for both male and female. While in English there is no distinction of the gender or number. E.g. the pronoun *you* is confined to both genders and its number is ambiguous as it may address one person or more.

The 3rd person pronouns in Arabic are again contrary to the English pronouns. In Arabic the number consists of singular, dual and plural forms. Whereas the English language does not make a special designation for the dual form and only makes a distinction between the singular and plural nouns. Lastly in Arabic the nouns are either masculine or feminine whereas English makes reference to a third type: the neuter gender. This is problematic for Arab students learning English because according to the test results 60% of errors are accounted for by the omission of the pronoun *it.* As stated previously, detached personal pronouns can function in only two cases: the رَفع nominative and نَصب accusative. As for the nominative case, the detached personal pronouns can take the following roles in a sentence:[152]

- Subject مُبْتدأ *mubtada*

  هُو الله *Huwa Allah:* He is Allah.

- Predicate خَبر *khabr*

  لا إله إلا هو *La-ilaha ila huwa:* There is no deity worthy of worship except for He (Allah).

- Doer فَاعِل *fa'il*

  رَاغِبٌ أَنتَ *Raghib-un anta:* You are interested.

- Deputy of the doer نَائِب فَاعِل *naib fa'il*

  ما يُكرم إلا هو *Ma yukrim ila huwa:* No one honours except he.

---

[152] *Ibid.*

When the detached pronouns are in the accusative case, they act as the object of a sentence[153] just like the English language. Due to the word taking a different position (as an object), the pronoun varies from the nominative category discussed earlier. Below is the full description of the detached pronouns when they are in the accusative case:

Table 8: Arabic personal pronouns (accusative case)

3rd PERSON	مُذكر M	Singular	Him	إِيَّاهُ Iyahu
		Dual	Them (2)	إِيَّاهُمَا Iyahuma
		Plural	Them (2+)	إِيَّاهُمْ Iyahum
	مؤنث F	Singular	Her	إِيَّاهَا Iyaha
		Dual	Them (2)	إِيَّاهُمَا Iyahuma
		Plural	Them (2+)	إِيَّاهُنَّ Iyahuna
2rd PERSON	مُذكر M	Singular	You	إِيَّاكَ Iyaka
		Dual	You both (2)	إِيَّاكُما Iyakuma
		Plural	You all (2+)	إِيَّاكُمْ Iyakum
	مؤنث F	Singular	You	إِيَّاكِ Iyaki
		Dual	You both (2)	إِيَّاكُما Iyakuma
		Plural	You all (2+)	إِيَّاكُنَّ Iyakuna
1ST PERSON	مُذكر M مؤنث F	Singular	Me	إِيَّايَ Iyaya
		Plural	Us	إِيَّانَا Iyana

Table designed by the researcher using Michael's book for the Arabic pronouns.[154]

---

[153] Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), III (2010), 421.

[154] Michael Mumisa, *Introducing Arabic* (New Delhi: Goodword Books, 2003),p.82.

Example:

إِيَّاكَ نَعْبُدُ وَ إِيَّاكَ نَسْتَعِيْن

Iyaka na'budu wa iyaka nastaeen.

You (alone) we worship and you (alone) we ask for help.

The word إِيَّاكَ *iyaka,* you has been used twice in the sentence, and both times it took the position of an object. 'When the object of the verb (المفعول به) is mentioned before the verb for emphasis, this is known as حَصْر *hasr* in Arabic which means to restrict or confine.'[155] Therefore in this above example, the perceptive student of Arabic will realise that acts of worship can only be given to one supreme deity, likewise the worshipper can only ask Him for help.

