

PEOPLES' FRIENDSHIP UNIVERSITY OF RUSSIA  
(RUDN UNIVERSITY)

As a manuscript

**MOUNYA SOUADKIA**

**CONTRASTIVE FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION OF WORD-ORDER  
PATTERNS IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC SENTENCES**

5.9.8- Theoretical, Applied and Contrastive-comparative Linguistics

THESIS

for a PhD degree

Scientific Supervisor:  
Doctor Habil. of Philology  
**Larissa Nikolaevna Lunkova**

**Moscow- 2022**

ФЕДЕРАЛЬНОЕ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННОЕ АВТОНОМНОЕ  
ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ВЫСШЕГО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ  
«РОССИЙСКИЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ ДРУЖБЫ НАРОДОВ»

На правах рукописи

**СУАДКИА МУНИЯ**

**СОПОСТАВИТЕЛЬНОЕ ФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНОЕ  
ОПИСАНИЕ МОДЕЛЕЙ СЛОВОПОРЯДКА В  
АНГЛИЙСКИХ И АРАБСКИХ ПРЕДЛОЖЕНИЯХ**

Специальность 5.9.8. Теоретическая, прикладная и сравнительно-  
сопоставительная лингвистика

**ДИССЕРТАЦИЯ**

на соискание учёной степени  
кандидата филологических наук

Научный руководитель:  
доктор филологических наук

**Л. Н. Лунькова**

**Москва - 2022**

## Table of Contents

INTRODUCTION .....	8
Chapter I. COMPARATIVE AND HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS AS A DISCIPLINE OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES	
1.1. The Basics of Comparative and Historical Language Studies .....	16
1.1.1. Historical Background .....	18
1.1.2. Critics of the Comparative Method.....	23
1.2. Contrastive Analysis in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition .....	24
1.2.1. The Theoretical Foundations of Contrastive Analysis.....	26
1.2.2. Theoretical versus Applied Contrastive Analysis .....	28
1.2.3. Traditional versus Modern Contrastive Analysis.....	28
1.2.4. Strong Claims of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis .....	33
1.2.5. Stages of Contrastive Analysis.....	34
1.3. Modern Typological Studies and Word-order Typology .....	36
1.3.1. The Notions and Definitions of Typology .....	39
1.3.2. Modern Typological Studies .....	42
1.3.3. Typology and Universals .....	44
1.3.4. Some of Greenberg's Word Order Universals.....	46
1.3.5. The Typology of Basic Word Order according to Greenberg's Study .....	47
1.3.6. An Introduction to Syntax.....	53
1.3.7. Typology as an Approach to Classification of Languages.....	55
1.3.8. Word order Typology.....	56
1.4. Word Order in Second Language Acquisition .....	62
1.4.1. Chomsky's Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition.....	63
1.4.2. First Language and Second Language Word Order Acquisition .....	66
1.5. Conclusion to Chapter I .....	69
Chapter II. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF STANDARD ENGLISH AND STANDARD ARABIC	
2.1. Features and Notions of Standard English and Standard Arabic .....	72
2.1.1. The Arabic Language and Arabic Linguistic Studies .....	72

2.1.2. Parts of Speech in Standard Arabic.....	77
2.1.3. The English Language .....	88
2.1.4. English as a Global Language.....	88
2.1.5. The Syntax of the English Language .....	90
2.1.6. Parts of Speech in English .....	92
2.2. Contrastive Analysis of Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentence Structures in English and Arabic.....	95
2.2.1. Comparison and Contrast between Standard English and Standard Arabic .....	95
2.2.2. Simple Sentence in English.....	96
2.2.3. English Simple Sentence Structures.....	100
2.2.4. Types of Simple Sentence .....	102
2.2.5. The Components of the Simple Sentence .....	103
2.2.6. The Sentence in Arabic .....	104
2.2.7. Simple Sentence in Arabic .....	108
2.2.8. Types of the Simple Sentence .....	108
2.3. Word order of Simple Sentence Structures in English and Arabic.....	109
2.3.1. Sentence Types and Word-order Patterns in Standard Arabic.....	109
2.3.2. The Sībawayhian Theory of ‘عامل’ ‘amil (operator) .....	112
2.3.3. The Constituents of the Simple Sentence and their Syntactic Characterization .....	114
2.3.4. Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentences .....	117
2.3.5. Simple Sentence Patterns in English and Arabic .....	123
2.3.6. Typical Simple Sentence Patterns in English and Arabic .....	124
2.4. Conclusion to Chapter II.....	131
<b>Chapter III. WORD-ORDER ERRORS IN ENGLISH-ARABIC TRANSLATION</b>	
3.1. The Concept of Translation .....	132
3.2. Standard Arabic Word-order.....	137
3.3. English Word-order in Simple Sentence.....	140
3.4. Errors in Translation in Word-order .....	144

3.4.1. The Concept of Error .....	146
3.4.2. Errors in Word order of English-Arabic Translation .....	147
3.5. Conclusion to Chapter III.....	151
GENERAL CONCLUSION .....	152
REFERENCE LIST .....	154

## List of Tables

<b>Table 1.</b> <i>Typological Classifications of Basic Word Order of the Position to Qualify Adjective in Relation to Noun</i> .....	49
<b>Table 2.</b> <i>Exclamative Structure</i> .....	73
<b>Table 3.</b> <i>Interrogative Structure</i> .....	74
<b>Table 4.</b> <i>The Cases in Arabic Nouns with their Ending Inflections</i> .....	78
<b>Table 5.</b> <i>The Number and Cases of Arabic Nouns with their Ending Inflections</i> .....	79
<b>Table 6.</b> <i>Verbal Voices in Arabic and their English Equivalents</i> .....	80
<b>Table 7.</b> <i>Perfect and Imperfect Forms of the Arabic Verb كتب- يكتب (to write)</i> .....	84
<b>Table 8.</b> <i>Locative Prepositions in English and Arabic</i> .....	87
<b>Table 9.</b> <i>Roles and Functions of Sentence Constituents</i> .....	100
<b>Table 10.</b> <i>Examples of Possible Word-order Patterns in Standard Arabic</i> .....	119
<b>Table 11.</b> <i>The Order of Words in Russian and their Equivalence in English</i> .....	135
<b>Table 12.</b> <i>Cases of SVO and their Equivalence in English</i> .....	139
<b>Table 13.</b> <i>Cases of VSO and their Equivalence in English</i> .....	140
<b>Table 14.</b> <i>VSO and SVO in Arabic and their Literal Translation into English</i> .....	143

## Figures and Schemes

<b>Figure 1.</b> <i>The Common English Sentence Components</i> .....	98
<b>Figure 2.</b> <i>The Components of an Arabic Sentence</i> .....	106
<b>Figure 3.</b> <i>The Fundamental Elements of a Sentence</i> .....	106
<b>Scheme 1.</b> <i>Sentence Divisions in Arabic</i> .....	104
<b>Scheme 2.</b> <i>The Process of Translation according to Munday</i> .....	133

## INTRODUCTION

Word-order classifications of languages has always been a magnetic linguistic issue; many believed that to analyze variations in languages, the differences that occur in word-order sentence structures must be taken into account. A comparative-contrastive account of languages is an effective approach to find out the gaps and explain the types.

In typological descriptions, it is natural to discriminate languages into types according to their basic order of the positions of the subject, the verb and the object in a sentence. There are languages that appear to show no basic order by any reasonable criteria, where the ‘subject’ and ‘object’ relations themselves seem challenging, both that there is no existing criteria to classify them cross-linguistically and that some languages might not have such relations *en masse* [Newmeyer 2003: 69].

### **The relevance of the study.**

Prior to the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) area of linguistic study as it is known nowadays, scholars from the 1940s to the 1960s established the systematic comparison of two languages through contrastive analyses. They were driven by the thought of the ability to point out the similarities and differences between specific native, or source languages (NLs or SLs) and target languages (TLs) due to the fact that it would work as a more effective technique in language leaning. [Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 118]. In this respect, Charles Fries (1945), one of the prominent applied linguists, declared:

“The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner” [Fries 1945: 9].

### **The degree of scientific development of the research problem.**

During the 1960s, Contrastive Analysis (CA) became a major field of study in modern linguistics, when it was structural linguistics and behavioral psychology the dominant idea of language learning. CA came into focus through the work of Robert Lado in his “*Linguistics across Cultures*” in 1957, which shed the light at the necessity of contrasting two or more language to understand various linguistic phenomena.



Lado's ideas led to the emergence of the basic concepts of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) [Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 119]. Furthermore, Lado declared that "those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" [Lado 1957: 2]. Correspondingly, U. Weinreich (1953) affirmed:

"The greater the difference between two systems, i.e. the more numerous the mutually exclusive forms and patterns in each, the greater is the learning problem and the potential area of interference" [Weinreich 1953: 1].

In Modern functional-typological linguistics, all scholars approve that it was Joseph Greenberg's seminal paper in 1963 that established the basis for modern functional-typological studies in linguistics. Greenberg (1963) provided a six-way classification of the world languages in terms of the relative position of their subjects, verbs, and objects: VSO, SVO, SOV, VOS, OSV, and OVS. Greenberg added that the huge majority of languages have several variant orders but a single dominant one. He also pointed out that of the six orders, only three that appear to be dominant. The other three do not appear at all, or are extremely rare, are VOS, OSV, and OVS. According to these criteria, Greenberg's universals occur [Greenberg 1963: 77].

The influence of Chomsky's theory of language acquisition during the early 1960s has led first language scholars to analyze the speech of children acquiring English as an L1. These scholars wished to describe their subject's language performance through writing grammar: a set of rules that could work as a tool to explain the children's produced utterances. This effort was to agree with Chomsky's belief that language was a product of rule formation rather than of habit formation [Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991: 125]. Additionally, Chomsky also presupposed that individuals have a special innate predisposition to generate the rules of the target language from the input to which they were exposed. As soon as they are acquired, these rules would help learners to produce and understand new utterances, utterances they would neither have comprehended nor have created if they were limited to imitating input from their environment. Chomsky (1965) added:

"A grammar of a language purports to be a description of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence. If the grammar is, furthermore, perfectly explicit

- in other words, if it does not rely on the intelligence of the understanding reader but rather provides an explicit analysis of his contribution - we may (somewhat redundantly) call it a generative grammar” [Chomsky 1965: 4].

Hence, the present doctoral thesis **aims** at investigating the comparative-contrastive account of two languages, Standard English and Standard Arabic, which belong to two different language families, from a typological point of view and based on the concepts of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis in order to draw the key distinctions between the two languages, specifically in terms of their syntactic systems – their word-order patterns of simple sentence structures.

### **The Specific Objectives of the Research Paper:**

1. Describe the theoretical foundation of contrastive analysis;
2. Provide an account of linguistic typology and universals of language;
3. Draw a distinction between Standard English and Standard Arabic;
4. Focus on word-order patterns of simple sentence structures of English and Arabic;
5. Highlight the importance of cross-linguistic analysis of languages;
6. Specify the key components of each language and the characteristics of their syntactic structures,
7. Emphasize the significance of contrastive analysis for second language acquisition, translation studies and error analysis;
8. Provide a guideline for further study that involves contrasting word-order patterns in English and Arabic.

Essentially based on the Contrastive Analysis **Hypothesis**, the focus is made on the contrast and comparison of the two basic syntactic systems of English and Arabic emphasizing typological differences of word-order patterns of simple sentence structures. The research paper also demonstrates the evidence of Arabic interference into English as a result of the structural differences between the systems of both languages. This would put the stress on the hypothesis that learners’ prior acquired knowledge affects their performance in L2 (second/foreign language). It is necessary

to point out that such analysis is useful in SLA to explain the difficulties learners are faced with during the learning process. It is also essential in understanding the key differences between the two languages to anticipate and trace errors and avoid them. In the area of translation studies, contrastive analysis and word-order patterns can be used as a guideline to help language teachers and translators to formulate new methods and approaches towards effective second and/foreign language learning.

The objectives of the dissertation work are fulfilled through theoretical and practical research **methods** and **techniques** including comparative-contrastive analysis, description, interpretation, comparative linguoculturological analysis. The main approach to the research comprises the analysis of data obtained in the course material selection and contrastive study of the structures under question.

**The object** of the research is to highlight word-order patterns of simple sentence structure and syntagm in English and Arabic.

**The subject** of the study is to find out similarities and differences in word-order patterns of simple sentence structures in English and Arabic.

**Theoretical and methodological bases** of the present study include theories and general accounts of the following:

1. *In the field of Historical and Comparative Linguistics*: M. Gómez-González, R. Anttilla, R.L. Trask, R. Matasovic, S.M. Doval-Suárez.
2. *In the field of Contrastive Analysis*: B. Yang, C. C. Fries, M.H. Al-khresheh, M.J. Tajareh, R. Lado, S. Luraghi, T.P. Krzeszowski, W.R. Lee.
3. *In the field of Linguistic Typology and Universals*: A. Bell, A. Siewierska, B. Bickel, B. Comrie, J. H. Greenberg, J.J. Song, M.S. Dryer, P.K. Andersen, P. Sgall, W. Croft, W. Ritchie.

4. *In the field of Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition:* A. Neeleman, D. Larsen-Freeman, F. Weerman, G. Gentile, H.D. Brown, M. Saville-Troike, N. Chomsky, V. Cook, W. Klein.

5. *In the field of English and Arabic Studies and Word-order Patterns:* A.F. Fehri, A.M. Alduais, A.M. Mohammad, C. Breedlove, C.E. Eckersley, D.B. Parkinson, D. Crystal, D.L. Payne, F.J. Newmeyer, F.M. Eid, H. El-Shishiny, I. Qalati, J.M. Eckersley, J. Owens, K. Sauter, L.A. Al Suwaiyan, M.J. Qasim, M.M. Momani, M. Verspoor, R.S. Tomlin, Sibawiyah, V. Cantarino, W. Lehn, W.R. Slager, Y. Peled.

6. *In the field of Translation Studies and Error Analysis:* A.M. Khalil, A.R. Khafaji, C.R. Taber, E.A. Nida, J.C. Catford, J. Munday, M. Hemaidia, R. Jakobson, R.S. Al-Jarf, S. Bassnet, S. Saudi.

**The novelty of the research** lies in the descriptive contrast of word-order patterns of English and Arabic simple sentence structures. There is a number of research established which contrasted many languages such as English and German, English with Chinese, Slavic languages and many others, However, a few attempts on comparative and contrastive studies were made involving English and Arabic, particularly word-order patterns of their simple sentence structures. Therefore, the findings of the present research study can be seen as another attempt to describe and discover the syntactic characteristics of the two languages, paving the way for further studies on the topic of word-order, word-order acquisition, and translation studies.

Methods and approaches of comparative and contrastive description, the claims of second language acquisition, translation and error analysis. It involves the pragmatic and syntagmatic approaches of linguistic inquiry. **The data** is collected from various linguistic sources: including the Holy Quran, grammar books, dictionaries, textbooks, online passages, and a few examples found in the language used in everyday situations. Additionally, a number of tables, figures and schemes indicating language properties are also included in the text.

