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A Comparative and Contrastive Study of Preposition in Arabic and English

Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, Ph.D. Candidate

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Abstract

This paper attempts a comparative and contrastive analysis of the subsystems of the prepositions in Arabic and English, in terms of their uses, function and meanings in order to find the major similarities and differences between Arabic and English and to account for any possible deviations that may characterize the performance of Arabic learners.

The result showed that there are similarities and differences between these two subsystems of the prepositions in Arabic and English. The similarities between them facilitate the development process of learning a foreign language (positive transfer), whereas differences make learning process of a foreign language difficult and Arabic learners make many mistakes (negative transfer or interference).

This study has pedagogical implications for teaching prepositions in English and to help teachers and motivate them to describe and analyse the learners' errors and also to prepare remedial exercises to eliminate the errors their students make in the use of prepositions.

Key words: prepositions, comparative, contrastive, similarities, differences

1. Introduction

Contrastive linguistic analysis (CA) is the comparison and contrast of the linguistic systems of two or more individual languages in order to bring out points of contrast as well as points of similarity between them.

Contrastive analysis is not intended to offer a new method of teaching, but it is a form of language-description across two languages which are particularly applicable to curriculum development, the preparation and evaluation of teaching materials, the diagnosis of learning problems and testing. Johansson and Hofland (1994:25) state that "language comparison is of great interest in a theoretical as well as an applied perspective. It reveals what is general and what is language specific and is therefore important both for the understanding of language in general and for the study of the individual languages compared".

Schuster (1997) indicates that English learners of German or German learners of English are destined to have a positive transfer because the two languages do have many similarities. On the other hand, the theory stipulates that learning will be quite difficult, or even unsuccessful, when the two languages are different.

Contrastive linguistics is not a unified field of study. The focus may be on general or on language specific features. The study may be theoretical, without any immediate application, or it may be applied, carried out for specific purposes.

Contrastive linguistics is a predictive technique. This means that by looking at the structure of two or more linguistic systems, we can predict the difficulties the learner is likely to encounter. It doesn't mean that for all mistakes a learner makes in the second language, the first language habits alone are responsible. Contrastive analysis is useful in discovering language universals, studying problems in translation and studying language types.

2. History of Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is not a new idea. The beginning of contrastive linguistics was marked by the publication of Robert Lado's *Linguistics Across Cultures (1957)*.

In the first chapter of this book Lado discusses four important points of the fundamental assumptions that led to the necessity for a comparison between two languages to explore both the dissimilarities and similarities of the two linguistic systems compared, the significance of contrastive analysis for testing and the significance of contrastive analysis for research.

3. Comparative and Contrastive Linguistics

A comparative and contrastive linguistic analysis differs considerably from a contrastive linguistic analysis. A comparative study is a diachronic comparison of two or more linguistic systems with a view to classifying languages into families. It is concerned with the history and evolution of languages. A comparative study is interested in establishing the similarities or correspondences between languages.

A contrastive linguistic study is a synchronic comparison. It studies languages belonging to the same period, without paying much attention to their histories or language families. It is more concerned with dissimilarities than similarities.

4. Lado's Approach to Contrastive Linguistics

Lado (1957) was concerned with the concept of difficulty in language learning. Starting out from the commonsense observation that the learner will find some features of a new language difficult and others easy, he argued that the key to degrees of difficulty lies in the comparison between the native and the foreign language he is learning. Since an individual tends to transfer the features of his native language to the foreign language he is learning, a comparative study will be useful in identifying the likeness and differences between the languages and thus enable the linguist to predict areas of difficulty for the second language learner. He suggests that contrastive analysis is very useful for a teacher who teaches a foreign language because it helps him in identifying the problems that a foreign language learner may experience in the learning process.

Lado (1957:2) states that "The teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and provide for teaching them"

The most important new thing in the preparation of teaching materials is the comparison of the native language and the foreign language and culture in order to find the hurdles that really have to be surmounted in the teaching.

The first point taken by Lado in his book *Linguistics Across Cultures* was the statement given by Fries that has a connection with preparing materials. Fries (1945:9) points out that "the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner".

According to Lado's approach, contrastive analysis is very important in curriculum development, the preparation and evaluation of teaching materials, to the diagnosis of learning problems and to testing.