Please refer to Appendix 5 for the CA lesson plan to teach personal pronouns

6

Conclusion

6.1 *Introduction*

The overall aim of this dissertation was to advance an understanding of CA in the FL classrooms, particularly in relation to teaching Arabic speakers English. It is a serious topic of reflection for teachers, due to the general outcry regarding negative MT interference, which is frustrating for both students and teachers. After many years of depending on theoretical contrastive studies, finally this research has sought a practical framework by laying down a set of strategic lesson plans for teachers to use, which contribute a great deal to the field of applied linguistics. This chapter will synthesize the literature review and empirical findings related to the four specific objectives of the research in order to make valuable concluding key points, limitations and recommendations.

---

[155] Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), III (2010), 421.

<div style="border: 2px solid #b03030; padding: 20px;">

<u>The four specific objectives</u>

1- Identify the importance of the NL and then explore the legacy of CA to discover its beginning, end and current importance in relation to teaching Arabic speakers English.

2- Evaluate critically the methods and approaches to FL teaching.

3- Implementation of a case study to explore two kinds of EFL teachers; NE and NA speakers. The aim is to examine teachers' beliefs, practises and difficulties in relation to teaching Arab students, and to further examine students' underlying problems.

4- Devise an efficient set of personalised lesson plans specifically for teaching English to Arabic speaking students.

</div>

6.2 *Concluding key points*

This study has identified undeniable factors for why the NL is the cause of either the failure or success of SLA. When learners experience gaps in L2 syntactical structures they have a tendency to transform those structures into their NL; this at times leads to negative MT interference. This was further evidenced in the case study when the students' test results were analysed using CA and all the errors were found to be related to negative MT interference. For example; the word order, genitive possessive case, adjectives and personal pronouns. The students NL cannot be ignored for it is an essential ingredient to the advancement of the TL. Students cannot help but to bring the form and meaning of L1 and L2 into close alignment.

This reinforces the need for teachers to bring L1 into practise for it will facilitate the students' learning repertoire. Organisation and processing has immediate serviceability for learners. It can be concluded that L1 rules are obeyed without the need for apparent explanation or understanding. Whereas L2 rules are obeyed when explicit instruction is made available because L1 interferes in SLA. Pre-existing views have been challenged on account of discrediting CA and L1. Such as Chomsky's rejection of the behaviourist theory which led to the end of CA. Furthermore, Krashen equates L2 learning with L1 and places explicit instruction in-between a minimal and a non-existent role. Language learning is a journey full of experiences, as a child one picks it up naturally but as one grows older and is mentally capable of acquiring new skills, such as L2 then NL must be attended to for it is the core of one's cognitive

faculties. Thus it is required from the teacher to incorporate L1 within the lesson in an effective manner.

Every teacher is bound to have personal motives, notions and practises that differ from one teacher to the next. For example, in this study the NE teacher believes L1 to be a useful strategy for the students to use when facing difficulty. On the other hand, the NA teacher is of the view that L1 is a tool that is only to be utilized by the teacher. Nevertheless, L1 is always a matter of great relevance but the way it is used within the lesson is dependent upon the teacher's approach. The various methods and approaches which have developed over the centuries came about through a succession of proposals for what were believed to be the most appealing and effective teaching standards. Over time there have been three major forms of teaching methodologies that have attracted support at different places and times: traditional, alternative and current. Surprisingly they show the pedagogical relevance of L1 usage. This highlights a significant point for all teachers, because in reality almost every single method and approach of the past and present advocates L1 inclusion in its own unique way.

Below are a few examples to elucidate this point:

- GTM uses extensive amount of NL for explanation, instruction, grammar and translation.
- Silent way requires the student to develop autonomy and pick up the L2 through the use of silent awareness while depending on L1.
- Suggestopaedia incorporates the students NL when presenting new language structures.
- CLT integrates L1 when deemed as necessary.