**The main statements** to be defended are the followings:

1. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis seeks to identify the differences between the two languages – English and Arabic in order to understand their linguistic specifics;
2. Worldwide used Standard English and Standard Arabic are two major languages genetically and typologically different that seek to be compared and contrasted to provide a good example of the effectiveness of the Contrastive Analysis;
3. Word-order typology establishes the relationship of linguistic universals and word-order patterns existing among languages of different types, e.g., SVO and VOS;
4. Word-order patterns of simple sentence structures is an essential area of typological syntactic contrastive area between Standard Arabic and Standard English to determine the degree of differences between the two linguistic structures;
5. In translation, word-order errors in Standard Arabic and Standard English represent the evidence that the awareness of differences in word-order patterns in English and Arabic simple sentences can be helpful in avoiding such errors, and ensuring an effective translation.

**The theoretical value** of the study is the structural and syntagmatic description of word-order patterns in English and Arabic simple sentences. The ability to use the contrastive method to compare between the two languages is important to reveal cross-linguistic differences and similarities. Furthermore, the study of linguistic typology, universals and second language acquisition plays a significant role in understanding the theoretical foundation of translation studies and error analysis.

**The practical value** of the study is shown in the prospect of using the presented results for further analysis of English and Arabic in terms of their syntactic structures and word-order patterns. This is most useful as a guideline in the process of teaching a second/ foreign language, cross-cultural variations among the two languages, and translation studies.

The present research paper consists of an Introduction, Three Chapters, a General Conclusion and a Reference List.

## **Dissertation structure.**

**The Introduction** represents the overview of the research topic in which the components of the research paper are highlighted; the theoretical bases are listed; the novelty of the research is revealed; the object and subject of the study are established; the main purpose and specific goals are emphasized; the methods and methodology of the study are pointed out; and the theoretical and practical values are acknowledged.

*Chapter I, Comparative and historical linguistics as a discipline of linguistic studies*, of the paper mainly explores the theoretical background of the topic, focusing on the main theories involved in the study, including comparative and historical linguistics, Contrastive Analysis, as well Linguistic Typology and Universals. In addition to that, chapter one also provides a theoretical comparison and contrast involving the two languages of the study: English and Arabic; highlighting each language and its linguistic characteristics determining the key differences and similarities.

*Chapter II, Contrastive analysis of Standard English and Standard Arabic*, represents the practical part of the dissertation involving a detailed analysis of both Standard English and Standard Arabic based on the Contrastive Analysis and revealing mostly the evidence of the differences and similarities between English and Arabic taken from different linguistic sources. Furthermore, the chapter explores the nature of word-order patterns of both languages and provides examples from both languages to facilitate the understanding of such linguistic phenomenon. The chapter also reviews word-order in second language acquisition.

*Chapter III, Word-order errors in English-Arabic translation*, of the dissertation offers a general account of translation and error analysis and investigates word-order errors in English-Arabic translation.

**The General Conclusion** is provided at the end of the research paper to point out the findings, future viewpoints and suggestions for further investigations on the topic. A Reference List is shown to indicate the sources used in the research paper.

In relation with the topic of this research, a list of published works on the study of word-order patterns was established:

*Comparative Study of Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentences in English and Arabic.* (VAK, 2017);

*Contrastive Analysis of Word-order Patterns in English and Arabic Simple Sentences.* (Conference, 2018);

*An Analytical Study of Word order Patterns in the Standard Arabic Simple Sentence.* (VAK, 2020);

*Online English Newspaper Headlines as Media Linguistics Phenomenon (An Attempt of Linguistic Description).* (VAK, WoS, 2020).

# **CHAPTER I: COMPARATIVE AND HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS AS A SUB-DISCIPLINE OF LINGUISTIC STUDIES**

## **1.1. The Basics of Comparative and Historical Language Studies**

Every language worldwide is defined by three types of structural aspects: universal (characterizing all or the majority of languages), typological (characterizing only a particular group of languages; a language type) and individual (characterizing only a single language). In order to highlight the previously mentioned aspects, comparative and contrastive analysis of languages it is necessary. Comparing or contrasting two or more languages, which is not a new technique, but it is a key method used in different disciplines of linguistics such as, comparative-historic linguistics (emphasizing the genetic kinship of languages and their development); areal linguistics (studying languages that belong to a specific geographical area in spite of their genetic relationship emphasizing their mutual influence upon one another); typological linguistics (analyzing the similarities and differences found between languages, as well as classifying them according to their types); and finally, contrastive linguistics, though it has not yet found its final spot in the linguistic system of disciplines. Some argue whether contrastive linguistics belongs to general or special linguistics, synchronic or diachronic. Furthermore, the similarity between contrastive linguistics and comparative-historic linguistics is that both of them compare and contrast languages, however, the purpose of the comparison and contrast is different. On the one hand, comparative-historic linguistics aims at defining the degree of kinship, the common origin of languages, regenerating the proto-language (the common parent language), in addition to defining laws according to which this development followed. On the other hand, contrastive linguistics focuses on studying the similarities and differences in structures of various languages [Krzyszowski 1990: 11]

Tomasz P. Krzyszowski (1990) observes that this field of language study serves under various names. While the term contrastive linguistics is often used in modern linguistics, other common terms involve: cross-linguistic studies, confrontative studies, contrastive studies, contrastive analysis, and contrastive grammar. Although the first



four terms are often used correspondently and in a general sense, meaning any type of comparison and contrast between language aspects, contrastive analysis can mean one of the particular steps taken by a linguist carried out a contrastive study between two languages. Next, contrastive grammar is generally seen as a result of contrastive studies: a bilingual grammar emphasizing similarities and differences among languages [ibid:12]. Moreover, Gómez-González and Doval-Suárez (2005) pointed out that as the above terms are most utilized with reference to synchronic linguistics, the term comparative linguistics is used more or less entirely for diachronic analysis of languages which are genetically related [Gómez-González & Doval-Suárez 2005: 21].

In linguistics, comparative and historical linguistics are often coined together as one field of study, even though they differ noticeably according to their objectives and approaches. Comparative linguistics involves the scientific study of language from a comparative standpoint, which helps compare and classify languages. The most important feature in language comparison is to find out the common aspects languages have with one another, whereas the classification of languages is important in finding out the significant characteristics governing the various classes of languages. Comparative linguistics compares and classifies the different languages in respect to three basic principles: genetic, typological and areal. According to the genetic principle, languages can be classified into different language families, the existence of a single ancestor which is known as the proto-language of that family is also involved in the genetic principle of classification. According to the areal principle, languages can be classified in accordance of the area where it is apparent they built up common linguistic elements due to their mutual contacts. Lastly, according to the typological classification, languages are classified into different *language types*, which refer to the set of languages that share some typological characteristics in respect of their forms and structures [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

Historical linguistics involves the historical study of language development and change. The results of the study are applicable to comparative linguistics, due to the fact that only by taking into consideration the history behind the development of

languages, one can comprehend the real reason behind the common features these languages share together.

Sharing these common features can be explained by the following reasons:

- 1) These languages originated from common source, referring to genetic relatedness of languages;
- 2) These languages affected each other in periods of mutual contact, referring to areal relationship of languages;
- 3) These languages failed to share the aspects that would be the reason of violation of some basic and non-obvious principles which decide the structure of a probable human language, referring to typological relatedness or belonging to the same language type [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

### **1.1.1. Historical Background**

Ancient classical grammarians shared some remarkable contrastive acknowledgements about the grammars of both Greek and Latin; however, they did not acknowledge or show any intention in comparing languages analytically. The main explanation for this was that the Greeks and Romans believed that the study of language was not based on some theoretical account, involving explanation, but rather on the basis of practical examination, which focused on providing grammatical descriptions of the written language utilized by culturally significant authors. As a consequence, the study of languages which were considered less valuable; often referred to as barbarians' languages, was not involved in the linguistic studies conducted by classical grammarians. It was not until the late middle Ages that the interest in vernacular languages spoken in Europe was awakened with the emergence of comparative approaches towards these particular languages. It was Dante Alighieri (1265-1321) who first attempted to classify the languages of Europe, in his *'De vulgari eloquentia'* (*'On the Vernacular Speech'*), Alighieri evidently made a distinction

between Greek, on the one hand, and the Slavic, Germanic, and Romance language, on the other; he was convinced that languages change over the periods of time and that differences in dialects develop as a result of changes which appear in different areas where a single language is used. Moreover, in classifying the European languages, Dante used the words for ‘yes,’ whereas, Giuseppe Scaligero (1540-1609) used the word for ‘God,’ to classify the European languages into ‘deus-languages’ (referring to Latin and Roman languages), ‘gott-languages’ (referring Germanic languages), ‘boge-languages’ (referring to Slavic languages), and Greek, in which the word for ‘God’ is ‘theos.’ Nevertheless, Scaligero believed that these groups of languages shared no mutual connection with one another, which he referred to as ‘matrices.’ Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz (1646-1716) was almost able to recognize the primary relatedness of Indo-European languages of Europe, most of which he categorized as ‘Celto-Schytian’ [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

In the Renaissance period and during the 17<sup>th</sup> and early 18<sup>th</sup> century, numerous researchers wondered about ‘the original language of humankind.’ In addition to Hebrew, which was seen as the clear selection, many other choices for that position were established, including Chinese (by Webb, in 1669) and Dutch (by Goropius, in 1569). These assumptions had a positive influence that led the scholars to become aware of the diversity in languages and the pervasiveness of linguistic change and development. During the Reformation and Counter-Reformation periods, the tendency towards the collection of data about the languages that exist around the world was significantly encouraged by publications of grammars and dictionaries of several languages in that period. For instance, in 1587, the first Basque grammar was published, in 1586, the first Polish grammar was also published, and the first grammars of the American and Indian languages (Nahuatl, Quechua, and Guarani) were published in 1547, 1560, and 1595 respectively. Additionally, during the 18<sup>th</sup> century, another major contribution in data accessibility to non-European languages was due to the encyclopedic movement. In his compendium *Mithridates*, Johann Christoph Adelung (1732-1806) collected essential data about several hundred of the world’s

languages [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

During the 18<sup>th</sup> century studies in Sanskrit, the language learned in India at that time, became acknowledged in Europe as a language to be studied and learned. The credit for such interest was through the work of Christian missionaries in India, for instance the French Pierre de Coeurdoux, or the Croat-Austrian Filip Vezdin (a.k.a Paulinus a Sancto Bartholomaeo, 1748-1806), who was the one to publish the first European grammar of Sanskrit. On the other hand, several academics had assumed that the similarities between the main European languages are the result of contact among them; the noticeable similarities of basic words of Sanskrit with their synonyms involved a different explanation in the classical languages. Thus, it was not likely that the similarity between words like the Sanskrit pitar ‘father’, mātār ‘mother’, and bhrātār ‘brother’ with the Latin words pater, mater, and frater could have resulted from borrowing. Soon after, William Jones (1746-1794) pointed out that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and many other languages that are known in the present day as Indo-European, had “sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists.” In 1786, Jones gave a lecture in front of the Asiatic Society in Calcutta, which widely spread in Europe, where he also focused on the similarities between Sanskrit and the classical languages were not limited to the morphological similarity in words, but also expanded to grammar.

Moreover, in 1816 the German linguist Franz Bopp (1791-1867) utilized the connections between the verbal systems of Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and many other Indo-European languages to account for their genetic relations, and then later on Jakob Grimm (1785-1863) established the sound connections that exist between the consonants of Germanic and those of the Indo-European languages. These connections, which was later referred to as ‘Grimm’s law,’ consist of the regulation that the voiced stops in Latin and Greek correspond to voiceless stops in Germanic language, whereas the voiceless stops in the Indo-European languages correspond to Germanic voiceless fricatives, for instance, Latin decem and Greek déka "ten" completely match up with the Gothic taihun. All of these words came from Proto-Indo-European \*dek'm

(unidentified forms are conventionally noted with an asterisk \*). Prior to the publications of Grimm and Bopp, the genetic relatedness of the Uralic languages (Finno-Ugric and Samoyed) was first demonstrated by the Hungarian scholar Sámuel Gyarmathi (1751-1830). At the same time, the comparative investigation of many language families was conducted through the use of the same approaches which were used in the study of Indo-European linguistics. These families include the Semitic languages (nowadays known as a branch of the Afro-Asiatic family), it was Friedrich von Schläzer who identified and gave the name in 1781, and Dravidian family of languages which was proposed by Francis W. Ellis in 1816, but proved to be an official genetic family by Robert A. Caldwell in 1856. All of those scholars employed the same methodologies as Grimm, Bopp, and the first Indo-European scholars [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

During the 19<sup>th</sup> century, searching for the genetic relatedness among languages of the world went on without any interruption. Through the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, by Joseph Greenberg's classification of African languages into just four genetic groups, namely Afro-Asiatic, Niger-Kordofanian, Nilo-Saharan, and Khoisan languages, many of today's agreed upon language families in the world were discovered. Nevertheless, the most significant development in the methodology of historical and comparative linguistics increased in the studies involving Indo-European languages. Throughout the 1860s, August Schleicher (1821-1868), influenced by the evolutionary biology, established the tree-diagrams of genetic relationships of languages into comparative linguistics; in his model, languages that are genetically related are pointed out as nodes on a genealogical tree, in whose the root is the Proto-language of that language family. Additionally, Schleicher first attempted the reconstruction of the Indo-European Proto-language through the application of the comparative approach. The project of Schleicher gave some positive results that can be observed in the fact that he even came up with a fable in the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European language. Nevertheless, Schleicher's reconstructions are rejected in modern days, or carefully revised. Another model was introduced by Johannes Schmidt (1843-1901), who emphasized that limits

between descendants of a Proto-language are continuously changing, because linguistic advancements spread quickly like waves, never stopping at exactly the same limits, therefore, Schmidt's model was often referred to as the wave-model of genetic relatedness [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

An integration of these two theories should be probable, leading to the preservation of the consistency and other useful concepts of the Comparative method. However, the simple family tree of languages was substituted with a wave-inspired theory. Depending on the wave theory, each time a language changes somewhere within the system and this spreads to neighboring groups of speakers. The spread of the change from one group of speakers to another can then be compared to a 'wave' which extends far from its center when a new aspect is maintained through a field. These waves are separate from one another, and are not certainly nested. Similarly, an improvement aimed at a limited group of dialects can be accompanied by a following one aiming at a bigger group. Moreover, every occurrence of language change describes its own isogloss; which means a (occasionally) geographically adjoining territory, represented on a map, in which the improvement spread beyond idiolects and established. In a linguistic range described by mutual accuracy towards adjoin dialects; the normal situation is for these isoglosses to frequently interconnect, instead of being fixed.

It is agreed that many modern-day languages can historically originate from the constitutional diversification of what was formerly a single language, with no need to address some other external aspects like contact or mixture with other languages. For instance, the internal diversity among modern Romance languages could be to a great extent justified by a series of internal disintegration, initially proceeding from a homogeneous variety of spoken Latin. Whereas, aspects connected to contact – substrate, superstrate and adstrate effects including non-Romance languages – did not play their role, a considerable proportion of Romance history could be reconstructed as internal diversity influencing inherited linguistic components. Additionally, many language families, distinct from Romance one, the parent language is not affirmed but

solely theoretical; the reconstruction of historical plots that lead to modern languages is therefore the aim of coherent study and the weighing down of competing theories, depending on a logic comparison of the languages attested. This is commonly known as the comparative method which was originally established by the German Neogrammarians in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Up till this day, the comparative method is considered the most outstanding technique in the reconstruction of language families' history [Francois 2014: 162].