Lado's study was programmatic. It outlined procedures of how to make such comparison in phonology, grammar, vocabulary and the cultural aspects of language.

5. Criticism Levelled Against Contrastive Analysis

There were different types of criticism that were levelled against the hypothesis of contrastive analysis. There were empirical criticism, practical criticism and theoretical criticism.

Different studies on second language learning proved that the first language habits are not alone responsible for all the mistakes a learner makes in second language.

One of these studies was an empirical study under taken by Randal Whitman and Kenneth Jackson (1972) (cited in Littlewood, 1984). It used four different contrastive analyses of English and Japanese, in order to predict the errors that would be made by Japanese learners of English. They compared these predictions with the errors actually made by the learners in a series of tests. Their conclusion was that contrastive analysis was of little use in predicting the items which proved difficult in their tests.

Practical experience suggests that many errors made by learners would not have been predicted by contrastive analysis. Heidi Dulay and Merina Burt (1973) identified in their study two kinds of errors, namely, *interference errors* and *developmental errors*.

The behaviourist approach claims that we can predict difficulties and errors by contrastive analysis. But Chomsky (1957) criticized the behaviourist approach and described its inadequacy. So this criticism by Chomsky is a theoretical criticism against contrastive analysis.

6. The Utility of Contrastive Analysis in the Arabic Situation

In spite of the fact that contrastive analysis has been criticized by scholars the world over, we can't overlook the merits of contrastive analysis in a foreign language learning /teaching situation.

To cite the Arabic situation, it is a well – known fact that [p] cannot begin an Arabic word. A vast majority of Arabic learners of English pronounces English word beginning with [p] by substituting [b] for [p]. The voiceless palato–alveolar affricate [\mathfrak{f}] doesn't occur at all in Arabic and again many native speakers of Arabic replace [\mathfrak{f}] by [\int] in their English speech.

In an Arabic dissyllabic word, the heavier of the two syllables invariably receives the accent and a very large number of native speakers of Arabic pronounce the word *orange* with the accent on the second syllable. It is not uncommon to hear an Arab learner of English say "The girl beautiful". This again is an instance of the features of Arabic being superimposed in English.

To cite another example, we often hear our Arab students; say a sentence like "my father engineer", without the auxiliary *to be* and without the indefinite article *an*. This undoubtedly is an example of the influence of Arabic because there are neither the auxiliary verbs *to be* in the Arabic linguistic system nor is there any indefinite article. Indefiniteness in Arabic is expressed by what is called "tanween" which is not discussed here since it is beyond the scope of this study.

A comparative and contrastive analysis of English and Arabic will certainly reveal to the analyst all these points of dissimilarities between the two languages.

Therefore, we can't set aside contrastive analysis as totally valueless. What we can say, as a matter of caution perhaps, is that a contrastive analyst shouldn't make the mistake of declaring that the divergences between two languages alone contribute to errors in the L_2 .

Some researchers state that there are still many applied linguists who firmly believe in the predictive power of CA. In fact, one cannot deny that CA may have some potential in certain fields. For example, a contrastive analysis study, conducted by Abbas (1995), revealed that in the case of adverbial positions, learners of both English and Arabic have access to more than one place to accommodate the adverbial concerned in the sentence.

7. The Scope of the Study

The scope of the present study is restricted to a simple theoretical description of two subsystems in English and Arabic and the present study will give some pedagogical implications which will hopefully help the teachers in teaching English language in Arab world as a foreign language and to overcome the interference of Arabic in the learning process.

The researcher will concentrate on the use and the function of preposition in English and Arabic and will take the kind of Arabic that is usually referred to as *standard Arabic* and not one of the many dialectal variations of the language.

Standard Arabic is that variety of Arabic, which is usually used in print, and which is normally taught in schools and to non-native speakers learning Arabic. It is the language that is used in news broadcasts, and in official documents. It is the language of the press law courts and government. It is the language that is codified in Arabic language dictionaries and grammar books.

8. Method

In the following part the researcher will explain the research method, materials and procedures.