It can be concluded that no matter what kind of teaching methods are adopted, L1 is a very important feature which cannot be overlooked. Experienced teachers are required to use various approaches and methods based on their personal views and experiences, to build successful and innovative techniques. The results of this study revealed that the use of Arabic was an unavoidable phenomenon. Such as when the NA teacher's lessons were observed, the teacher used L1 to explain grammar and allowed students to communicate in Arabic. Even the NE teacher recognised that Arabic is the students'

backup when experiencing difficulty with L2 learning, and so accepted L1 inclusion. It is not essential for Arab students to be taught by NA teachers, because it all depends on the teacher's level of L1 acceptance and application. For example, if the NA teacher does not favour L1 usage then he/she has no advantage over the NE teacher. On the other hand, if the teacher feels that L1 is important and uses it at the right time and place then without doubt the benefit is greater. However the NE teacher without having to be a native Arab, can still learn about the students NL culture, basic language structure and vocabulary. This all reflects on the teacher's personal teaching beliefs and practises.

CA is the ultimate solution for applying L1 in a FL setting because CA is concerned with the way in which the NL affects a L2. As stated previously, learners tend to transfer habits of their L1 to the TL; therefore CA is the best option for it aims at balancing both languages rather than just isolating L2 structures. CA is divided into two kinds: strong and weak. The weak version, which can also be referred to as EA is a practical and realistic procedure in which errors are gathered, classified, quantified and explained via CA. This version was adopted in this particular research. Taking this theoretical study a step further, a set of five lesson plans were designed to help teachers tackle those difficult areas with ease. Both the NA and NE teachers agreed that the knowledge of the students MT would help them to understand and rectify their students' errors. Other studies indicate the constant crisis faced by Arab students' learning English due to the numerous errors based on MT interference. The empirical research strongly suggests how the key to any FL teaching is the incorporation of CA.

The conclusion that can be drawn is that CA solves major learning issues, such as the vocabulary items and grammatical structures. Dating back to the late sixteenth century, a period of rigorous grammar lessons was the norm. Then towards the mid-nineteenth century, grammar had been discredited for a long time. However its importance has been re-incorporated into the lessons using a range of communicative interactions. Grammar creates a sense of logical ordering to help stimulate accuracy in reading, writing, speaking and listening. When teaching grammar, there must be a certain theme to incite a discussion and to enable students to gradually practise and apply the grammatical rules. Putting things in a context is the answer for enhancing the students understanding. A successful teacher is one who always aims to maintain their students' motivational skills, and one of the ways to achieve this is to learn about

their interests and reasons for acquiring English. This can be acquired through a simple questionnaire at the start of the academic year.

This dissertation has concentrated on Arabic speaking students pursuing EFL, and it has been gathered from past studies and the empirical research that a majority of Arabs have a religious motivation. For this reason the lesson plans have an Islamic perspective; a theme which will boost their confidence and make their learning durable. Arabic belongs to a semitic language, while English is an Indo-European language. Despite the differences, this study establishes the genetic relationship between both languages after examining exemplary vocabulary lists. The English words used in this study have been selected thoroughly because they are ultimately derived from Arabic origin. This reinforces the significance of CA from various angles. Morphology, syntax and etymology have been the centre of attention within this study and surprisingly many differences and similarities have been discovered. All this makes a remarkable assurance for teachers that this kind of study produces innovative, responsive, effective and efficient resources. The only safe conclusion one can draw is that, the most productive way to teach adults a FL is through an adequate CA plan, targeting major areas of difficulties. However a combination of techniques must be incorporated: translation, communicative based tasks, explicit grammar instruction with extensive practise.

6.3 *Limitations*

Although this research has achieved its overall aim of acquiring a deeper understanding of Arabic and English grammatical structures and related objectives – teachers' difficulties, insights and students errors – one has to also acknowledge its possible limitations. In the first instance, due to the combination of the depth and sensitivity of the research topic, a case study approach was adopted which of course is not representative of all institutions. Yet, if one takes into account the step by step procedure in producing the empirical research, it makes the study valid and reliable. Its aim was to provide teachers with systematic CA lesson planning for Arab students learning English. Errors in learning a FL are certainly a never ending problem and therefore it is difficult to generalise the new errors that might be common amongst all students. Nevertheless, the findings were analysed according to the well-known approach of CA, and this will add valuable insights into contemporary

teaching and may be used by teachers for numerous reasons, when or before the difficulty arises. Additionally, this study will be of interest to other researchers and institutions concerned with CA or EIP and that it will add, incrementally, to the patchwork of research in applied linguistics.