### **1.1.2. Critics of the Comparative Method**

In linguistics, the comparative method was criticized due to the fact that it had basis upon an ambiguous genealogical metaphor. During the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century, the German linguist August Schleicher introduced his model of the 'family tree' into comparative linguistics. Schleicher's genetic tree-model has also been criticized due to the assumption that it simplifies the actual complexities involved in the development of different languages [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.12.2019)].

Clearly, there is neither evidence that new languages came to being from a common parent language nor an assumption that the common parent language lives on through a period of time, rather unchanged, and then dies. It is not difficult to identify the incompatibility of these biological terms. Nevertheless, it is no less misleading that languages originated from the same parent language will deviate, never to unite again, through some period of time. This supposition is constructed into the comparative method as it usually applied, and however, there are a lot of obvious cases of agreement in the development of well-documented languages. For instance, in England the dialects are quickly disappearing and are similar in grammar and vocabulary nowadays than they were not long ago. It is believed that they have been greatly influenced by Standard English. Similar phenomenon, replacing nonstandard or less prestigious forms of a language with forms borrowed from the Standard language or dialect, has been in use in various places at different times. Thus, it is important to highlight that

with both divergence and convergence in the diachronic development of languages: divergence happens when contact between two speech communities is reduced or broken, while convergence happens when the two speech communities stay in contact and when one is dominant in political or cultural aspects.

## **1.2. Contrastive Analysis in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition**

In comparative linguistics, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (or commonly referred to as CA, or CAH) is a field of study that focuses on comparing two or more languages in order to find out the similarities and differences between them, for both theoretical and external purposes. The hypothesis believes in language universals; it states that the basis of comparison implies the existence of common linguistic aspects between languages. In comparative historical linguistics, CA has been used as a device to determine linguistic genealogy, while in typological linguistics to generate language taxonomies, in translation theory to analyze equivalence problems in translation in order to form bilingual dictionaries. At the turn of the 20th century, CA witnessed a number of groundbreaking studies with mainly theoretical emphasis. It is believed that contrastive linguistics obtained its momentum in the 1940s and 1950s in the United States, while scholars at that time attempted at developing new, efficient and reasonable foreign language teaching methods. Furthermore, the first supporters of the contrastive analysis theory claimed that effective language teaching methods could be created through achieving a scientific explanation of the language to be taught by making a sufficient comparison with the learner's native language. During the 1960s, contrastive analysis went through a period of fast advancement and evolution, especially in the United States where the early precise and wide formation of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was first introduced by Robert Lado in 1957 in his *Linguistics across Cultures*. Many regard *Linguistics across Cultures* as the main reason that started the CA movement in language teaching in the first place. Lado (1957) admits that the level of difference between the two languages corresponded with the level of difficulty. Nevertheless, contrastive analysis focused on the similarities



rather than the differences that exist between languages, due to the fact that such information is beneficial for language teaching. Through the use of methods from structural linguistics, Lado arranged the system for comparing the different language components: phonology, grammar and vocabulary, as well as the ways these analyses can be applicable in different syllabus and material designs, methodologies and testing [Tajareh 2015: 1106].

Additionally, Lado also emphasized the necessity of contrastive analysis of cultures. As a result, Lado's strategies were most flourishing in the area of pronunciation, but rather less flourishing in the description of grammar and lexis, and least flourishing in examining cultures. In the 1960s, CA was used in the empirical study of language universals for the purpose of classifying languages by their structural differences and similarities. In American contrastive analysis of the 1960s, a sequence of major analyses in contrastive linguistics was performed between English and other languages, whereas in Europe many contrastive studies were performed rather afterward. However, the attention towards contrastive analysis soon faded away, due to the fact that the empirical goals were never perfectly accomplished. The results of some study were never published in the United States and what was left behind was uncertainty toward CA among many linguists which remained to the modern day. The skepticism related to the utility of studies in contrastive analysis develop primarily from the failure of structurally oriented contrastive studies to deal with difficulties present in foreign language teaching, other than that it was also because contrastive orientation had been connected with behaviorism, principally in regard to the rule of transfer in language learning and language use. Furthermore, when the concept of transfer came into focus, the concept of the influence of the native language (L1) on second/foreign language learning could not be welcomed either. Another reason for the collapse of CA in the United States was the fast expansion of generative linguistics which made linguists more attracted to universals than in linguistic differences between languages. Nevertheless, around the 1970s and 1980s, contrastive analysis was broadly used in many countries in Europe, specifically in Eastern Europe, and during the early 1990s, there were apparent indications of revived interest in the field of the study. From

that time and forward, the quick advancement in automatic data and information technologies paved the way for new perspectives for contrastive analysis studies in linguistics [ibid: 1106-1107].

### **1.2.1. The Theoretical Foundations of Contrastive Analysis**

Up until the late 1960s behaviorism controlled the linguistic field, as a school of physiology, behaviorism appeared from empiricism, which states that experience is the key to all knowledge. The contribution of behaviorism was in the assumption that human behavior is the totality of its smallest parts and components, and this leads to the belief that learning a language means acquiring all of its discrete units. To put it differently, the process of learning a language is the formation of a set of language habits. From the behaviorism point of view, the notion of habit formation is important in discovering errors that may occur in language acquisition. Furthermore, a certain habit is formed after a certain stimulus takes place and which in turn becomes related to a certain response on regular basis. The relationship between a stimulus and a response, positive or negative is the one that greatly decides the appearance of errors. Structuralism agrees with behaviorism by preserving that in order to learn old habits must be changed while new habits must be established; if old habits come in the way of acquiring new habits, then errors emerge. This process is known as *interference*. Thus according to behaviorism, interference of the native language is the main reason of errors in second language acquisition. Also, interference is the subclass of a more broad process referred to as *language transfer*. Transfer is a broad term which describes the transmission of earlier performance or knowledge to subsequent learning. Positive transfer happens when the previous knowledge positively adds to the learning process, when the prior point is accurately used. Negative transfer happens when the previous knowledge does not benefit the learning process; this is considered the interference where prior knowledge interferes with the acquisition of new knowledge. In second language teaching, the role and effect of native language interference on the target language have always been under focus [Tajareh 2015: 1107]

It has always been obvious that native language interference is absolutely the clearest source of error among second language learners. The occurrence of linguistic interference has been so strong that contrastive analysis perceived learning a second language as entirely engaging the overcoming of the effect of the first language. Apparently, any person is prone to use any prior knowledge or experience s/he has had with the native language in order to help learn the second language. Occasionally, the native language can be transferred in a negative way, and this leads to difficulties in second language acquisition. However, the native language can also be transferred in a positive way, where the mother tongue of a second language learner helps facilitate the learning process. Recently, the term interference is being substituted by another term called *cross-linguistic influence* (CLI) to avoid any connections to behaviorism. CLI is an umbrella term used to refer occasions in which one language influences another due to some certain circumstances [ibid: 1107-1108].

Second or foreign language teachers as well as classroom researchers strongly claim that the first language (L1) greatly affects the learning of the second/or foreign language (L2, or FL) in the classroom. On the other hand, in this area of study, linguists' main concern is to decipher and explain the effect L1 has on L2 learning process, which is known as *interlingual influence*, and to differentiate that influence from that of cognitive, developmental, and learner-specific variables. Nevertheless, when its strategies and theories came into focus, gaps in the groundwork appeared. To begin with, rivals pointed out that Contrastive Analysis Theory not only over-predicted non-existent errors but also under-predicted visible errors. Furthermore, errors were just the result of the developing nature of learners' intralingual system rather than from an interlingual source. Also, learners from different linguistic backgrounds showed similar order of acquisition and this can be explained through the 'creative construction' process, as well as L2 habit formation. This led to the conclusion that classical contrastive analysis might only provide a corresponding, but not an overall analysis for such a complex process [Al-khresheh 2016: 330-331].

### **1.2.2. Theoretical versus Applied Contrastive Analysis**

As is known, there are two principle types of contrastive analysis: theoretical and applied. There is some confusion between the purposes of each type which often resulted in evaluating the results of theoretical study against applied purposes, or else theoretical study has been used for the objectives of language teaching. This obviously resulted in an increased doubt about the effectiveness of contrastive analysis. On the one hand, theoretical contrastive analysis is responsible for defining the similarities and differences between the languages compared together. In addition to that, many efforts are made at presenting sufficient representations for cross-linguistic contrast and at deciding the language components that are most effective for the comparison and the way it should be performed.

Generally, the arrangement of languages also includes to the information about the characteristics of each language or about the linguistic analysis. Moreover, system-oriented contrastive linguistics can appear on the basis of any type of applicable data. It also uses quantitative materials, which can be greatly helpful in creating possible statements about elements which appear in similar contexts in the two languages. On the other hand, the purpose of applied contrastive analysis is to establish knowledge that can be useful in other language domains, such as language teaching, translation studies, interpretation and bilingual education. Usually, this type of contrastive analysis has been basically connected with the recognition of possible problems in using the learner's target language. Furthermore, early applied contrastive analysis focused mainly on predicting the difficulties facing learners in language acquisition.

### **1.2.3. Traditional versus Modern Contrastive Analysis**

The main focus of traditional contrastive analysis was on code linguistics. As it is practically not possible to contrast every language that exist in the world, contrastive analysis proceeds from the description of certain aspects or phenomena in the two languages. These aspects involve a variety of linguistic categories, rules, realizations of semantic concepts, various language functions, and even pragmatic categories and

rhetorical issues. Nevertheless, traditional contrastive analysis basically tries to remain within sentence boundaries. Again, these aspects are put together based on translation equivalence. The next step is to compare and contrast the two language systems to find out the key similarities and differences. When outlining one linguistic system to the other, a number of statements can be made concerning probable appearances of certain deviation of structures in learners' interlanguage and a hypothetical hierarchy of difficulty is identified, this is called the prediction stage. In most of the time, the following stage is the verification one where the contrastive analysis examines the predicted errors on a number of learners. Nevertheless, the traditional contrastive analysis was opposed in terms of the concept of equivalence. It is necessary to point out that there are no texts that belong to two different languages as being fully equivalent whatsoever.

Any communication form occurs under culturally relative circumstances, and any form of texts can be similar due to the fact that they represent some particular communicative events. Therefore, this makes them relative in some other sense as well, for instance, hypothetically speaking, two extremely specialized technical or medical documents can be to some extent closer to one another than, for instance, a fictional text and its translation to another language. This is somehow more complicated than the question of equivalence in spoken contexts and discourse. Given the fact that numerous studies had resulted in the belief that the outline of the language codes have confirmed to be inadequate for applied purposes, current contrastive studies agreed to a dynamic approach in which many psychological, sociological, and contextual features as well as taking into consideration the purely linguistic ones. Thus, in modern contrastive linguistics, the theory and methodology adopted from linguistics has been supported with the ones which came from other disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, social psychology, neurology, cultural studies, ethnography, anthropology and some other related fields of study to the analysis such as pragmatic patterning, cognitive mechanisms and information processing systems.

Additionally, traditional and modern contrastive analysis also differ from one another in that traditional CA the language learner had almost totally forgotten in much

of what had been pointed out about the success or mostly failure of contrastive analysis from an applied standpoint. Nowadays, it is visible that a direct setting together with the two linguistic systems not respecting the level of analysis is too plain and cannot simply create appropriate information to meet the objectives of language teaching. Another reason is that there is too much difference in the performance of the learner in order to refer to linguistic phenomena alone. Therefore, modern approaches to contrastive analysis are more oriented towards participants where the objectives of the language users and the communicative process are accounted for. The use of language is essentially found on the bases of internal categories of rules and structures, thus, language users examine linguistic phenomena that they have acquired or prefer to examine. A language learner could hear, and therefore generate a specific language element, rule, or structure that may differ from the teacher's expectations because the learner's perception is not controlled by some patterns adopted for teaching from a theoretical or pedagogical viewpoint.

In order to understand the learners' difficulties in language leaning, it is essential to understand how they feel, their attempt to hear and what they actually hear, the structures they are able to recognize, and how these structures are not similar in their native language. From the point of view of learning a language, all of this is important in contrastive analysis. In modern contrastive linguistics, the linguist no longer must formulate the examples in the same pattern it used to be formed. It is currently possible through the use of corpora, to find examples by means of automatic searches. The advancement in computer technologies made it easy to perform contrastive studies on linguistic aspects in any context by using computerized corpora. Thus, new approaches are likely to develop in contrastive discourse analysis, contrastive rhetoric and contrastive pragmatics. In parallel, several fields of syntax, semantics and lexis might also profit from the accessibility of these systematic corpora. This may also lead to the development of some new theoretical techniques towards contrastive analysis studies [Tajareh 2015: 1109].

Contrastive analysis can be used in second/foreign language learning, this use can be based on the following five assumptions:

- 1) The key source of difficulty and appearance of errors in the learning process is interference from the native language of learners;
- 2) These difficulties arise mainly due to the fact that there are differences between the mother tongue and the target language;
- 3) When the differences between the two languages are great, this means more problems will occur in the learning process;
- 4) Comparing the two languages is a tool of predicting the source of the difficulties and errors;
- 5) This comparison must work as a method in determining what is useful and helpful in the teaching process. [Rustipa 2011:17]

Furthermore, every teacher assumes that not only the influence of the learners' first language which results in interference, but also the similarities that may exist between the two languages can create the problem of interference. One way of predicting errors is by concrete classroom examination by qualified teachers given that a lot of errors are not presented in contrastive analysis of language structures. In addition to this, the teacher believes that understanding a language develops in a slow manner within the learner, and it can differ from one learner to the other, and not as a form of difficulty mastery. In planning and teaching a language course, the language itself must be emphasized instead of focusing mainly on the differences occurring between the languages involved.

Throughout history, linguists worldwide have made many efforts trying to identify one language as the source of all languages. Their investigations intended to analyze world languages, to find out what makes languages similar or different from one another, and how to explain these similarities and differences. On the one hand, linguists led by N. Chomsky, have attempted to examine the common features/aspects of all the languages of the world; Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar (UG). On the other hand, however, other linguists have preferred to investigate languages via the similarities they share together. Essentially, this is called Comparative Linguistics (CL); researchers in this field are concerned with comparing two or more languages,

dialects, etc., to discover similarities between/among them. Moreover, another approach has appeared in the early 1940s and prospered in the 1960 and over, known as Contrastive Analysis (CA) or as Contrastive Linguistics. The theory of Contrastive Analysis was first introduced by Charles Fries in 1952, but fully explained by the American linguist Robert Lado in 1957, in his book *Linguistics across Cultures*, it is usually identified as Lado's Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) [Alduais 2012a:502]. In the first chapter of his book, Lado states:

“In the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning...those elements that are similar to [the learner's] native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult” [Lado 1957:1-2].