8.1 Materials

The researcher to compare and contrast prepositions in English and Arabic and to collect data for study, the researcher selected some Arabic grammar books to collect data about Arabic prepositions. These books were written by Arabic scholars (Al-Hanadwah, 1999; Al-Hashmi,1345; Al-Moa'man, 1985; Al-Rajihi,1988; Hassan Abbas, 1973; Makalasah, 1993) and some English grammar books to collect data about English prepositions. These books were written by (Beaumont and Granger, 1989; Chalker, 1989; Murphy, 1991; Quirk, Green and Leech, 1985; Swan, 1984)

8.2 Procedure

This study was directed toward studying the subsystem of prepositions in Arabic and English in terms of uses, function and meanings in order to identify the major similarities and differences between English and Arabic. At the start, the investigation began with the description and analysis the function of prepositions in English and Arabic, and the use and meanings of prepositions in both languages.

8.3 Analysis of Prepositions in English and Arabic: A Comparison and Contrast

8.3.1 Functions of prepositions in English and Arabic

Prepositions in English are used to connect a noun and another noun grammatically or noun to noun phrase to show the relation between the two nouns.

For example:

- 1) There is a horse *in* the farm.
- 2) The book is *on* the table.

In the examples (1) and (2) the prepositions *in* and *on* show the relation between noun and noun phrase *horse* and *the farm*, and the *book* and the *table*, the prepositions *on* and *in* join a noun to another noun or noun to noun phrase.

Similarly, in Arabic the preposition is used to connect a noun to another noun grammatically to show the relation between them.

3) / Sa:dıl <u>fi:</u> ?al madrasah/.
* Adel in the school. Adel is in the school.
4) / ?at trfler, fi: ?al hadi:aah/

4) / ?at tıflo <u>fi:</u> ?al ħadi:qah/
* The child in the garden. The child is in the garden.

In examples (3) and (4) the preposition /fi: / is used to connect two nouns / ca:dl / and /?al madrasah / and / ?at trflv / and / ?al hadi:qah/

The preposition /fi:/ joins a noun to another noun.

<u>Note:</u> The prepositions in English are more in number whereas, the prepositions in Arabic are few. Also in English there are complex prepositions which may be subdivided into two and three word sequences such as *next to, in front of, by the side of, in place of* etc. But in Arabic there are no complex prepositions which may be subdivided into two and three word sequences. All prepositions in Arabic are simple prepositions.

8.3.2 Prepositions in English also are used to connect the verb and the noun grammatically to show the relation between them.

For example:

- 5) The cat jumped *off* the table.
- 6) He writes *with* a pen.

In example (5) the preposition *off* shows the relation between the actions expressed by the verb *jumped* and the *table*, the preposition *off* joins a noun to verb. Also the preposition *with* joins the noun *pen* to the verb *writes*.

8.3.3 Similarly in Arabic, the preposition is used to connect a verb and a noun. The preposition helps a transitive verb to pass over to its object.

7) / ðahabt
 <u>br</u>χa:lɪd /
* went I with Khalid .
I went with Khalid.

8) /marrartʊ <u>bi</u> ?aħmad/ Passed I by Ahmed. I passed by Ahmed. In examples (7) and (8) the preposition /bI / shows the relation between the verb and the noun. The preposition /bI / joins a noun to a verb.

8.3.4 The prepositions in English are used to connect a noun and an adjective grammatically to show the relation between them. For example:

9)	She is fond <i>of</i> coffee.	
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10) I am tired *of* waiting.

11) Your writing is similar *to* my writing.

In examples (9), (10) and (11) the prepositions *of* and *to* show the relation between the adjectives *fond*, *tired* and *similar*, and the nouns *coffee*, *writing* and noun phrase (my *writing*). The prepositions (*of and to*) join a noun to an adjective.

But in Arabic, the preposition does not connect a noun and an adjective.

9. Prepositions and objects of preposition in English and Arabic

9.1 In English the preposition and object of preposition occur as complements of a verb.

For example:

12) We depend *on* you.

13) We were looking *at* his awful paintings.

In examples (12) and (13) the preposition and object of preposition act as complements of a verb.

9.2 Similarly in Arabic, the preposition and object of preposition occur as a complement of a verb.

14) /ðahaba Salı <u>21la</u> 2al madrasah / * Went Ali to the school. Ali went to the school.