The study encountered a number of limitations, which need to be considered. Firstly the amount of data subjects were limited, only twenty-five students and two teachers took part. However, EIHS was the appropriate setting because all the students who engaged in the research were Arab natives. The significance of this institute and its relevancy with the research is considered in chapter 3 'Research Methods.' Secondly, filming the observational lessons would have optimised the overall findings but such an approach was not affordable. Thirdly, the students that were taught by the NA teacher were tested, at the end of the academic year. This may have affected the results due to tiredness, laziness and being eager to leave for summer holidays. Despite such concerns, that period of time was deemed the perfect opportunity to assess their level and detect any errors after a year's hard work in learning English. Fourthly, the students who were taught by the NE teacher were not examined. Such empirical data would have added further richness to the study because of the opportunity to compare results between two groups of students, but this would have made the burden of the work unmanageable. Fifthly, gathering students' errors at the EIHS over different timescales would have provided a more rounded and representative picture, decision making and reactions, but such a study was beyond the scope of this research. Lastly, when searching for Arabic loan words in the English language, the researcher had to access countless number of books. It was time consuming because most of the existing literatures on English etymology are arranged alphabetically and not according to the Languages which they borrowed the words from except for the book named '*A History of Foreign Words in English' by* Mary Sidney Serjeantson.

6.4 *Recommendations for future research*

The following recommendations are of significant value to help broaden and enrich the collective understanding of this research topic:

- Gather common errors made by Arab students other than those mentioned in this study which are documented in existing literature. E.g. journals, masters and doctoral theses. Then design systematic CA lesson plans for a specific level, targeting those errors.

- Plan an intensive EFL course for intermediate Arabic speaking students in a particular setting, either at the cost of the researcher or at a university. Then teach the five lesson plans from this research and receive feedback from the students via interviews/questionnaires.

- The study of students' culture and society in relation to language learning to develop an understanding of what may affect or enhance the students' learning.

- Determine 'common errors' amongst Arabic speakers of varying levels. E.g. this study focused on the intermediate level so future studies could specialise with beginners or advanced levels. This can be achieved by adopting the same research methods employed within this study.

- Assess the errors of Arabic speakers learning English, and then contrast them with the errors made by English speakers learning Arabic. This may bring forth a whole new perspective by finding a consistency between certain grammatical structures. The assessment of errors can be achieved through various means, e.g. speaking, reading, writing and listening tests.

- Use the CA chapter for teaching English speakers Arabic Grammar. Additionally, the lesson plans can be adjusted to suit such learners.

- Hand out the same questionnaire (part A – B) employed in this study to a variety of universities, making sure that only the Arabic speakers of intermediate level participate. The aim is to reach a wider community in order to generalise the results.

- Organise Arabic loanwords in English according to themes/topics, e.g. clothes and foods. In order to help teachers plan their lessons systematically and to also make it easier for researchers to access certain words.

- A combination of etymology, syntax, morphology and phonology need to be integrated into the FL teaching. This research was limited and did not concentrate on phonics. Therefore it would be ideal to discover possible ways to interlard all four aspects into a lesson in order to make it more creative.

- For the benefit of NE teachers, it is necessary to set them 'guiding principles' when teaching Arabic speakers. Such as small reference books containing general instruction phrases in Arabic with English transliteration and translation. It is common for NE teachers to struggle when giving students general or activity instructions. One of the ways to understand teachers' difficulties due to their lack of native like connection with their students is by simply observing a series of lessons.