From the statement quoted above, it is apparent that contrastivists (linguists specialized in Contrastive Analysis) believe that contrasting and analyzing two languages must be done through concentrating on the differences between them due to the fact that they are the key cause of the difficulties in learning second and/or foreign languages.

When Robert Lado developed his hypothesis of Contrastive Analysis in the late 1950s, it was mainly for the purpose of analyzing the key differences that can be found between two or more languages in order to describe and explain the difficulties and potential problems that face language learners in the process of acquiring the second/foreign language(s). During that period, two major theories dominated the field of language studies: behaviorism and structuralism (also known as structural linguistics). In behaviorism, behaviorists believed that any individual is able to learn languages through habit formation (i.e. stimulus-response reinforcement). According to structuralism, a language is learned through mastering its different grammatical structures.



#### **1.2.4. Strong Claims of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis**

In the area of language teaching, contrastive analysis presented some strong claims which are identified as the contrastive analysis hypothesis (or CAH). Deeply rooted in the concepts of today's behaviorism and structuralism, CAH argued that the attitude towards second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system, and that a scientific, structural analysis of the two languages involved would adopt a classification of linguistic contrast between them which allow linguists and language teachers to foresee the difficulties and problems that can face a language learners. This can be outlined as follows:

Difference between L1 and L2 → interference of L1 into L2 → difficulty in learning L2 [Tajareh 2015: 1110].

It was during that time that structural linguistics methods and approaches were regarded as reasonable, such as Fries' slot-filler grammar, would make it possible for a linguist to precisely examine the two languages involved in the study, and to affirm those two languages, and to affirm the characteristics each language has in order to find out the differences between them. As it was acknowledged before, behaviorism added to the belief that any individual behavior is the total of its minimal parts and component, thus, the process of language learning can be explained through the acquisition of all of those distinct elements. Additionally, the theories involving human learning emphasized some aspects interfering with the process of learning, assuming that when no interference could be anticipated, no difficulty would be encountered due to the fact that one can transmit positive features to other parts in a language. The reasonable conclusion from these many psychological and linguistic suppositions was that second language acquisition essentially associated the overcoming of the differences between the two linguistic systems, the native and the target languages.

In 1995, Lado pointed out that one of the distinct claims of contrastive analysis hypothesis is that an accurate contrast of the language and the culture aimed at acquiring with the mother tongue and culture of the learner is necessary for predicting and describing the ways that would create complications in learning, and those that

would not create any. Lado also pointed out that the answer to overcome any trouble in learning second/or foreign language is to thoroughly compare between the native language and the target one. In contrasting the two languages, there are some linguistic similarities that may exist between them; these similar aspects help the learner in the process of the second language acquisition, whereas the differences between the first language and the second one would make the learning process more difficult [Lado 1995]

In the process of learning a second language, a large number of students begin with discovering the similar and different features that the target language has with their first language(s). They start comparing and contrasting the two languages to better understand the new knowledge, they try to find ways to help them overcome the problems that may cross their paths. In most of the times students turn to literal translation of new vocabulary, or use dictionaries to define ambiguous terms. However, most students encounter some complicated problems concerning second language learning that make them struggle to overcome them. Most of these problems are closely connected to grammar conventions, sentence structures, and precisely syntactic difficulties or rules governing word order in sentences. Moreover, students whose mother tongue is somehow very different from the second/foreign language that they are learning, they find it more difficult and time consuming to learn the language effectively; a very common case is when native speakers of Arabic learn English as a second/foreign language.

### **1.2.5. Stages of Contrastive Analysis**

As mentioned before, contrastive analysis can be used to explain the differences and the similarities between the learner's native language and the target language. Knowing the similarities and differences between the two languages is a strategy to understand errors in second language learning. Thus, using the contrastive analysis provides a systemic explanation of the languages involved. Contrastive analysis can be divided to a set of structural processes. There are five stages for composing a systematic

comparison and contrast of any two languages: selection, description, comparison, prediction, and verification. First, a selection of the two desired language must be made, then a formal description of both the first and the second languages must also be prepared; in order to prepare a formal description, a particular theoretical model which could be traditional, structural or transformational, must be chosen. In the description stage, it is necessary to choose the area to be compared and with what, due to the fact that it is somehow hard to contrast every aspect in a system of any language (sound system, words, structures, syntax...etc) therefore the contrast has to be limited to a certain aspect. As soon as the selection is concluded, the chosen linguistic features can then be described [Al-khresheh 2016: 335].

It is necessary to say that the linguistic description of the languages is within the same theory that is the contrastive analysis. The most important area of description has to be on the differences between the two languages involved in the analysis. Next, when the linguistic-chosen components are described, it is essential to compare the structures of the two languages with one another; this stage is referred to as the comparison stage. This stage focuses on the similarities and differences and how they can be compared in form and meaning. In this, the concept 'form' expresses any linguistic unit of any size. It is not possible to draw a full contrast between any two languages without providing a full description of them. The fourth stage is the prediction one in which it is necessary to make a prediction of difficulties that may occur in the process of contrasting the two languages. It is the work of the contrastive analysis to predict the differences and similarities of the languages, and this in turns helps in the prediction of the difficulties. On the basis of the researcher's knowledge, s/he can make a judgment on whether the similarities and differences are the cause of troubles in learning or not. The final stage of contrastive analysis is called the verification stage. In this stage, the scholar must test whether the predictions provided in the prediction stage are correct or not [ibid].

### 1.3. Modern Typological Studies and Word-order Typology

In general, the study, comparison, and classification of languages in accordance with their mutual structural elements aspects, is referred to as Linguistic Typology. *Cross-linguistic typology* can also be used in the same context. In Linguistics, Linguistic Typology is the field of study that is concerned with the analysis of the similarities in structures between languages, despite their history, in order to establish an adequate classification, or typology, of languages, it is also known as typological linguistics [Nordquist (a) URL: <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-linguistic-typology-1691129> (accessed 10.01.2020)]. Simply speaking, linguistic typology is concerned with the analysis of similarities and differences in structures of languages [Velupillai 2012: 15], more precisely, it refers to “the study and interpretation of types” [Pearsall & Trumble 1996: sv]. Therefore, linguistic typology is the study and interpretation of linguistic or language types.

More specifically, it is the study and interpretation of types of linguistic systems” [Velupillai 2012: 15]. Despite the fact that this might include comparing the linguistic features within a language, it broadly includes comparing the linguistic features which exist among different languages. In addition to this, linguistic typology can be both synchronic (comparing languages that are contemporary to one another), and diachronic (comparing languages at different stages of their historical development). Typologists became more interested in synchronic typology than diachronic typology; however, both are equally crucial and complementary to one another [Croft 2003:232ff].

Linguistic typology was recognized as a field of linguistic study in the works of August Wilhelm Schlegel (1767-1845), who separated the languages of the world into these types:

1. Isolating languages, such as Chinese, where words do not change (no affixes);
2. Agglutinating languages, such as Turkish, in which words consist of a number of affixes, each of which has a single grammatical function;

3. Inflectional languages, such as Latin, in which words can take affixes expressing certain grammatical functions, for instance, the ending –I in the Latin form “vidi” (I saw) expresses the first person, singular, and perfect simultaneously.

This kind of typological classification is referred to as morphological typology since it is based on analyzing morphological structures of words; as a consequence, Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835) is credited with the idea that any structure of a specific language is influenced by the worldview (Weltanschauung) of its speakers. Additionally, he included the fourth morphological type to Schlegel’s taxonomy, known as the incorporating languages, involving Inuit (a language spoken in Eskimo). In such languages the distinction between a clause and a word is vague, due to the fact that, for instance direct objects can be ‘incorporated’ into the verb. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Edward Sapir (1884-1939) thoroughly revised the morphological classification of languages. Contrastively, early language typologists categorized languages from ‘primitive’ to ‘perfect’ (they considered the Indo-European languages as being the most perfect of all), Sapir was the one who freed linguistic typology from judgments in the value of languages, treating all languages as equally valuable that reveal significant features of the human mind. At the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Hugo Schuchardt (1842-1928) provided a major movement to the advancement of areal comparison of languages by his outstanding studies of Pidgin and Creole languages [Matasovic URL: <http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf> (accessed 04.01.2020)].

In his book Jae Jun Song (2012) defines Linguistic Typology (LT) as “the study of structural variation in human language with a view to establishing limits on this variation and seeking explanations for the limits (e.g. Mallinson and Blake 1981; Comrie 1989; Whaley 1997; Song 2001, 2011; Croft 2003)” [Song 2012: 10]. Song adds that Linguistic Typology is an approach that developed for the purpose of determining cross-linguistic differences of the world’s languages. Furthermore, Linguistic Typology or also known as language typology as an approach classifies

world languages into different categories based on their mutual components not related to family origin or geographical contact. The classifications are morphological (word structure), syntactic (word order), and phonological (sound patterns) [Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language URL: <http://www.encyclopedia.com/humanities/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/linguistic-typology> (accessed 07.02.2020)].

Word order classifications among languages took place long time ago; many believed that in order to analyze variations in languages, the differences that occur in word order sentence structures must be taken into account. Nonetheless, in language typology limitations found in language variations is also an area of study because with the help of such constraints, it is possible to separate languages into different categories. Based on what was said previously, typologists [Dryer 1996: 1050] (specialists in the field) classified major languages into categories based on their basic order of words: a) SOV languages such as Japanese, Turkish etc., SVO languages including English, Chinese and so on, and VSO languages, for instance Arabic and Welsh. However, the following lines focus on the differences between Arabic and English in terms of their different word order patterns.

The role of linguistic typology is to compare languages for the purpose of discovering the areas of differences that exist among these languages, the extent of these differences, and learning what kind of generalizations can be made taking into account cross-linguistic variations. Due to the fact that languages differ at all levels, linguistic typology studies all levels of language structure, as well as other linguistic aspects such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Typology is often considered as belonging to a triad; historical linguistics vs. contact linguistics vs. linguistic typology. Every one of these three compares languages. However, on the one hand, historical and contact linguistics emphasize similarities in languages that existed due to common origins or areal closeness, on the other hand, linguistic typology investigates similarities in languages due to neither of these, possibly revealing certain general features of human cognition or the universal communicative purpose all languages serve.

Furthermore, in historical and contact linguistics, empirical data principally originates from the comparison of languages; whilst these linguistic techniques are used to compare languages which are genetically or geographically related, linguistic typology is based on data from languages which are not related to one another. While historical and contact linguistics are investigating the similarities between languages due to the fact those similarities can become genetic and spread through contact, linguistic typology mainly seeks differences between languages due to the fact that each difference occurring in each language help expand our thought of the limits of cross-linguistic variation. Moreover, linguistic typology is concerned with similarities that exist cross-linguistically because they focus on the limits to this variation; whereas historical and contact linguistics identify differences as a way of discovering what the languages mutually possess [Daniel 2010, 44-45], linguistic typology is also concerned with language homogeneity and diversity, because it studies the variation range that occurs in languages and attempts to find the limitations and order in their diversity [Comrie 1981:30-31].

### **1.3.1. The Notions and Definitions of Typology**

William Croft (2003) suggested that the term typology has numerous of different uses, in linguistics and other fields of study. He mentioned that the most known definition of typology is synonymous with ‘taxonomy’ or ‘classification,’ meaning a classification of the phenomenon under analysis into types, precisely structural types. This definition can be found outside the field of linguistics, in particular, it is the definition found in biology, a field that influenced the linguistic studies during the nineteenth century. A first definition of typology refers to a classification of structural types across languages. This definition states that a language is considered as belonging to a single type, and a language typology is a classification of various languages into different types. This kind of typology is referred to as *typological classification*. During the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the term typological classification

was used to refer to the morphological typology of languages. This definition proposes the essential connotation that the term typology has in modern linguistics: typology involves some *cross-linguistic comparison* between languages [Croft 2003: 1].

A second definition of linguistic typology refers to the study of patterns that appear across different systems of languages. This definition is referred to as *typological generalization*. The patterns occurring in typological generalizations are known as language *universals*. The most common instance of a typological universal is the implicational universal. An example of an implicational universal is the generalization: ‘if the demonstrative follows the head noun, then the relative clause also follows the head noun.’ This example of universal cannot be distinguished or justified through the observation of only a single language, such as English. A specialist should conduct a broad examination of languages in order to recognize that the language type excluded by the implicational universal – namely a language where the demonstrative follows the head noun and the relative clause precedes it – indeed does not exist. The third and final definition of linguistic typology is that typology serves as a method or theoretical scheme in the study of language which differs from previous methods, like American structuralism and generative grammar. This definition suggests that typology works as a method of linguistic theory, more specifically, a methodology of linguistic study that paved the way for various linguistic theories that can be found in other approaches [Croft 2003:1-2].

Often, this kind of typology is known as Greenbergian, in opposition to the Chomskyan linguistic approach. This view of typology is closely linked to functionalism, the view that any structure in a language should be analyzed principally in terms of its different functions (as opposed to the Chomskyan approach which is formalistic in nature). Therefore, typology in this context is usually referred to as the functional-typological approach to language. The functional-typological approach became widely known in the 1970s. There is a correspondence between the three definitions of linguistic typology and the three main stages of any empirical scientific analysis. More precisely, typological classification is the observation of an empirical phenomenon, which is language, and classification of what is observed. Typological



generalization (language universals) is what is formed as generalizations over these observations. Functional-typological method is the construction of explanations of these generalizations over what have been observed. Therefore, linguistic typology is the empirical scientific method of any study that involves language [ibid].

As it was mentioned above, typology is closely related to cross-linguistic variation, more precisely; it analyzes the variety of possible grammatical phenomena that are visible in human languages and tells us about the correlations between these phenomena. Additionally, typology makes attempts at accounting for the frequency and distribution of different grammatical phenomena, as well as identifying where the variation stops, i.e. the reason why certain logical possible grammatical phenomena do not appear (for instance, why there are no languages with basic word order numeral-adjective demonstrative-noun in the noun phrase, as in *three big there dogs*). Furthermore, Joseph H. Greenberg's seminar on language universals in 1966 paved the way for linguistic typology to become one of the most important branches of linguistics, and during the last few decades, linguistic typology has developed into an independent field of linguistic study [Rijkhoff 2007: 1].

The scientific analysis in the field of linguistic typology is based on three main stages: classification, generalization, and explanation [Croft 1995:87]. In the first, the linguistic data are systematically gathered for the study and the classified according to specific common features (for instance, structures, forms, meanings, of functions). During the second stage, some generalizations can be formed on the data gathered. For instance, in 1966 Joseph Greenberg categorized languages to the order of nominal Subject (S), Verb (V), and nominal Object (O) in a sentence; this resulted in three main language types: languages with basic order SVO, VSO, and SOV. In the third stage, these generalizations have to be explained. Therefore, Greenberg too provided some theoretical examinations, in which he implied that specific patterns of word order can be justified in terms of the two opposite motivations: 'dominance' and 'harmony' (for instance, he identified the pairs VS – VO – NA – NG and SV – OV – AN – GN as being 'harmonic'), though he included that his theory was not complete and said that

disharmonic patterns and other opposite examples must be taken into account in linguistic typology [Greenberg 1966: 96-104].