15) /maſa: ?aħmad <u>?īla</u> ?al ħadi:qah/ * Walked Ahmed to the garden. Ahmed walked to the garden.

In examples (14) and (15), the prepositions and object of prepositions act as complement of a verb.

9.3 In English the preposition and object of preposition occur as complement of an adjective.

For example:

17) The letter I wrote was *full of mistakes*.

In examples (16) and (17), prepositions and object of prepositions act as complement of an adjective.

But in Arabic the prepositions and object of prepositions do not occur as complement of an adjective but they occur as an adjective for the object of the sentence.

18) /ra?aɪtʊ radʒʊlan <u>Sala</u> saijaratih/
*Saw I a man on car his. I saw a man on his car.

In example (18) the preposition and object of preposition act as an adjective for the object of the sentence.

9.4 In English the preposition and object of preposition occur as adverbials.

For example:

19) In the afternoon, we went to Sana'a.20) I like sitting by the window.

In examples (19) and (20) the preposition and object of preposition act as an adverb.

9.5 Similarly in Arabic, the preposition and object of preposition occur as an adverb.

21) /ra?aito ?an nadʒm <u>fi:</u> ?as sama:? /
* saw I the star in the sky.
I saw the star in the sky.

In example (21) the preposition and object of preposition act as an adverb.

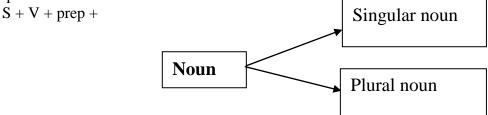
9.6 In Arabic the preposition and object of preposition occur as predicate for the subject.

22) / χa:lɪd <u>fi:</u> ?as su:q /
* Khalid in the market. Khalid is in the market.

9.7 In example (22) the preposition and object of preposition act as predicate for the subject.

10. Position of preposition in English and Arabic

10.1 In English the prepositions occur in the middle of the sentence before a singular noun or a plural noun.



23) They sit *on* the chairs.

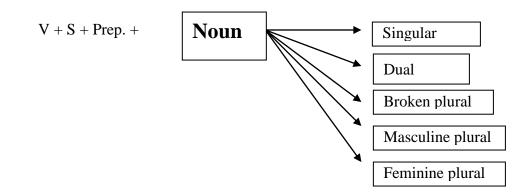
24) They write with pens.

25) The books are *under* the table.

26) Adel travelled to London.

In examples (23) and (24) the prepositions *on* and *with* occur before plural nouns. In examples (25) and (26), the prepositions (*under* and *to*) occur before singular nouns.

10.2 Similarly, in Arabic the preposition occurs in the middle of the sentence before overt nouns.



27) /zorto ?almodarris <u>fi:</u> ?al madrasah * Visited I the teacher in the school. I visited the teacher in the school

In example (27) the preposition /fi: / occurs in the middle of the sentence before singular noun.

28) / ðahaba ?ahmad <u>?ıla</u> ?al mudarrısataın/ * Went Ahmed to the two teachers. Ahmed went to the two teachers.

In example (28) the preposition /?ıla / occurs before dual.

29) / ðahaba ?a t tolla:bo <u>?ıla</u> ?al mada:rıs/
* Went the students to the schools. The students went to the schools.

In example (29) the preposition /?ıla/ occurs before a broken plural.

30) / dʒalastʊ <u>?ıla</u> ?al mʊdarrisi:n/
* Sat I with the teachers. (Masculine) I sat with the teachers.
In example (30) the preposition /?ıla/ occurs before a masculine plural.

31) /naðarto <u>21la</u> 2al modarrisa:t/
* looked I at the teachers. (Feminine) I looked at the teachers.

In example (31) the preposition /?rla/ occurs before a feminine plural.

10.3 In English the preposition occurs in the middle of the sentence before a pronoun.

S+V+Prep.+Pronoun.

32) She looks *at* me.33) The bag is *under* it.34) They will listen *to* you.

In examples (32), (33) and (34) the preposition *at*, *under* and *to* occur before pronouns.

10.4 Similarly, in Arabic the preposition occurs in the middle of the sentence before a pronoun.

V + S + prep + pronoun

35) /marra Sa:dıl <u>bi</u>ha: /
* Passed Adel by her. Adel passed by her.