- The cooperation of researchers, linguists and professionals is pivotal to help raise the awareness of CA input in universities. Keeping within the scope of this research topic, our interest lies with teaching English to Arabic speakers. Hence, there needs to be an underpinning platform that constitutes the following principles:

    1. Reason for the reintegration of CA.
    2. External factors that will influence the universities decision to engage CA.
    3. Practical advice on the changing role of teachers and students including supporting infrastructures.
    4. Benefits to teachers and students.
    5. Potential problems.
    6. Ensure that CA is justified in terms of rationale.

All this leads to a final recommendation; that academic staff receive meaningful pedagogical training, in a structured way, that is aimed at preparing academic staff for integrating CA into their teaching. It is hoped that this will bring about a dramatic change to the teaching communities through a change of policy by acknowledging the value of CA.

Bibliography

Angus, William and A. M., *English Grammar*, 5th edn (Glasgow: Oliver & Boyd, 1939)

Anthony, E. M., 'Approach, Method and Technique', *English Language Teaching,* 17 (1963), 63-67

Al-Mubarakpuri, Safiur-Rahman, *Tafsir Ibn Kathir* (Explanation of Ibn Kathir), 10 vols (New York: Darussalam, 2000), IV

Ayto, John, *Word Origins: The Hidden Histories of English Words from A to Z,* 2nd edn (London: A & C Black Publishers, 2005)

Alshayban, Abdullah S., 'Copula Omission by EFL Arab Learners' (unpublished master's thesis, Colorado State University, 2012)

Ash'araani, Abi Al-Muwahib, Abdul-Wahaab, *Lubaab Al-Iraab* (Core of Declension) (Cairo: Al-Hai'a Al-Misriya Al-a'ma'lil Kitaab, 2007)

Al-Nofaie, Haifa, 'The Attitudes of Teachers and Students Towards Using Arabic in EFL Classrooms in Saudi Public Schools', *Novitas ROYAL,* 4 (2010), 64-95

Abu-Ghazaleh, Diala and Deema Hijazai, 'Jordanian Graduate and Undergraduate University Students' Attitudes Towards the English Language', *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 21 (2011), 625-637

Al-Sahli, Abdullah S., 'Non-Canonical Word Order: Its Types and Rhetorical Purposes with Reference to Five Translations of the Meanings of the Holy Qur'an' (unpublished Phd thesis, University of Durham, 1996)

Abu Shihab, Ibrahim, Abdallah Hussein El-Omari and Mahmoud Tobat, 'An Analysis of Written Grammatical Errors of Arab Learners of English as a Foreign Language at Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan', *European Journal of Social Sciences,* 20 (2011), 543-552

Al-Abed Al-Haq, Fawwaz and Amer Lahad Al-Masaeid, 'Islam and Language Planning in the Arab World: A Case Study in Jordan', *Iranian Journal of Language Studies,* 3 (2009), 267-302

Al-Abed Al-Haq, Fawwaz, and Oqlah Smadi, 'The Status of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) from 1940-1990', in *Post-Imperial English: Status Change in Former British and American Colonies, 1940-1990,* ed. by Joshua A. Fishman, Andrew W. Conrad and Alma Rubal-Lopez (Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1996), pp.457-484

Ba'albaki, Munir, *A Modern English-Arabic Dictionary* (Beirut: Dar El-Ilm Lil-Malayen, 2005)

Berg, Bruce L., *Research Methods for the Social Sciences,* 4th edn (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 2001)

Black, Duncan, et al., eds, *Collins Dictionary and Thesaurus: in Colour* (London: Harper Collins Publishers, 2009)

Bloor, Thomas and Meriel Bloor, *The Functional Analysis of English,* 2nd edn (London: Hodder Arnold, 2004)

Brown, H. Douglas, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (San Francisco: Pearson Longman, 2000)