### **1.3.2. Modern Typological Studies**

Traditionally, typology was a method used alternatively to fulfill one of the same aims of generative grammar: to identify the range of possible human languages, thus, to identify a universal theory of grammar. During the past decade, linguistic typology has started to develop itself independently from this aim and to revolve from being just a method into an independent discipline, having its separate research scheme, its separate theories and methodologies, its separate problems and issues to solve. Subsequently, linguistic typology turned its focus towards linguistic diversity that led to the establishment of its own purpose which is the development of theories that help describe the reason for linguistic diversity. As an alternative of asking ‘what is possible?’ many typologists wonder ‘what’s where why?’ asking ‘what’s where’ projects universal preferences as well as geographically or genealogical representations. The question ‘why’ depends on the assumptions that (1) typological classifications are developed due to some historical factors and (2) these classifications are connected with other types of classifications [Bickel 2007:1].

For the reason of explaining and assessing typological classifications, typologists established variables that would determine the similarities and differences between languages; these typological variables can be cross-linguistically applied in formal precise ways that involves language-specific structures with clear predictions, and describes an explicit ontology of similarities and differences (that is *tertium comparationis*). As a consequence of explaining the importance of classifying these variables in the world, typologists worked on developing theories related to areal skewing or universal preferences found in different anthropological fields. The variables and descriptive theories established in typology have ontological obligations towards structures that are language-specific through the observation of similarities that can be found between them, however, not similar to the work that addresses the

absolute conditions of any human language, there is no obligatory commitment to universal grammatical entities (that is Universal Grammar – UG) [ibid:2].

Current developments in linguistic typology involve these two: better understanding of the significance of the process of language sampling and, the use of semantic maps in language studies. According to J. Song (2001) and W. Croft (2007), in most recent decades the field of typological research witnessed an increased interest in methods of sampling in order to investigate human languages [Song 2001:17-41; Croft 2007:80-82]. A. Bell (1978) is the first scholar who led the discussion on systematic language sampling, then came Dryer (1989) and Bybee and her followers (Bybee 1985, Bybee et al. 1994). More precisely, Perkins (1989, 2001), Rijkhoff et al. (1992) and Rijkhoff and Bakker (1998) explain various types of language samples and introduce a sampling plan for what they refer to as ‘variety samples’ (in contrast with probability samples or random samples). Moreover, variety samples are specifically practical for explorative research, i.e. when little is identified about the grammatical patterns under study, it is crucial that the sample presents enough level of language variety. Probability samples are used to identify pairs of languages that are correlated to one another or to provide the probability of certain linguistic occurrences among languages which can lead to the creation of problems because they need to be free of genetic, areal, cultural and typological factors [Rijkhoff 2007: 11-12]. In a similar sense, Rijkhoff and Bakker (1998) add:

“...even in a relatively small sample it is practically impossible to avoid the inclusion of languages that are not somehow genetically related or spoken in the same region [note omitted]. Several attempts have been made to deal with this problem (Perkins 1980, Dryer 1989, Nichols 1992), but basically there are only two ways out. Either a small sample is used which, however, is not quite representative with respect to the genetic, areal, and/or cultural diversity (cf. Perkins 1980). Or a large sample is used and genetic, areal, and/or cultural relationships are manipulated so as to meet the requirements on statistical tests (e.g. Dryer 1992: 83). Essentially, however, there does not seem to be a real solution.” [Rijkhoff and Bakker 1998: 265].

More recently, the development in linguistic typology has involved the use of semantic maps, which is based on thoughts already discussed in the field of semantic

studies [van der Auwera & Temürçü 2006: 131-132]. The model of a semantic map is the representation of all the meanings of certain forms that exist in a particular language (usually referred to as ‘marker’), the main idea is that “multiple uses of a marker are related in a systematic and universal way” [van der Auwera & Temürçü 2006: 131]. Due to the fact that the different meanings of certain formal aspects are expected to involve the same (universal) semantic space in all languages, semantic maps are thought of as being influential means used in the analysis of cross-linguistic variations among various human languages [van der Auwera & Plungian 1998: 79].

The description of linguistic diversity cannot be accomplished by only dealing with a few different languages. Throughout history, cross-linguistic comparison represented a constant increase in language samples used by researchers in their linguistic analysis, involving some sample of ancient languages and half-a-dozen languages of the Port-Royal Grammar, as well as a large sample of languages of the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century of the early typological studies. Nevertheless, there is no typological study that could involve all the languages of the world, due to the fact that not all of them have been explained or analyzed. Present-day samples of languages, for instance those used in the WALS project, try to form linguistic diversity on a representative basis, using several hundred languages classified between genetic components and areas. In spite of using representative sampling of languages, it is impossible to exclude the probability that an uncommon but existing linguistic type is not represented. Nonetheless, these samples facilitate the formation of the variation factor and the relative frequency of its various significances [Daniel 2010: 60-61].

### **1.3.3. Typology and Universals**

In linguistics, the study of universals is related to what languages possess in common, whereas the study of linguistic typology is concerned with the areas of differences between languages. Nevertheless, this contrast is not distinct. When languages vary from one another, the variation is not arbitrary, but subject to limitations. Linguistic typology is not only related to variation, but also to the limitations on the variation degree that can be found in human languages. As a

consequence, languages of the world can be divided into different types, for example, typologists usually divide languages into types in accordance to what is known as **basic word order**, often referred to as the order of subject (S), verb (V) and object (O) in a typical declarative sentence. The vast majority of world languages fall into one of the three main types [Luraghi 2017:95]:

SOV (Japanese, Tamil, Turkish etc.);

SVO (Russian, Chinese, English etc.);

VSO (Arabic, Tongan, Welsh etc.)

Based on cross-linguistic analysis, it is possible to study the systematic patterns that exist in human languages. Patterns that frequently recur across different languages help in making typological generalizations and create language universals. Thus, language universals are the properties that can be found in all or most recognized human languages. More importantly, the term language universals, similar to its use in typology, involves quantitative accounts that have basis on cross-linguistic analysis [Velupillai 2012:30]. More precisely, S. Cristofaro (2010) argues:

“Typological universals are empirically established generalizations that describe distributional patterns for particular grammatical phenomena across languages. These distributional patterns are regarded as universals to the extent that they are found in all languages or in a statistically significant number of languages.” [Cristofaro 2010:227].

The Greenbergian approach to language universals surfaced at about similar time as the Chomskyan, during the late 1950s. Nevertheless, the concept of language universals in typology and generative grammar is rather different. Language universals render the idea that there are certain linguistic aspects and features that are beyond the most important definitions of language properties that are true for all languages. Though this idea is modern, it is not considered an obligatory truth or must be shared universally; on the contrary, this was not the point of view that was held before the 1960s. The distinction between the generative and typological methods concerning language universals can be due to the fact that Chomsky and Greenberg have different

views on language and respond to different traditions. Moreover, the generative method was developed as a counterpart of behavioristic psychology, whereas, the typological method was developed as a counterpart of anthropological relativism [Croft 2003:4].

#### **1.3.4. Some of Greenberg's Word Order Universals**

In 1966, Joseph Greenberg's seminal work involved a typological study that used a sample of 30 different languages: Basque, Serbian, Welsh, Norwegian, Modern Greek, Italian, Finnish (Europe); Yoruba, Nubian, Swahili, Fulani, Masai, Songhai, Berber (Africa); Turkish, Hebrew, Burushaski, Hindi, Kannada, Japanese, Thai, Burmese, Malay (Asia); Maori, Loritja (Oceania); Maya, Zapotec, Quechua, Chibcha, Guarani (American Indian). Greenberg stated:

“This sample was selected largely for convenience. In general, it contains languages with which I had some previous acquaintance or for which a reasonably adequate grammar was available to me. Its biases are obvious, although an attempt was made to obtain as wide a genetic and areal coverage as possible. This sample was utilized for two chief purposes. First, it seemed likely that any statement which held for all of these 30 languages had a fair likelihood of complete or, at least, nearly complete universal validity. Less reliably, it serves to give some notion of the relative frequency of association of certain grammatical traits. In this respect, of course, it is not to be taken literally. On some questions I have gone well outside the sample” [Greenberg 1966: 59].

He then proposed a number of universals to word order, he believed that a large part of these universals are implicational; which means that they acquire the form, for instance **x** in a specific language, **y** (another form) is always found. Nevertheless, the opposite, when there is an **y**-form there is always an **x**-form, is not necessarily true. Greenberg added that a whole series of universals are usually presumed in this statement:

“If a language has verb-subject-object as its basic word order in main declarative clauses, the dependent genitive always follows the governing noun” [Greenberg 1966: 58-59].

From this, Greenberg believed that somehow all languages have subject-predicate structures, distinctive word classes and genitive structures. He also realized that in order to identify such phenomena in languages with different constructions, one has to principally make use of semantic criteria.

### **1.3.5. The Typology of Basic Word Order according to Greenberg's Study**

Generally, linguists are familiar with the concept that some languages have a consistent tendency to place elements that modify or limit before modified or limited elements, whereas as others have the opposite tendency. A good example of the former type of languages is Turkish, since it places adjectives before nouns they modify, puts the object of the verb before the verb, the dependent genitive before the governing noun, adverbs before adjectives which they modify, and so on. Furthermore, this type of languages uses postpositions for concepts which are expressed by prepositions in English. The opposite type of this language is Thai, where adjectives follow the noun, the object follows the verb, the genitive follows the governing noun, and there are prepositions. Most languages, such as English, does not belong to this type; similar to Thai, English has prepositions and the noun object comes after the verb. Differently, English is similar to Turkish in that the adjective precedes the noun. In addition to that, in the genitive construction both orders exist, for instance: *John's house*, and *the house of John* [Greenberg 1966: 60].

Greenberg stated that it is suitable to establish a typology containing basic features of word order. This can be referred to as the basic word order typology. Three sets of criteria will be utilized. First, the existence of prepositions as opposed to postpositions; these can be referred to as Pr and Po, respectively. Second, the relative order of subject, verb and object in declarative sentences with nominal subject and object. Most languages have numerous alternative orders; however, they do have a signal dominant one. As a consequence, there are six possible word order patterns: SVO, SOV, VSO, VOS, OSV, and OVS. Out of these six patterns, only three appear

as dominant ones. The other three do not appear at all, or are extremely rare are, VOS, OSV, and OVS. What all these mutually possess is that the object precedes the subject; therefore, the first universal occurs:

**Universal 1.** *In declarative sentences with nominal subject and object, the dominant order is almost always one in which the subject precedes the object.*

[Greenberg 1966: 61].

According to **Universal 1**, it is apparent that SVO, SOV, and VSO order patterns occur most commonly. This is may be due to thematic or pragmatic factors. From the thematic point of view, subjects are often *agents* and objects are often *patients*, agents have more importance than patients, and because it is the action of the agent which leads to something happening to the patient. From the pragmatic point of view, on the other hand, the interest is often in the subject rather than the object, due to the fact that it represents the *agent* and it tends to involve a human. Furthermore, usually subjects represent topics, and topics in most of the times are placed at the beginning of a sentence [Falk URL: <http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/~lcarlson/ctl/WordOrder.pdf> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

The third criterion used in word order classification involves the position of qualifying adjectives relative to the noun; the position of demonstratives, articles, numerals, and quantifiers (some, all, few...etc.), usually varies from that of qualifying adjectives. Here again there exist some variation, nevertheless, most languages have a dominant order pattern. Basic order pattern in which adjective precedes noun is referred to as A here, whereas basic order pattern in which noun precedes adjective is referred to as N here. Therefore, Greenberg found a typology that involved  $2 \times 3 \times 2$ , which means there twelve logical possibilities. He then distributed the sample of the 30 language among these twelve classes to obtain the following **Table 1**, where I, II, and III are VSO, SVO, and SOV, respectively [Greenberg 1966: 61]:



**Table 1****Typological Classifications of Basic Word Order of the Position to Qualify Adjective in Relation to Noun**

	<b>I</b> <b>VSO</b>	<b>II</b> <b>SVO</b>	<b>III</b> <b>SOV</b>
<b>Po-A</b>	0	1	6
<b>Po-N</b>	0	2	5
<b>Pr-A</b>	0	4	0
<b>Pr-N</b>	6	6	0

**Source:** [Greenberg 1966: 61]

Greenberg also mentions that the table (see: **Table 1**) has been set in a way that the ‘extreme’ types **Po-A** is put in the first row while **Pr-N** is put in fourth. Evidently, with respect to these two extremes, I (VSO), and III (SOV) are considered opposite types; while the former greatly corresponded with **Pr-N**, the latter greatly corresponded with **Po-A**. Type II had a strong correlation with **Pr-N** rather than with **Po-A**. Moreover, the position of adjective is less closely connected to types I, II, and III than is the **Pr** and **Po** opposition. Greenberg believes that the table is considered a reasonable representation of the relative occurrence of these variations world widely. He adds that type II is the most frequent, type III more or less common, while type I represents a definite minority. As a result, this provides the assumption that the nominal subject frequently precedes the verb in a vast majority of world languages [Greenberg 1966:61].

Greenberg (1966) added that in taking the genitive order into account, it can be observed that this feature could have been used for typological purposes. The motive behind not using it is due to its high correlation with **Pr/Po**, which is a truth commonly recognized by linguists. It was not selected for the reason that **Pr/Po** in general is slightly more highly correlated with other occurrences. Greenberg (1966) pointed out that from his sample of the 30 languages, 14 have post-positions, and in every one of

them the genitive order is genitive followed by governing noun. Additionally, from the 14 prepositional languages, 13 have the genitive following the governing noun. Norwegian is the only exception, where the genitive precedes. Hence, 29 of the 30 cases correspond to the rule. Thus the following universal occurs:

**Universal 2.** *In languages with prepositions, the genitive almost always follows the governing noun, while in languages with postpositions it almost always precedes.* [Greenberg 1966: 62].

From the data shown in **Table 1**, there is a strong evidence of correlations among the variables that of the twelve possibilities five, or approximately half, are not exemplified in the sample of languages. This is due to the fact that all of these types are either infrequent or non-existent. All six languages of the sample of type I are Pr-N; without taking into account the few exceptions that might exist world widely. While, there are a few clear examples of type I in Pr-A, the mirror image to the frequent type III which are Pr-A. Nevertheless, Greenberg states that there are no examples of either type I/Po-A or type I/Po-N, therefore, **Universal 3** occurs:

**Universal 3.** *Languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional.* [Greenberg 1966: 62].

This universal suggests that if a language is [V NP NP], or any other construction a VSO language follows, it is then [pp P NP]. This represents a simple relation of head-complement order. However, for SVO languages, in which the pattern is somehow the same, this is less true [Falk URL: <http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/~lcarlson/ctl/WordOrder.pdf> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

As it was mentioned before, languages of type III are the polar opposites of type I. Since there are no postpositional languages in type I, it is expected that there will be no prepositional languages in type III. This is true, but there are several exceptions. And because genitive position correlates highly with **Pr/Po**, it is expected that languages of type III normally have GN order. To this there are some few exceptions. However, whenever genitive order deviates, so does adjective order, whereas the corresponding statement does not hold for **Pr/Po**. Therefore the following universals appear:

**Universal 4.** *With overwhelmingly greater than chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional.* [Greenberg 1966: 62].