36) / ðahaba χa:lɪd <u>?ɪla</u>ɪhɪm/
* Went Khalid to them. Khalid went to them.

In examples (35) and (36) the preposition /bi / and /?ila / occur before pronouns.

10.5 In Arabic we can put the preposition at the beginning of the sentence before a noun by changing the word order in the sentence.

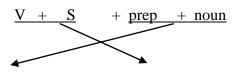
S + prep + noun = prep + noun + S

37) / <u>Salı</u> <u>fi:</u> <u>?al madrasah/</u> / fi: <u>?al madrasah</u> <u>Salı</u> /

* In the school Ali. Ali is in the school.

In example (37) the preposition /fi: / occurs at the beginning of the sentence.

38) / ðahaba moħammad ?ıla ?al madrasah /

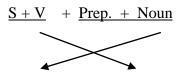


 $\label{eq:21} $$ / <u>?ıla</u> ?al madrasah ðahaba mʊħammad / Prep + noun V + S * To the school went Mohammed. Mohammed went to the school.$

In examples (38) the preposition /?ila / occurs before noun at the beginning of the sentence.

But in English we cannot put the preposition at the beginning of the sentence before a noun by changing the word order of a sentence.

39) Ahmed went to school.



Prep. + Noun + S + V * To School Ahmed went

10.6 In English prepositions occur before – *ing* verb form (Gerund): *Prep.* + *ing verb form*

40) He travelled to Taiz without saying anything.

41) She is not used to eating so much.

But in Arabic prepositions do not occur before a verb.

10.7 In English the preposition occur at the end of the sentence in the following cases:

(a) If its object is the relative pronoun (that- whom- which-who)

42) I have the book that you asked for.

43) Here is the pen that I was talking *about*.

44) that is the boy who I was speaking of.

45) that is the house which I live in.

(b) If its object is an interrogative:

46) Where are you *from*?

47) What are you looking for?

(c) For the sake of emphasis :

48) This I insist on.

49) He is known the entire world over.

(d) In Exclamations: 50) What a mess he's got *into!*

(e) With an infinitive purpose:

51) Here is a chair to sit on.

52) You are nice to be *with*.

But in Arabic prepositions do not occur at the end of the sentence

11. Meanings and uses of prepositions in English and Arabic:

11.1 Prepositions of Place:

In English there are some prepositions which denote a place such as *in, at, to, into*.

53) My brother lives in Yemen.

54) I met Ahmed *at* the airport.

55) We are going to London next week.

56) The man ran *into* the shop.

Similarly in Arabic, there are some prepositions which denote places such as /mɪn/. /fi:/ ./ʔɪla/.

57) /radʒaʕtʊ <u>min</u> ?al dʒa:miʕah/ . * Came back I from the university . I came back from the university.

58) /?al mʊʕalımʊ <u>fi:</u> ?al madrasah/ * The teacher in the school. The teacher is in the school.

59) / ðahabt $to \frac{211a}{Taiz}$ ta S_{IZ} / .

I went to Taiz.

11.2 The Prepositions of position:

In English there are some prepositions which denote position such as on, at, in

60) I will meet you *at* the station.61) There are some books *on* the table.62) Ahmed was *in* the water.

Similarly, in Arabic, there is one preposition which denotes position / Sala/.

63) /wađaSto ?al kīta:b <u>Sala</u> ?a ŧ ŧa:wīlah/ * Put I the book on the table. I put the book on the table.

11.3 Prepositions of time:

In English there are some prepositions which denote time such as *at*, *in*, *on*, *by*, *for*, *during*, *before*, *after*, *since*, *until*, *till*.

- 64) Ahmed went to Sana'a at eight o'clock.
- 65) They got married on 13 April.
- 66) I'll see you *in* the morning.

67) I'll be home by five o'clock. (=at or before five)

- 68) I have lived in this house for six years.
- 69) My mother was in hospital *during* the summer.

70) The train will arrive before 8p.m.

- 71) We ate in a restaurant *after* the film.
- 72) He has been ill since Monday.

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} Until\\ \end{array}\right\}$$
73) I waited for him *till* five o'clock.