Butzkamm, Wolfgang and John A.W. Caldwell, *The Bilingual Reform: A Paradigm Shift in Foreign Language Teaching* (TÜbingen: Narr, 2009)

Butzkamm, Wolfgang, 'We Only Learn Language Once. The Role of the Mother Tongue in FL Classrooms: Death of a Dogma', *Language Learning Journal,* 28 (2003), 29-39

Butterworth G. and Evelyn Hatch, 'A Spanish-Speaking Adolescents' Acquisition of English Syntax', in *Second Language Acquisition: A Book of Reading,* ed. by Evelyn Hatch (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978), pp. 231-245

Chalker, S., *Current English Grammar* (London: Macmillan, 1984)

Campo, Juan E., *Encyclopedia of Islam* (New York: Infobase Publishing, 2009)

Cohen, L. and Manion L., *Research Methods in Education* (London: Routledge, 1995)

Corder, S. P., 'Idiosyncratic Dialects and Error Analysis', *IRAL*, 9 (1971), 147-160

Crystal, David, *Rediscover Grammar with David Crystal,* rev.edn (Harlow Essex: Longman Group Limited, 1996)

Cook, Vivian, 'Using the First Language in the Classroom', *The Canadian Modern Language Review,* 57 (2001), 402-423

Chomsky, Noam, *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Cambridge: M.T.I. Press, 1965)

Chomsky, Noam, 'Linguistic Theory' in *Chomsky: Selected Reading,* ed. by J.P.B. Allen and P. Van Buren (London: Oxford University Press, 1966), pp. 152-159

Cooper, R. L., and J. A. Fishman, 'A Study of Language Attitudes', in *The Spread of English,* ed. by J.A. Fishman, R.L. Cooper and A.W. Conrad (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1977), pp. 239-276

Dewey, Martin, 'Beyond Labels and Categories in English Language Teaching: Critical Reflections on Popular Conceptualizations', in *English A Changing Medium for Education*, ed. by Constant Leung and Brian V. Street (London: Multilingual Matters, 2012), pp.129-149

Endly, Martin J., *Linguistic Perspectives on English Grammar: A Guide for EFL Teachers* ([n.p.]: Information Age Publishing, 2010)

Ellis, Rod, 'Does Explicit Grammar Instruction Work?', *National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics,* 2 (2010), 3-22

Ellis, Rod, 'The Place of Grammar Instruction in the Second/Foreign Language Curriculum', in *New Perspectives on Grammar Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*, ed. by E. Hinkel and S. Fotos (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2002), pp.17-34

Fisiak, Jacek, *Contrastive Linguistics and the Language Teacher* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981)

Fox, Gwyneth, et al., eds, *Collins COBUILD: Active English Grammar,* 2nd edn (Glasgow: Harper Collins, 2011)

Fries, C. C., *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1945)

Gupta, Shabnam, *English Grammar: Easier Way* (New Delhi: Lotus Press, 2006)

Gumperz, John J., *Discourse Strategies* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982)

Givon, Talmy, *English Grammar: A Functional-based Introduction*, 2 vols (Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing, 1993) I

Grassi, Elizabeth A., and Heidi Bulham Barker, *Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Exceptional Students: Strategies for Teaching and Assessment* (London: Sage Publications, 2010)

Hockett, Charles, Francis, *A Course in Modern Linguistics* (New York: Macmillan, 1958)

Harmer, Jeremy, *The Practise of English Language Teaching*, 3rd edn (Harlow: Longman, 2001)

Hardie, Ronald G., *Collins Gem English Grammar* (Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2004)

Hesse-Biber, Sharlene Nagy and Patricia Leavy, *The Practise of Qualitative Research,* 2nd edn (London: Sage Publications, 2011)

H., Zobl, 'The Formal and Developmental Selectivity of L1 Influences on L2 Acquisition', *Language Learning,* 30 (1980), 43-57

Hymes, D., 'On Communicative Competence', in *Sociolinguistics,* ed. by J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1972), pp.269-293

Hashim, N.,'English Syntactic Errors by Arabic Speaking Learners Reviewed', in *Pan-Asiatic Linguistics: Proceedings of the Fourth International Symposium on Language and Linguistics,* 5 vols (Salaya, Thailand: Mahidol University, Institute of Language and Culture for Rural Development, 1996), II, 1441-1465

Ibn Hajib, Kafiya (Sufficiency) (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, [n.d.])