**Universal 5.** *If a language has dominant SOV order and the genitive follows the governing noun, then the adjective likewise follows the noun.* [Greenberg 1966: 62].

There is a significant distinction which can be seen between languages of types I and III. In terms of verb- modifying adverbs and phrases as well as sentence adverbs, languages of type I place them before the verb so that the verb does not essentially come at the beginning the sentence. Moreover, it seems that all VSO languages have alternative basic orders among which SVO always figures. On the other hand, in a significant part, perhaps a majority, of languages of type III, the verb follows all of its modifiers and if any other basic order is possible, it is OSV. Hence the verb, except possibly for a few sentence modifiers (for example interrogative particles) is always placed at the end in verbal sentences. It is not necessary that all languages whose basic orders involve the verb in the third position should also require all verb modifiers to precede the verb, but this seems to hold empirically. Languages where the verb is always placed at the end can be called the 'rigid' subtype of III. In the present sample, Burushaski, Kannada, Japanese, Turkish, Hindi, and Burmese belong to this group, while Nubian, Quechua, Basque, Loritja, and Chibcha do not. From this, the following universals occur:

**Universal 6.** *All languages with dominant VSO order have SVO as an alternative or as the only alternative basic order.* [Greenberg 1966: 63].

This Universal means that a VSO order pattern is somehow a variant of SVO. The basic theoretical analysis of VSO pattern includes beginning with SVO pattern through changing the position of the V out of the VP in front of the subject. [Falk URL: <http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/~lcarlson/ctl/WordOrder.pdf> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

**Universal 7.** *If in a language with dominant SOV order, there is no alternative basic order, or only OSV as the alternative, then all adverbial modifiers of the verb likewise precede the verb. (This is the "rigid" subtype of III).* [Greenberg 1966: 63].

This universal (Universal 7) states that if V is final, it is final [Falk URL: <http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/~lcarlson/ctl/WordOrder.pdf> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

### 1.3.6 An Introduction to Syntax

Similar to phonemes and morphemes; which represent smaller units in a language that are combined together to form larger unit, that is words, these words are also combined together to construct even larger units, that is phrases, clauses and sentences. Nonetheless, it is not possible that any language would allow these units to be put randomly. For instance, noun phrases in English like *the dog* or *the happy dog* are considered grammatical, however, *\*dog the* and *\*dog the happy* are considered ungrammatical. Hence, the combination of the linguistic elements into meaningful and grammatical phrases, clauses, and sentences is referred to as syntax in linguistics [Velupillai 2012: 277].

**What is a Sentence?** According to the Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language by David Crystal (2003), sentence is considered the most recognized of all grammatical notions. Sentences are introduced to us in the early school years, even before, that eventually develops into each one's linguistic awareness. Furthermore, sentences are used in imagination, speech, writing and so on. Sentences are simple to identify and characterize. According to some traditional grammar, a sentence is defined as: 'a complete expression of a single thought'. However, this *notional* approach is considered rather ambiguous, because there are various sentences that express a single idea, but are not complete, Crystal (2003) provides the following examples:

**Example 1:** *Lovely day! Taxi! Nice one! Tennis?*

Other sentences that are complete, but express more than one idea:

**Example 2:** *For his birthday, Ben wants a bike, a computer game, and a visit to the theme park.* [Crystal 2003: 214]

Contrastively, the **formal** approach to the grammar of the English language attempts to avoid such ambiguity through distinguishing the method in which sentences are formed; the patterns of words they consist of, this approach involves the study of

word order. Thus, word order is considered the central part of syntax, and the majority of English language grammar is based on the rules that govern the order of words, and cluster of words that occur in a sentence. The following examples highlight the impact of order variations on the meaning of sentences; the meaning changes once the order varies.

**Example 3:** *They are outside. /Are they outside?*

*Only I saw Mary. / I saw only Mary*

*Naturally, I got up. /I got up naturally (not awkwardly).*

*Show me the last three pages (of one book). /Show me the three last pages (of three books).*

Furthermore, there are various governing rules which make it impossible for us to position words in specific order. Nonetheless, native language speakers do not think twice about these rules, due to the fact that they acquire them in an unconscious way when they were children [Crystal 2003: 214].

Additionally, Huddleston and Pullum (2002) believed that:

- i. Sentences have parts, which may themselves have parts;
- ii. The parts of sentences belong to a limited range of types;
- iii. The parts have specific roles or functions within the larger parts they belong to. [Huddleston & Pullum 2002:20].

**What is a Phrase?** A phrase usually contain one word, it also contains a cluster of words that are combined together to construct a single syntactic unit. The classification and the syntactic position of the whole phrase depends on the category and the position that the head of the phrase. Therefore noun phrase, for instance, in which the head is a noun (or a pronoun), they follow the positions and functions of a noun in the clause. Similar to noun phrases, verb phrases in which the head is a verb, follow the positions and functions of a verb in the clause [Velupillai 2012:278]. Basically, a component might contain one word as well as many words or even whole clauses; the noun phrase *the woman* contains two components (*the* and *woman*). This noun phrase can become a component in the clause *the woman was crying*, which

contains two components (*the woman* and *was crying*). In addition to that, the whole clause can be a component, consider the example: *the man saw that the woman was crying*. It is believed that languages can have alternative types of phrases other than NPs and VPs, the most common ones are adjective phrases (AP or AdjP), adverb phrases (AdvP), and adpositional phrases (containing either preposition PrepP or postposition Postp).

**What is a Clause?** A clause contains a predicate and the arguments of that predicate to construct a proposition. The predicate contains a verb which is the most important aspect to establish the structure of the proposition. Noun phrases realize the arguments that occupy the structural positions put out by the verb in the proposition [Velupillai 2012:229]. Consider the following example:

The sentence *Beth read the book*, contains the verb *read* (signifies the act of reading) and two arguments, one unit that perform the act of reading (*Beth*) and the other is the one being read (*the book*).

Furthermore, verbs are different in the number of arguments they need; for instance a verb as *read* requires two arguments, whereas a verb as *sleep* requires just one: it is normal to find *Beth slept* which is acceptable, but *Beth read* can only work in certain contexts and would normally need that one identifies what was read (a book, a newspaper, a magazine and so on). Additionally, there are verbs that need three arguments such as the verb *give* as in *Beth gave Mark a book*; the entity of who is giving something (*Beth*), the receiver of the thing (*Mark*), and what is being given (*a book*).

A simple sentence contains only one main clause. An example of this is as follows: *the girl ate the apple*. On the other hand, a complex sentence contains either two or more corresponding main clauses, or a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. A main clause is a clause that can function independently. In contrast, a subordinate clause cannot function on its own but depends on the main clause. Consider the following examples (all the underlined clauses are subordinate):

*The man was angry because he lost his job.*

*The policeman saw that the criminal stole the car.*

*The girl, who was very sad, cried a lot.*

### **1.3.7. Typology as an Approach to Classification of Languages**

One of the most crucial topics which the Prague School typology is concerned with is the analysis of typological aspects in languages. According to V. Bocek (2019), scholars associated with the Prague School typology study have frequently pointed out this as a relevant problem to be worked out [Bocek 2019: 15]. As developed by the Prague School, typology has two main purposes: (1) to classify world languages by means of different types and (2) to study and determine typical parameters of language. Furthermore, Petr Sgall (1995) mentioned that according to the Prague school, a language type is seen as a collection of linguistic properties that can be characterized by certain aspects, he then pointed out the followings:

- i. “the properties are intrinsically connected by probabilistic implications of the form ‘if a language has the property A, then it probably also has the property B’;
- ii. the types are ideal extremes (constructs) not fully attainable by existing languages; the latter come closer or less close to one (or more) of the ideal types;
- iii. properties of different types are combined within the structure of every existing language.” [Sgall 1995: 49].

As an approach to classification of world languages, typology is faced with two other approaches: the genetic approach and the areal approach. In the one hand, genetic classification is an approach which depends on form-meaning correlations between various languages. Greenberg (1957) provides the following description of the genetic approach:

“...is the only one which is at once non-arbitrary, exhaustive, and unique. By ‘non-arbitrary’ is here meant that there is no choice of criteria leading to different and equally legitimate results. This is because genetic classification reflects historical events which must have occurred or not occurred. If the classification is correct, it implies events which did occur. By ‘exhaustiveness’ of a classification is meant that all languages are put into some class, and by

‘uniqueness’ that no language is put into more than one class.” [Greenberg 1957: 66].

On the other hand, areal classification is an approach which depends on the effects of one language upon another and vice versa, and if there is a correlation between these languages. Furthermore, areal classifications are considered arbitrary but within constraints, however, they are neither exhaustive nor unique [Andersen 1983: 1-2]. According to Greenberg (1957), typological classifications depend on “criteria of sound without meaning, meaning without sound, or both” [Greenberg 1957:66]. Typological classifications are considered arbitrary, in which the classes are geographically disconnected [Andersen 1983:2]. Jakobson (1958) provided this summary:

“the genetic method operates with kinship, the areal with affinity, and the typological with isomorphism” [Jakobson 1958: 19].

### **1.3.8. Word order Typology**

Nowadays, word order has become an essential part in the development of modern language typology. This is due to the fact that current typological studies mainly involve the use of data collected from a wide range of various languages. This interest in using such method of data collection has taken its impetus from the famous seminal article of Greenberg that primarily focused on word order typology, not only it discussed performing such language universals and typological study, but also the way to carry out the analysis. Nevertheless, Greenberg expressed his caution towards the consistency of his findings; this was apparent at the beginning of his article where he said: “the tentative nature of the conclusions set forth here should be evident to the reader”. However, Greenberg’s caution towards the results of his study has not been acknowledge by others who have additionally expanded his thoughts; they claimed that generalizations go far beyond anything allowed by the collected data, and efforts have been made to make word order the most important framework in holistic typology [Comrie 1989: 86].



The emphasis of typological comparison is not on the whole set of linguistic properties that are found in languages, but rather on particular linguistic entities. This is referred to as a partial typological comparison of languages as opposed to holistic typology [Luraghi 2017: 97]. For instance, in comparing the basic word order of English and Arabic and concluding that the former is an SVO language while the latter can be both, an SVO and VSO, this means that the contrast involves only a little part of the grammars of the two languages concerning the ordering of Subject, Verb and Object in their simple sentence structures. During the 19<sup>th</sup> century, there was a strong belief that it is possible to achieve a holistic typological comparison between different languages. Since languages were closely similar to biological organisms, and similar to the ability of reconstructing the whole animal skeleton based on a jaw fossil, it is also possible to discover the whole properties of a language on the basis of the analysis of its partial elements. Due to the belief that language represents the “spirit” of a nation or a culture, a lot of scholars assumed that typological knowledge could work as a tool to offer insight into this “spirit” [Luraghi 2017: 97].

**Typological Parameters of Word Order:** one the most important typological parameters of word order is the order of components of a sentence or clause; in fact, some linguists have established it as the basic typological parameter. Originally, the typological parameter represents the relative order of subject, verb, and object in a sentence; this gave rise to six logical possible types, they are as follows: SOV, SVO, VSO, VOS, OVS, and OSV. The vast majority of world languages follow the first three patterns, especially the first two [Comrie 1981:87].

As it was previously pointed out, typologists usually classify languages into several types in terms of their basic word order, referring to the ordering of the basic components in a typical declarative sentence. In modern linguistics, word order typology is considered one of the most important areas of typological differentiations among languages. It has been widely concluded that according to the main order of Subject (S), Verb (V), and Object (O), the most common types of word order patterns include these three [Luraghi 2017:104]:

- 1. SOV (such as Japanese)**

*Watashitachi wa Nihongo o hanasu.*

We Japanese speak

'We speak Japanese.' (English equivalent)

## **2. SVO (such as English)**

He ate the pudding.

## **3. VSO (such as Arabic)**

*Qatala al- malik-u al- malikat-a*

Kill the king the queen

'The king killed the queen.' (English equivalent)

The other possible word order patterns: VOS, OVS and OVS comprise less than 5% of the world's languages. Furthermore, the subject precedes the object in more than 95% of all languages. Actually the subject usually precedes both verb and object, therefore, SOV and SVO are both found in more than 85% of all languages, whereas VSO comprise 9% of all languages [Luraghi 2017:104].

According to Luraghi (2017), there are three reasons the subject usually occurs at the beginning of the sentence in the majority of languages:

- 1) The thematic role of agent tends to precede the thematic role of patient, and the prototypical subject is an agent; i.e. the closer a participant is to the action source, the earlier it is likely to occur.
- 2) The component which is more active is likely to precede components which are less active; in most of the time the subject is human, and humans are considered the most active.
- 3) Information that is more thematic is likely to precede information that is less thematic, and usually the subject is a theme in discourse [Luraghi 2017:104].

According to typological analysis, languages can be different from one another in terms of how their word order patterns are; whether fixed (rigid) or flexible (free). The English language is a good example of a language with a fixed word order – that is SVO. For example a sentence such as *the child stole my money* cannot usually be

expressed as *\*My money stole the child*, *\*Stole the child money* or *\*Stole my money the child* which are considered grammatically not correct and do not follow the rules of the English language. This is due to the fact that the functions of the components of the sentence structure in English are established by the order of words which state that the subject comes before the verb and the object comes after it. In considering the sentence *the dog chased the cat*, one can guess that *the dog* is the subject of the sentence since it comes first, while *the cat* is the object since it comes after the verb. If the position of the two NPs (the dog and the cat) is changed, this gives the sentence *the cat chased the dog*, therefore, *the cat* is the subject and *the dog* is the object [Velupillai 2012: 281-282].

Nevertheless, there are other languages with a flexible or free word order. Standard Arabic is a good example of a language with free word order - it can be both SVO and VSO. Consider the following simple sentence that can be found in Standard Arabic:

اشترى الرجل الجريدة

The order is VSO with the verb (اشترى= bought) at the beginning of the sentence, then followed by the subject (الرجل= the man), and finally the object (الجريدة= the newspaper). The English translation would be: *bought the man the newspaper* (which is incorrect according to the English syntactic rules). In Standard Arabic, VSO is the basic word order, with an alternative SVO order. Thus, the place of the verb and the subject can be swapped in the sentence and the meaning stays the same, the sentence will become: *الرجل اشترى الجريدة*, the subject here (الرجل) comes first then followed by the verb (اشترى). The English translation is: *the man bought the newspaper*.

Another aim of word order typology is to shape the main order of components in languages, which is not as easy to establish as it seems. Principally, to establish the basic word order of a language, simple declarative sentences must be taken into consideration, due to the fact that both arguments of verbs are nominal (which means that they contain a noun and each component that comes with it, for instance *the house*, *the beautiful house*, and so on) and not pronominal. Pronominal arguments can follow word order rules that are different in nominal arguments [Velupillai 2012:283].