Similarly in Arabic, there are some prepositions which denote time such as /min/, /fi:/ , / 2na/, / \hbar atta/ .

74) / χaradʒtʊ <u>min</u> ?al fadʒr /.
* Went out I from the down.
* I went out from the down.
75) /radʒaʕatʊ <u>fi:</u> ?as sa:ʕah ?al ra:biʕah/
* Come back I at o'clock four. I came back at four o'clock.

76) / ða:karto <u>?ıla</u> ?al fadʒr /
* Studied till the down. I studied till the down.

77) / ða:karto <u>hatta</u> ?a saba:h /
* Studied I until the morning. I studied until the morning.

11.4 /mʊð / and / mʊnðʊ/ in Arabic and since in English.

The preposition $/m\upsilon \delta$ / and $/m\upsilon n\delta\upsilon$ / are used in Arabic to denote time. Similarly in English the preposition *since* is used to denote time.

But the difference between $/ mv\delta / , / mvn\delta v / and since$ is that/mv $\delta / and / mvn\delta v / are used in present and past time, while since is used in present perfect and present perfect continuous .$

78) / ma:ra?aitoka * didn't see you since since since Friday.
I haven't seen you since Friday.

79) /ma:ra?artoka $\begin{cases} \frac{m\upsilon\delta}{m\upsilonn\delta\upsilon} \\ since \end{cases}$ jaomina ha: δ a: /. (Present time) * don't see you $\begin{cases} since \\ since \\ I haven't seen you since this day. \end{cases}$

In example (78) / mvð / and / mvnðv / denote past time in Arabic and in example

(79) they denote present time in Arabic.

80) He has been ill *since* Monday (present perfect)

81) I have been waiting *since* 1 o'clock. (Present perfect continuous)

In example (80) *since* refers to time in the present perfect and in example (81) it refers to time in the present perfect continuous.

11.5 Prepositions which express resemblance:

In English the preposition *like* expresses resemblance.

82) She is just *like* her mother.

83) He plays football *like* his brother.

Similarly in Arabic, the preposition /?alka:f/ expresses resemblance .

84) / Salı <u>ka</u> l?asad/ * Ali like lion. Ali is like a lion.

11.6 The prepositions which express possession:

In English there are some prepositions which denote possession such as *of*, *which*, *without*.

85) He is a friend *of* mine.86) A man *with* a long black beard.87) A beard *without* a moustache is like a violin *without* a bow.

Similarly in Arabic the preposition /?alla:m/ denotes possession .

88) /?al manzıl <u>lı</u> ?aħmad /
* The house for Ahmed. The house is for Ahmed.

11.7 Prepositions which denote causative:

In English there are some prepositions which denote causative such as *out of, to, because of.*

89) She acted *out of* spite.90) *To* my surprise, no body replied to the advertisement.91) She lost her job *because of* her age.

Similarly in Arabic, there are some prepositions which denote causative such as /mɪn/ , / <code><code>San/</code> , /<code>fi:/</code> , /<code>?alba/</code> , / <code>?alla:m/</code>, /<code>kai /</code> .</code>

92) /ma:ta mm ?al χaʊf /.
* died he from fright.
He died because of fright.

93)/dʒi?atʊ <u>San</u> maʊSid/. * Came I to appointment. I came according to a former appointment.

94) /qottla Salı <u>fi:</u> saıja:rah / .
* Killed Ali for a car. Ali was killed because of a car.

95) /qottla <u>br</u>ðanbihi /
* Killed he by his sin. He was killed because of his sin.

96) / ð ahabtæ <u>Ir</u> ?ataSallam/ * went I to learn. I went to learn

97) / dʒi?ato kai ?azu:rak/
* Came I to visit you. I came to visit you.

11.8 Prepositions which express an accompaniment.

Language in India <u>www.languageinindia.com</u> 9 : 7 July 2009 Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, Ph.D. Candidate A Comparative and Contrastive Study of Preposition in Arabic and English 61

In English the prepositions with and without express accompaniment.

- 98) I would like a steak with a green salad.
- 99) You must go without me.

Similarly in Arabic, there are some prepositions which denote accompaniment such as /fi:/ , /?ıla/, /?alba/.