Ilson, Robert, 'Etymological Information: Can it Help Our Students?', *ELT Journal,* 37 (1983), 76-82

Jadallah, Mufeed and Fuad Hasan, 'A Review of Some New Trends in Using L1 in the   EFL Classroom',<http://www.qou.edu/english/conferences/firstNationalConference/pdfFiles/drMufeed.pdf> [accessed 22 May 2012]

Johansson, Stig, 'The Uses of Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis (1)', *ELT Journal,* 29 (1975), 246-253

Jenkins, Sulaiman, 'Monolingualism: An Uncongenial Policy for Saudi Arabia's Low Level Learners', *ELT Journal*, 64 (2010), 459-461

Jassem, Zaidan, Ali, 'The Arabic Origins of "Water and Sea" Terms in English, German, and French: A Lexical Root Theory Approach', *Language in India,* 13 (2013), 126-151

Jassem, Zaidan, Ali, 'The Arabic Origins of Common Religious Terms in English: A Lexical Root Theory Approach', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature,* 1 (2012), 59-71

James, Carl, 'Contrastive Analysis and the Language Learner', in *Linguistics, Language Teaching and Language Learning,* ed. by David J. Allerton, Cornelia Tschichold and Judith Wieser (Basel: Schwabe, 2005), pp.1-20

James, C., 'The Exculpation of Contrastive Linguistics', in *Papers in Contrastive Linguistics*, ed. by Nickel G. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1971), pp.53-68

Kothari, C. R., *Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques*, 2nd edn (Delhi: New Age International Publishers, 2004)

Krashen, Stephen D., *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981)

Lofland, J., *Analysing Social Settings* (New York: Wadsworth, 1971)

Larsen-Freeman, Diane, *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, 2nd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000)

Lado, Robert, *Linguistics Across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1957)

Mumisa, Michael, *Introducing Arabic* (New Delhi: Goodword Books, 2003)

Masuhara, Hitomi, et al., 'Adult EFL Courses', *ELT Journal*, 62.3 (2008), 294-312

Miles, Richard, 'Evaluating the Use of L1 in The English Language Classroom' (unpublished master's thesis, University of Birmingham, 2004)

Mohammad, A. Mohammad, *Word Order, Agreement and Pronominalization in Standard and Palestinian Arabic* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2000)

Muto-Humphrey, Keiko, 'Frequent Errors in English Grammar: Articles and Possessive Markers', *Journal of School of Foreign Languages,* 31 (2006), 59-85

Meyer, Harry, 'The Pedagogical Implications of L1 Use in The L2 Classroom', (2008), 147-159 <http://www.kyoai.ac.jp/college/ronshuu/no-08/meyer1.pdf> [accessed 22 May 2012]

Macaro, Ernesto, 'Codeswitching in the L2 Classroom: A Communication and Learning Strategy', in *Non-Native Language Teachers: Perceptions, Challenges and Contributions to the Profession,* ed. by Llurda (New York: Springer, 2005), pp.63-84

Nimah, Fuad, *Mulakas Qawaaid Al-Lugha Al-Arabia* (Summary of the Rules for the Arabic Language) (London: Daar Al Hikma, 2005)

Norris, J.M., and Ortega, 'Does Type of Instruction Make a Difference? Substantive Findings from a Meta-Analytic Review', *Language Learning*, 51 (2001), 157-213

Odlin, Terence, *Language Transfer* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989)