Although, all studies indicate that the majority of world languages follow an SOV order more than an SVO order, the order of object and verb are rather random. The difference between SOV, SVO and VSO lies in the tendency that it correlates with the number of other features of word order. A little number of these correlations is considered absolute; however, the tendency is clear. For example, SOV languages have the following word order features:

NOUN+POSTPOSITION

The Turkish phrase: ev**de** (*at home*) (not that the postposition is in bold black)

GENITIVE+NOUN

The Turkish phrase: onun evi (*her house*)

VERB+AUXILIARY

The Turkish phrase: seni **affettim** (*I forgave you*) (the verb is in bold black)

RELATIVE CLAUSE+NOUN

The Turkish phrase: **koşan** adamı görüyorum (*I see the man who is running*) (the relative clause is in bold black ‘**koşan**’ meaning: who is running, followed by the noun ‘*adami*’ meaning: the man).

STANDARD OF COMPARISON+ADJECTIVE

The Turkish phrase: sen daha güzelsin (*you are more beautiful*).

Additionally, VSO languages have the exact opposite word order features, on the other hand,:

PREPOSITION+NOUN

For instance, the Arabic phrase: إلى المدرسة (*to school*)

NOUN+GENITIVE

For instance, the Arabic phrase: بيته (*his house*)

AUXILIARY+VERB

For instance, the Arabic phrase: سوف يذهب (*will go*)

NOUN+RELATIVE CLAUSE

For instance, the Arabic phrase: القطة التي أكلت السمكة (*the cat who ate the fish*)

ADJECTIVE+STANDARD OF COMPARISON

For instance, the Arabic phrase: أجمل من الصور (*more beautiful than the pictures*)

According to studies, there has been a strong claim that SVO languages such as English form an intermediate type; meaning that they sometimes go with SOV languages and other times with VSO. Therefore, English has the following word order patterns:

PREPOSITION+NOUN (*on the phone*)

GENITIVE+NOUN (*John's phone*) or NOUN+GENITIVE (*the phone of John*)

AUXILIARY+VERB (*will love*)

NOUN+RELATIVE CLAUSE (*the man that drove the car*)

ADJECTIVE+STANDARD of comparison (*worse than John*) [Luraghi 2017:104-105].

Studies in linguistics have paved the way for scholars to systematically search and discover the wonders of the human language. The diversity and differences in languages, while attempting to achieve essentially the same goal of human communication, is considered an extraordinary phenomenon. In addition to that, aside from reserves that are parts of the field of sociolinguistics (including: language shift, code-switching, and other cases of language choice), all languages serve the same purpose of achieving human communication. From this, it is necessary to point out that all languages of the world have a mutual nature. To investigate and explain what language have in common is considered the most important aim of any linguistic study. In general, linguistic typology is rather considered as a new and young field of study, becoming an independent branch of linguistics as late as the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Like any other area of linguistic studies, the aim of linguistic typology is to examine and describe human language by systematically analyzing language diversity. Typologists are principally interested in not only linguistic diversity itself but also the limitations and restrictions on cross-linguistic variations of languages. Furthermore, regarding what is verified in the languages of the world, typology seeks to discover what alternatives have never been verified. The basis of typological comparison is on the evidence that linguistic signs (words, structures, etc.) that belong to different languages can be used in similar contexts [Daniel 2010: 66].

## 1.4. Word Order in Second Language Acquisition

**What is Second Language Acquisition?** At an early age, young children start acquiring at least one language, probably their mother tongue (in linguistics L1 referring to First Language). Children acquire their L1 without paying much attention to the different stages and the process of acquisition; they subconsciously and effortlessly acquire the L1. Additionally, the acquisition of another language - namely L2 (Second Language), or commonly referred to as a Target Language (TL), though it can in fact be the third or fourth to be acquired [Saville-Troike 2006:2]. In linguistics this is referred to as SLA (Second Language Acquisition). Some linguists believe that the acquisition of the L2 is similar to the acquisition of the first one, i.e. subconsciously and effortlessly. However, others argue that individuals go through a conscious process similar to the one in the acquisition of other fields. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary defines SLA as "the learning of a second language" [Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary URL: [https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/american\\_english/second-language-acquisition](https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/american_english/second-language-acquisition) (accessed 04.02.202)]. Another definition of SLA is from the Macmillan English Dictionary: "second-language acquisition is the process by which people learn a language that is not their native language." [The Macmillan English Dictionary URL: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/second-language-acquisition> (accessed 04.02.2020)].

Furthermore, second language acquisition (SLA) can be defined in two ways: first, it can be generally defined as a term to explain the learning of a second language (L2). Second, it specifically refers to the name of the theory of the process through which humans acquire a second language. SLA is basically a subconscious process that happens while we focus on communication [British Council URL: <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/second-language-acquisition-sla> (accessed 04.02.2020)]. Similarly, Saville-Troike (2006) says:

“Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to both the study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language” [Saville-Troike 2006: 2]

She adds that any additional language is called a second language (L2), or a target language (TL), which refers to a language that is being formally learnt. SLA covers informal L2 learning that happens every day; in real life situations, formal L2 learning that takes place in educational institutes and classrooms, and L2 learning that happens due to combination of these situations and conditions [Saville-Troike 2006: 2].

#### **1.4.1. Chomsky’s Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition**

The theory of Universal Grammar (henceforth, UG), introduced by the American linguist Noam Chomsky in 1956, is considered one of the most important topics discussed in linguistics. From the 1960s to the 1980s, UG was used in other disciplines outside linguistics like psychology, computer analysis of language and first language acquisition [Cook & Newson 2007: 1]. Originally, the **Syntactic Structures** model obtained its name from the title of Chomsky’s book (1957), which in turn formed the concept of **generative grammar** itself, which focuses on ‘explicit generative’, formal description by ‘rewrite rules’ like  $S = NP + VP$ . This separated rules governing phrase structure which created the basic structures, known as ‘kernel sentences’, as well as transformations that changed these in different aspects through altering them into passive or negative sentences, therefore, they become known as **Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)**. The famous sentence was the product of TGG:

*Colourless green ideas sleep furiously.*

The following sentence was a clear demonstration that syntax is independent of semantics; the sentence is grammatically correct, however, it is meaningless [Cook & Newson 2007: 2]

Chomsky’s UG provided two significant notions:

- 1) It is crucial to focus on **linguistic competence** in language acquisition, or speaker-hearer’s basic knowledge of language. This is different from **linguistic**

**performance** which is speaker-hearer's usage of language in particular environments.

- 2) This kind of knowledge of language surpasses what can be learned from the input an individual receives. This is the **reasonable issue of language learning**, or the **poverty of the stimulus** argument. [Saville-Troike 2006:46].

Chomsky explained that a person can produce a huge number of new word collections, i.e. a language is similar to a system; in speech for instance a person selects a finite number of words from the language and joins them together to generate an infinite number of sentence structures. Chomsky added that any language is full of rules and grammatical structures that help in governing the language, especially syntactic rules that establish word ordering in coherent sentences. Additionally, UG relate to the set of rules that helps people comprehend the sentences they produced when they are unaware how they managed to do so. The main aim of the term is to highlight correct and incorrect grammatical structures in first language acquisition [Chomsky's Universal Grammar URL: [http://thebrain.mcgill.ca/flash/capsules/outil\\_rouge06.html](http://thebrain.mcgill.ca/flash/capsules/outil_rouge06.html) (accessed 05.02.2020)].

Chomsky commented: UG "is taken to be a characterization of the child's pre-linguistic initial state" [Chomsky 1981: 7]. According to Chomsky (1986) UG is a systematic set of principles and parameters with some minor exceptions; the set of principles is universal and can be applied in all languages, while the set of parameters can differ from one language to another; the former is named "core grammar" referring to the general rules that all languages share, whereas the latter is "peripheral grammar" referring to the exceptions in the languages [Chomsky 1986: 150-151]. Moreover, Chomsky came up with the idea that all humans are equipped with a special device inside the brain in order to explain the human ability to produce and invent new language structures and rules, even though they have not been exposed to such forms before. This device is universally known as Language Acquisition Device (or just LAD); this new term shed light at Chomsky's concept of the innate capacity of an individual in acquiring any language. [Gentile 1995: 54].



As is well-known, from the 1950s, Chomsky and his associates have supported the idea that the essence of speaker-hearers' competence in their mother tongue can be explained only by innate knowledge all humans are genetically equipped with. They explained that children manage to acquire a particular language already carrying basic knowledge of what all languages collectively have in common, as well as the set of constraints on how any human language can be constructed [Saville-Troike 2006:47]. Chomsky called this innate knowledge as the **language faculty**, which he defined as: "a component of the human mind, physically represented in the brain and part of the biological endowment of the species" [Chomsky 2002:1]. Thus, UG is what all languages have in common.

Saville-Troike (2006) argued that if this language faculty truly exists, then "its existence would mean that children already have a rich system of linguistic knowledge which they bring to the task of L1 learning." [ibid]. Thus, children do not have to learn this basic system, but instead depend on it in learning new languages. In a similar way, when children acquire the language spoken by their parents and others in their social environment, this necessitates input in that language, the acquisition is possible and successful due to children's build-in ability. One of the most important areas in UG to the study of SLA has been the if this innate knowledge is present for individuals who are learning more languages, and whether the process of L1 acquisition is similar to that in SLA.

Subsequently, in Chomsky's claim, UG works as an important tool for quick and effective language learning including L1 and L2 due to the cognitive nature of UG that states that in acquiring a second language, the acquirer follows the same order of acquiring the first language. From this prospective, Vivian Cook (1985) agrees with Chomsky's claim that UG is innate and which is made up of general grammatical principles with some exceptions as well as the same natural path of acquiring the second language. In the same token, Cook (1985) mentioned that a learner learning the second language can produce or feel that a grammatical structure is not right though he/she has never come across before, can only be explained by the internal capacity of

the mind [Cook 1985 URL: <http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/AL85.htm> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

### 1.4.2. First Language and Second Language Word Order Acquisition

One example of an early principle of Chomsky which assumed that each phrase in each language consists of the same constituents including a head: for instance a noun phrase (NP) must always contain a noun head (N), and verb phrase (VP) must always contain a verb head (V), a prepositional or postpositional phrase (PP) must always contain a preposition or postposition head (P), etc. However, the only variety, or parameter setting, that speakers possess in various languages is **Head Direction**, which means the place of the head in accordance to other phrase constituents. There are only two possible varieties: either **head-initial** or **head-final**. For example, children who are acquiring English as their native language acquire the input that allow them know that English basically has a head-initial parameter setting [Saville-Troike 2006: 48]. The reason for this is that they are exposed, at an early age, to sentences with the following word order:

*Adam (**watched** the film)*

The phrase inside the brackets is a VP, and the head of the VP is **watched** in bold black italics. The sentence is the evidence that the English parameter setting is **head-initial**, due to the fact that the verb *watched* is positioned before the film. Another evidence can be seen in the following example:

*Adam went (**to** the cinema)*

The phrase put between brackets is a PP, and the head is the highlighted preposition **to**. It is also the evidence that English is head-initial in its parameter setting, due to the fact that the preposition is placed before *the cinema*.

Hence, in order to acquire any language, the individual does not only require UG but also evidence about a specific language; for instance, if someone wants to acquire English as a second language, s/he must hear sentences in the English language in order

to understand how the parameters and rules which govern the order of Subject, Verb, and Object to have a grammatical and meaningful sentence structure. Cook (1985) added that according to Chomsky the evidence an individual is faced with can be either positive or negative. On the one hand, positive evidence contains real sentences which can be found in a particular language; by being exposed to sentences like “*the exam was difficult*” or “*Emily wrote a poem*”, a language learner will learn that English has a fixed word order; that is Subject-Verb-Object. Negative evidence, on the other hand, can be direct and indirect. Direct negative evidence involves corrections of a language learner’s errors; for instance, instead of saying “*Emily wrote the poem*”, the learner might say “*wrote Emily the poem*” or “*Emily the poem wrote*”. Indirect negative evidence is the non-appearance of a word, a sound, a structure, a rule and so on in the language the learner is tending to acquire; for instance, a native speaker of Arabic, in which the basic word order of sentences is VSO, will never be exposed to the same order (which is VSO) in acquiring English as a second language; s/he will learn that English is a SVO language [Cook 1985 URL: <http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/AL85.htm> (accessed 06.02.2020)].

S. Pavić (2013) mentioned that the basic word order is considered one of the first rules learned by learners in the acquisition of English as a second language, nevertheless, this statement is true only for simple declarative sentences [Pavić 2013:3]. Other possible word ordering that involves questions (in which an auxiliary inversion rule is in place) and indirect questions are believed to be learned later in the process of acquisition, following the acquisition of the basic word order of simple declarative sentences. In consequence, one of the essential features of SLA is word order acquisition; it is considered a challenge for L2 learners due to the fact that the aspects of the word order of their L1 vary from L2; especially in languages that belong to different language families, having no common history or contact, and so on. Arabic and English present a good example of such variations, specifically in word order in the structure of their simple sentences.

In second language acquisition, word order is a crucial aspect that for learners must understand the differences that exist in word order patterns between their L1 to

ensure the effective acquisition of the L2. In this respect, R. Tomlin (1986) describes word order differences in the following passage:

“The new second language learner often is intrigued as much by word order differences in the new language as by any other feature except, perhaps, phonology. Word order, thus, represents the most overtly noticeable feature of cross-linguistic syntax, yet at the same time it remains a tantalizing problem, both to describe the pertinent facts of word order variability and to provide some explanation for the great diversity one can see cross-linguistically” [Tomlin, 1986:1].

M. Trawinski (2005) discussed the significance of innate mechanisms offered by the innate approach to language acquisition. In referring to the theory of UG led by Chomsky, Trawinski stated that due to UG language learners are able to pick a variety of grammar rules of the language they are exposed to and this leads them to gradually understand and assemble the grammar of that language. UG was developed as an opposition of the behaviourist view of language acquisition that according to it that learners generally acquire language through repetition and habit formation, in contrast, according to innate approaches (including UG), learners acquire the language through the learning of rules governing the language [Trawinski 2005: 12-13].

In acquiring word order in English, a learner must be aware that a sentence as *John spoke rarely to people* is grammatically incorrect and unacceptable due to the fact that according to the grammatical rules, English does not allow an adverb to be put between the verb and its direct object. This cannot be acquired just based on the input for the reason that the input contains only information related to the grammatical norms of the language (this is what was mentioned above as **positive evidence**). Therefore, with UG, Chomsky strongly points out that learners ought to have some prior knowledge of what is grammatically correct and incorrect when learning any language. Moreover, there is a strong claim that certain errors normally do not appear in the acquisition of L1 due to the fact that UG does not allow it [Pavić 2013:3-4].

R Mitchell and F.Myles (2004) stated that the theory of UG suggests:

“that all human beings inherit a universal set of principles and parameters that control the shape human languages can take, and which are what make human languages similar to one another” [Mitchell & Myles 2004: 53].

One of the most crucial principles of UG suggests that languages are structure-dependent [Pavić 2013: 4]. For instance, in going back to word order in English, which is fixed (Subject-Verb-Object), the basic word order in questions changes:

*Jane is coming to the class vs. Is Jane coming to the class?*

*Sam is hungry vs. Is Sam hungry?*

In the same respect, Cook and Newson (1996) added:

“Movement in the sentence is not just a matter of recognizing phrases and then of moving the right element in the right phrase: movement depends on the structure of the sentence” [Cook & Newson, 1996:8].