100) / χaradʒa ?al ?ami:r <u>fi:</u> maʊkıbıh/
* Went out the prince with his procession. The prince went out with his procession.

101)/dʒalastʊ <u>21la</u> 2abi/. * Sat down I with father my. I sat down with my father.

102) /biStoka ?ad da:r <u>bi</u>?aOa:Oiha /
* Sold you the house with its furniture. I sold the house to you with its furniture.
11.9 Prepositions which express exception:

In English the preposition *except* denotes exception.

103) everyone was present *except* her.104) I work everyday *except* Friday.

Similarly in Arabic, there are some prepositions which denote exception such as / χala : /, / $\Im ada$: /, /ha: $\Im a$:/

105) /ħađara ?at tʊllab
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\chi ala:}{\underline{Sada:}} \\ \underline{ha:\underline{fa:}} \end{cases}$$
 ta:lıbın/

* attended the students except one student.

The students attended except one student.

11.10 In Arabic there are some prepositions which denote substitute such as /min/, / fan/.

106) /?aSdʒabatka ?alħajah fi: ?almadi:nah <u>mm</u> ?alqarjah/ * admired life in the town from the village. You admired life in the town more than in the village.

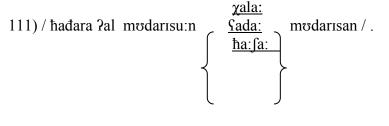
107) /?ʊħðʊr <u>San</u> ?aҳi:k/
* attend instead your brother. You must attend instead of your brother.

11.11 In Arabic there are some prepositions which occur as nouns such as / fan/, / fala/, /mvð / and / mvnðv /.

108) /dʒi?atʊ min <u>San</u> Jami: nih/
* Came I from side right his. I came from his right side.
109) /qafaztʊ min <u>Sala</u> ?al ħa:?it /
* jumped I from above the wall. I jumped over the wall.
110) /ma: ra?atroha monðo jaom ?as sabta/
* didn't see her since Saturday. I haven't seen her since Saturday.

But in English the prepositions do not occur as nouns.

11.12 In Arabic, there are some prepositions occur as verbs such as $/\chi ala$: /, /Sada/ and / ha: Ja/.



* attended the teacher except one teacher. The teachers attended except one teacher.

In English prepositions do not occur as verbs.

11.13 In English there are some prepositions which occur as conjunctions such as *before, after, since.*

112) They had gone home *before* they finished their work.

113) They went home *after* they had finished their work.

114) I have not visited him *since* he returned from Europe.

But in Arabic, there is no preposition that can occur as a conjunction.

12. Conclusion

When the learners start learning a second language, they already know a set of rules to understand and produce language. These rules are, of course, pertaining to the learner's mother tongue. When the learner tries to produce utterances in the second language he is learning, he will apply the rules he already knows. This is referred to as transfer. If the rules of his mother tongue are different from the rules of the second

Language in India <u>www.languageinindia.com</u> 9 : 7 July 2009 Yahya Mohammed Ali Al-Marrani, Ph.D. Candidate A Comparative and Contrastive Study of Preposition in Arabic and English 63

language he is learning, he will make mistakes. This process is described as *negative transfer* or *interference*.

When there are similarities between the rules of mother tongue and second language, there is *positive transfer* which is called *facilitation*. Corder (1978) suggests that the first language of the learner may facilitate the development process of learning a second language by helping him to progress more rapidly along the universal route when the first language is similar to the second language.

So, a contrastive analysis between the first language and the second language attempts to predict the kind of errors that a student is likely to make while learning a second language or a foreign language. If the teacher of any foreign language knows about the various aspects of the learners' mother tongue and the language they are learning as a second language or a foreign language, it will be possible for him to predict the mistakes his learners are likely to commit and correct these mistakes by preparing remedial exercises.

The findings of analysis of the two subsystems of the prepositions in Arabic and English, in terms of their uses, function and meanings revealed that there are similarities and differences between the subsystems of prepositions in Arabic and English. The similarities help Arabic learners to learn a foreign language (English) very quickly and perfectly because the rules of both languages are the same, whereas differences stand as an obstacle in learning a foreign language (English) because the learners try to apply their mother tongue's rules when producing utterances in English. So, contrastive analysis helps to predict the kind of errors that a student is likely to make while learning a second language or a foreign language.