Omaggio-Hadley, A., *Teaching Language in Context,* 3rd edn (Boston: Heinle, 2001)

Onions, C.T., eds, *The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1966)

O'Sullivan, Andrew, 'Handbooks for Teachers of English to Arab Students', *ELT Journal,* 47 (1993), 172-174

Palmer, Frank, *Grammar* (Middlesex: Penguin Books, 1971)

Pierson, Herbert D., 'Using Etymology in the Classroom', *ELT Journal,* 43 (1989), 57-63

Patel, M. F. and Praveen M. Jain, *English Language Teaching: Methods, Tools and Techniques* (Jaipur: Sunrise Publishers, 2008)

Quirk, Randolph, et al., *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (London: Longman, 1972)

Quirk, Randolph and Sidney Greenbaum, *A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973)

Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers, *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching,* 2nd edn (New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001)

Reiss, Katherine, *Translation Criticism: The Potentials and Limitations,* trans. by Erroll F. Rhodes (Manchester: St Jerome Publishing, 2000)

Sĩbawayh, *Al-Kitab* (The Book), 2nd edn ([n.p.]:Maktabat Al-Xanji, 1982)

Skinner, B. F., *Verbal Behaviour* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957)

Stevick, E. W., *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways* (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1980)

Skeat, Walter W., *The Concise Dictionary of English Etymology* (Kent: Wordsworth Editions, 1993)

Serjeantson, Mary, Sidney, *A History of Foreign Words in English* (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1961)

Storch, Neomy and Ali Aldosari, 'Learners' Use of First Language (Arabic) in Pair Work in an EFL Class', *Language Teaching Research,* 14 (2010), 355-375

Sato, Kazuyoshi and Robert C. Kleinsasser, 'Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Practical Understandings', *The Modern Language Journal*, 83 (1999), 504-505

Swan, Michael, 'Why is it All Such a Muddle, and What is the Poor Teacher to Do?' in *Exploring Focus on Form in Language Teaching,* ed. by M.Pawlak (Kalisz-Poznań: Faculty of Pedagogy and Fine Arts, 2007), pp. 287-299

Schmidt, Richard, W. and Frota S., 'Developing Basic Conversational Ability in a Second Language: A Case Study of an Adult Learner of Portuguese', in *'Talking to Learn': Conversation in Second Language Acquisition,* ed. by R. Day (MA: Newbury House, 1986), pp.237-326

Sini, Mahmood, Ismail, Nasif Mustafa Abdul Aziz and Mukhtar Al-tahir Husayn, Al-Arabiyah Li'nashieen (Arabic for Beginners), 6 vols (Riyadh: [n. pub.], 1983-2001) II (1983)

Thornbury, Scott, *How to Teach Grammar* (Oxford: Longman, 1999)

Thorne, S., *Mastering Advanced English Language* (New York: Palgarve, 1997)

Thomson, Geoff, 'Some Misconceptions about Communicative Language Teaching', *ELT Journal*, 50 (1996), 9-15

Thomson, A. J. and A. V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar,* 3rd edn (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1980)

Tahaineh, Yousef, Sharif, 'Arab EFL University Students' Errors in the Use of Prepositions', *Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 1 (2010), 76-112

Teachers of Ayesha Siddiqua Karachi School, *Language of the Quran: An Elementary Text on Arabic Grammar*, 3 vols (Karachi: Al-Bushra Publishers, 2006-2010), I (2006), III (2010)

Wardhaugh, Ronald, 'The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis', *TESL Quaterly,* 4 (1970), 123-30

Wightwick, Jane and Mahmoud Gaafar, *Arabic Verbs and Essentials of Grammar,* 2nd edn (New York: McGraw Hill, 2008)

Yang, Byung-gon, 'A review of contrastive analysis hypothesis', *Dongeui Journal*, 19 (1992), 133-149

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ojk3FHm8eIs> [accessed 12 January 2013]