In conclusion, the result of this study showed that the differences and similarities between Arabic and English proved that each language has specific rules, so learners should be aware of these differences in order to avoid possible problems when producing utterances in a second or foreign language.

13. Pedagogical Implications of This Study

Contrastive analysis between the first language and second language is very helpful. It helps teachers to predict the difficulties the learner is likely to encounter. Also it explores both the dissimilarities and similarities between the first language and the second language.

From the differences that emerge from this analysis the teacher can predict the language items that will cause difficulty and the errors that the learner will be prone to make. Also, the teacher can use these predictions in deciding which items need to be given special treatment in the courses that he teaches or the materials that he writes. Also, the teacher can use intensive techniques such as repetition drills in order to overcome the interference and establish the necessary new habits.

This analysis may help teachers and motivate them to describe and analyse the learners' errors and also to prepare remedial exercises to eliminate the errors their students make in the use of prepositions.

For example, Yemeni learners learning English as a foreign language make many mistakes when they use the prepositions *in*, *at*, *on*.

(1) * I will meet you *in* 9 o'clock. (At nine)
(2) * I will meet him *in* the station. (At the station)
(3) * I usually go out *in* Friday afternoon. (On Friday)

This is because Arabic does not distinguish between *in*, *on* and *at*. So it is acceptable in Arabic to use the preposition /fi: / as follows:

(4) /<u>fi:</u> ?as sa:Sah ?at ta:siSah / At nine o'clock.
(5) <u>/fi:</u> ?al maħattah / At the station
(6) /<u>fi:</u> jaʊm ?al dʒʊmaSah / On Friday

The teacher may solve this problem by giving remedial drills to eliminate specific errors from their learners' English. The teacher should give enough drills based on the learner's errors to remedy these errors. These drills should include several types of exercises like exercises of completing the sentence by using prepositions and exercises of selecting the prepositions.

Remedial exercises such as the following can be used effectively in the classroom.

Exercise 1: Complete the sentences using the prepositions at, in, on :

- 1) Ali is his bedroom.
- 2) I will meet you the station.
- 3) Fatma lives Sana'a Street.
- 4) She always goes out Sunday afternoon.
- 5) They went for a walk The park.
- 6) We stayed the Queen hotel.
- 7) She keeps her money her bag.
- 8) They got married 12 March.

Exercise 2: Select the correct preposition to fill the blanks in the following sentences:

- 1) He left London (on, at, in).....9 o'clock (on, in,
- at)..... Tuesday
- 2) I live (on, at, in)Mukalla.
- 3) My father will arrive (on, at, in) July.

- 4) I will meet him (on, at, in) The airport.
- 5) Have you heard this news (on, at, in) The radio?
- 6) He spent his money (on, at, in) Books.
- 7) My sister gets up (on, at, in) Six o'clock The morning.
- 8) The holiday ends (on, at, in) August.

Another problem that may arise as a result of the interference of Arabic is that Arab learners may be confused in the use of the prepositions *between* and *among* when they write / speak English, , because Arabic does not distinguish between the prepositions *between* and *among*. So /barna/ (between) in Arabic is used in speaking of two or more than two.

Let us see the following examples.

- 7) The money was distributed between the students. (Among the Students)
- 8) The property was divided among the two brothers (between The two brothers)

In the above examples, the errors occur as result of the difference between the two languages. These two examples are unacceptable English because *between* in English is used in speaking of two and *among* is used in speaking two or more than two.

- 9) /?al ma:lo wozzisa baina ?attola:b / (more than two)
 - * The money was distributed between the students.
- 10) /?al ma:lo wozzi\$a baina ?al ?axawain/ (two only)
 * The money was distributed between the two brothers.

The teacher may solve this problem by giving remedial exercises to eliminate errors from his or her learners of English.

Exercises like the following can be used effectively in the classroom.

Exercise 3: Put in the spaces below the correct preposition (*among* or *between*)

- 1) The house stands two farms.
- 2) She was standing a crowd of children.
- 3) His house is hidden the trees.
- 4) I saw something The wheels of the car.
- 5) Ahmed is standing Ali and Saleh.

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