## **1.5. Conclusion to Chapter I**

In comparing two or more languages it is probable to put emphasis on either similarities or differences. In the process of learning a new language, a learner often emphasizes the differences while neglecting the similarities that exist between his/her native language (usually) and the language s/he is learning (often the second language) when a learner finds several similarities in the language, s/he is amazed due to the fact that s/he does not expect to discover them. On the other hand, grammarians became involved in finding out the features which language possess in common in an early stage of linguistic studies; they believed that in describing and explaining such similarities to language learners, it would probably facilitate the process of second/foreign language learning. During the 19<sup>th</sup> century, historical linguistics was developed alongside the field of comparative historical linguistics with the aim of discovering the common genetic background for whole groups of languages. In addition to this, another area of linguistic comparisons appeared when languages were put together into groups on the basis of characteristics they commonly shared with one another; this area of study is known as typological linguistics. In typology, languages

put together in the same typological group need not be genetically (historically) related [Krzyszowski 1990: 9].

As it was pointed out earlier, in linguistics typology is the classification of languages into different structural types according to specific aspects existing in each individual language. Furthermore, in modern linguistic studies, typology is referred 'cross-linguistic comparison' of world languages. Typology is also closely related to the study of the different patterns that appear across different languages; this is commonly referred to as 'typological generalization', and the different patterns that are found are known as language 'universals' [Croft 2003: 1]. During modern study of language universals and typology, one of the most important roles of word order typology has been the methodological-historical work of Greenberg which emphasized that is possible to come up with essential cross-linguistic generalizations through search for a wide range of human languages though without essentially conducting any abstract investigation and analyses of these languages [Comrie 1989: 96].

## **CHAPTER II: CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF STANDARD ENGLISH AND STANDARD ARABIC**

As is well known, each language specifies its own regulations and methods of study that facilitate our understanding of the way words are formed and joined together to create sentences, phrases and clauses. In linguistic studies, these regulations and methods are known as the grammar of the language they represent. Due to the fact that there are various languages around the world, each belonging to the same or different family of languages, hence, languages which are at least structurally different from one another, used to have different regulations. For native speakers, these rules and regulations are acquired at an early age; when they are in their childhood through a natural and innate process. Furthermore, a native speaker has the ability to figure out if a sentence is likely to appear or not, though he/she might not have the ability to explain the rules governing the occurrence of such sentences and whether these sentences are grammatically correct or not. For a foreign language learner, the acquisition of such grammatical descriptions and rules happens consciously, with the learner being aware of such a process.

The majority of linguists such as Lado (1957), Benathy, Trager and Waddle (1966), and Fries (1972) believe that the most appropriate language teaching material comes from a contrast of the two linguistic systems of those so-called L1 and L2. This may contain the analysis of the vocabulary, grammatical rules, or phonological systems or sub-systems of the languages in question. The classification of linguistic differences and similarities through an accurate comparison of the L1 and L2 of learners may result in an analytical study of the possible problems and difficulties that might occur during L2 learning process and predict the types of errors which often occur in the performance of the L2 learner. According to CAH, the problems of any foreign language acquisition result from the dissimilarities between the native language of the learner and the target language s/he wants to acquire. Many language learners have a tendency to commit the same linguistic mistakes in learning. For the strong version of

CAH, those errors are the result of learners' first language transfer. Moreover, the key task of CAH is to contrast the linguistic structures of both languages in order to point out the areas of differences so that L2 teachers and foreign language syllabus designers could emphasize the content where the two languages differ, and use the necessary tools of reinforcement to clarify the errors [Hemaidia 2016: 85].

## **2.1. Features and Notions of Standard English and Standard Arabic**

Arabic and English are two major languages in the world. On the one hand, in the case of Arabic, it is possibly due to the fact that a large number of the world population speaks it, however more important for being the language of Islam. English, on the other hand, nowadays is the language of international communication or more specifically the Lingua Franca, also the language of technology and academic and higher education even in some Arab countries and other foreign countries in Europe and many regions and countries in this world. Both Standard Arabic (SA) and Standard English (SE) are two of the official languages declared by the United Nations.

### **2.1.1. The Arabic Language and Arabic Linguistic Studies**

From the ancient times, the life of Arabs has been characterized by the investigation of their language. Arabs were interested in studying their language; the basis of such interest was both national and religious [Al-Liheibi 1999:22]. The Arabic poetry was and still is considered to be the most powerful tool representing the art of prestigious language. Arabs were known for their eloquence in speech through the use of poetry. There is a strong belief that poetry was a way that enabled Arabs understand the importance of being one united nation. Arabs were proud of their language and its beauty; they loved writing and learning poetry by heart, they often gathered from different parts of Arabia and many poets recited their own verses in the form of a competition to decide the most eloquent piece of poetry. In addition to poetry, the Arabic language is the language of the Holy Quran, and due to this Arabs became more



aware of their mother tongue because they believed that the language of the Noble Quran and the written style worked as evidence of the high status and the importance of the Arabic language.

Many Arab scholars argued that the grammar of the Arabic language was first founded by Abu al-Aswad al-Du'ali. During the early days of grammar studies, there was a story involving Abu al-Aswad al-Du'ali and his daughter, when one day Abu al-Aswad's daughter made a mistake when she asked her father about the sky, she said:

ما احسنُ السماء / *ma*

*ahsan-u al-sama-i/* (*What made the wonderful sky*), when Abu al-Aswad heard what she said, he thought that she wanted to know what made the sky such a wonderful thing, however, what he thought was not what she intended to mean. Actually, she was not asking a question, she was just admiring the beauty of the sky. Abu al-Aswad's confusion was due to the fact that his daughter had simply made a parsing error [Dayf 1968: 15]. To explain this, Al-Liheibi (1999) provided the assumed structures of the two sentences in the following tables (**Table 2** & **Table 3**) [Al-Liheibi 1999: 23]:

**Table 2**

**Exclamative Structure**

ما / <i>ma</i> / <i>What</i>	In the position of the nominative case as subject of the nominal sentence (مبتدأ <i>mubtada'</i> ), because it means شيء / <i>shay'</i> / (something).
احسنُ / <i>ahsana</i> / <i>Made</i> <i>wonderful</i>	Verb in the past tense; the subject is a hidden pronoun whose estimation is هو / <i>huwa</i> / ( <i>he</i> ) and which is connected to ما / <i>ma</i> /
السماء / <i>al-</i> <i>sama 'a/ the</i> <i>sky</i>	Direct object. The verbal sentence <i>ahsana al-sama'-a</i> is in the position of the nominative case since it is a predicate (خبر <i>khobar</i> )

**Table 3****Interrogative Structure**

ما / <i>ma</i> / <i>What</i>	Interrogative particle in the position of the nominative case in place of the subject of the nominal sentence مبتدأ <i>mubtada'</i>
احسنُ / <i>ahsan-u</i> / <i>made</i> <i>wonderful</i>	Predicate (خبر <i>khavar</i> )
السماءُ / <i>al-</i> <i>sama'-i</i> / the <i>sky</i>	Post-fixed element ( <i>mudaf ilayh</i> ) governed in the genitive case

Abu al-Aswad's daughter's parsing error is what Arab linguists later on called as اللحن /*al-lahn*/ (solecism). The term *lahn* is used by linguists to refer to the mistakes in speaking the Arabic language. The majority of Arab linguists argue that during the pre-Islamic period was characterized by being free from this kind of mistakes and people spoke only correct and natural Arabic before coming into contact with foreigners from other lands [Al-Liheibi 1999: 23-24].

According to modern linguistic studies, the Arabic language is divided into three types: Classical Arabic, Standard Arabic and Spoken Arabic. In short, classical Arabic is usually referred to the language used before Islam, language of poetry, literature and golden ages of Islam and Arabic Sciences. Afterward, precisely after the European Renaissance, a new age has appeared along with a new version of Arabic which has been called Standard Arabic or Modern Standard Arabic. Moreover, what has been called as Classical Arabic is being only used for the Holy Quran and ancient Arabic books. Similarly, nowadays Standard Arabic language is only used in formal states, academic publications, educational materials such as books or articles, news and

broadcasting channels, etc, [Alduais, 2012: 504]. In the Arab world, there are a huge number of dialects/varieties which are in each country. For instance, Yemen's Arabic language is to some extent different from the Saudi's Arabia kingdom Arabic language. Yet, these two Arabic dialects are to a huge extent different from the Moroccan and Algerian Arabic dialects, for this reason, Standard Arabic is being used here as the data of this contrastive study.

The Arabic language is, of course, one of the various languages of the world; it is spoken by a large number of people as a native, second or foreign one. Belonging to the Semitic family of languages, it is characterized by its rich morphology and complex grammar, therefore many linguists, native and foreign (known as Arabists) grew more interested in analyzing the Arabic language to explain the appearance of its various rules and structures. Due to the fact that Arabic is spoken in different places by different people, varieties of the language were developed, for instance the dialect used in countries of Northern Africa (known as Arab Maghreb) such as in Algeria where the dialect (called Maghrebi Arabic dialect) is a mixture of mainly Berber, Arabic, and loanwords from French, Ottoman Turkish, and Spanish, therefore, Standard Arabic is usually the language chosen for investigation [Alduais, 2012: 504].

During the ancient period of Arabo-Islamic studies, Arabic grammar was among the disciplines formulated. Syntactically, grammarians came up with a new significant theory called the theory of 'عامل' 'amil ('operator'). The main purpose of this theory is to specify the rules of cases through different operators known as 'عوامل' 'awāmil ('operators'). The theory of 'amal is considered as the backbone of traditional Arab grammatical philosophy, and as a method used in modern analysis of Arabic grammar. In the late Middle Ages, studies on the Arabic language in general, and on its grammar in particular, were negatively influenced by the decline of Islamic civilization during that period of time. However, the prosperity of Semitic philology in the 19<sup>th</sup> century Europe, paved the way for scholars to develop a notable interest in studying the Arabic language, and analyzing its grammatical structures. Additionally, during this period, these scholars were able to depend on traditional Arabic grammatical discoveries, but it was only in the 20<sup>th</sup> century that the pieces of writing of the traditional Arab

grammarians were really valued. Following the development of modern linguistics through Saussure's structuralism, then later by Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar, and also some other developed approaches in Europe and the United States, similar to other languages, the investigation of the Arabic language and its grammar was also highly influenced. Particularly, these modern theories led to the appearance of new ways for linguists acquainted with the Arabic language, whose main task was to investigate and analyze different grammatical phenomena from the point of view of modern linguistics. Thus, the study of Standard Arabic and its grammar has been developed since the 8<sup>th</sup> century AD through Sībawayhi's *Kitāb*, it has been the focus of study for traditional Arab grammarians, Semitic philologists, Arabists and modern linguists [Peled 2009: xi].

Arabic is the official language spoken in the Arab world (the Middle East, The Arabic Gulf, and North Africa), however, in many countries a variety of Arabic dialects are spoken by people. These dialects differ from one Arab country to another one, and they even differ within the same country. People who speak the same dialect might even find some differences in the way they speak according to their cultural and educational backgrounds. Furthermore, these spoken dialects differ greatly from the Arabic of the Holy Quran, which is commonly referred to Classical Arabic, which is also found in pre-Islamic poetry. The standard variety of Arabic that is the same in all Arab countries is Modern Standard Arabic, it is the language used by all the countries of the Arab world and is taught and learnt in schools, institutes, and universities as a medium of instruction and communication. However, Modern Standard Arabic is not the language of everyday use; it is only used in formal situations such as the press or news broadcasting, speeches, debates, newspapers, books and many others. People use dialects of Arabic in their everyday life and informal encounters to communicate their needs. Modern Standard Arabic and the variety of its dialects are both phonologically and morphologically different from one another, for instance, dialects no longer use Case inflections, forms of duality for pronouns and verbs, and there are some Arabic dialects that do not have the feminine plural inflection for pronouns and verbs [Yateem 1997: 12].

## 2.1.2. Parts of Speech in Standard Arabic

**The Noun in Arabic.** In the Arabic language, there are three main parts of speech: nouns, verbs, and particles. Moreover, nouns are inflected for gender, determination, number and case. In nouns, gender is either masculine or feminine. If the noun is animate, the gender corresponds to natural sex, for example رجل (man), and جمل ('camel') are considered masculine nouns, whereas ام ('mother') and فرس ('mare') are considered feminine nouns. Furthermore, there are a lot of pairs in which one element can be marked as feminine through the addition of the feminine suffix 'تاء' (in English, it is pronounced as /a/), some examples of these pairs:

طالب – طالبة ('student'), معلم – معلمة ('teacher'), سائق – سائقة ('driver'), طبيب – طبيبة ('doctor')

In inanimate nouns, on the other hand, feminine nouns usually consist of a feminine suffix (underlined) whereas masculine nouns are unmarked; for instance: بيت ('house') – masculine, ساعة ('hour, clock') – feminine, جامع ('mosque') – masculine, جامعة ('university') – feminine. Due to the lack of neuter gender in the Arabic language, Arabic speakers usually refer to it by using **he** (هو) or **she** (هي) instead of **it** [Catford et al.1974: 29].

Determination refers to whether a noun is definite or indefinite. The noun is definite if:

- it contains the prefix of the definite article 'ال' (the), e.g. المعلم ('the teacher');
- it is modified by a following definite noun in the genitive, for example, كتاب التلميذ ('the book of the student', or 'the student's book');
- it contains the suffix of a pronoun, for instance, كتابه ('his book');
- it is a proper noun, e.g. لندن ('London'), الجزائر ('Algeria'), عمر ('Omar') and so on.

All other nouns are considered indefinite, with some exceptions, have to contain a suffix sound /ن/ (known as **nunation** in Arabic grammar) (in English, it is pronounced /n/) after the case inflection [Catford et al. 1974:29].

In number, Arabic nouns are three: singular, dual (two items), and plural. The singular form of the noun is not marked, for instance: هاتف (telephone). The dual form of the noun is marked by the suffix 'ان' (/ -ani/) (nominative), for instance: هاتفان (two telephones). The plural of the noun is shown through two forms:

1. Through suffixation 'ون' (/ -un/) for masculine plural nouns and 'ات' (/ -at/) for feminine plural nouns, e.g. مدرسون ('teachers' – masculine), مدرسات ('teachers' – feminine). In the grammar of the Arabic language, this is known as the **sound plural**.
2. Through the internal vowel change, for instance: مدارس ('school') – مدارس ('schools'), مكتبة ('library') – مكتبات ('libraries'), هاتف ('telephone') – هواتف ('telephones'), etc.

The second form of Arabic plural nouns is somehow similar to the English plural patterns: foot-feet, mouse-mice and so on. In Arabic, they are known as **broken plurals**; both forms are frequently found in Arabic plural nouns.

Arabic nouns have three main cases: nominative 'Nom' (ending in /u/ sound), genitive 'Gen' (ending in /i/ sound), and accusative 'Acc' (ending in /a/ sound). Similar endings are present in broken plural. Here are the following examples represented in (Table 4):

**Table 4**

**The Cases in Arabic Nouns with their Ending Inflections**

		Singular			Plural		
		المدرسة 'the school'			المدارس 'the schools'		
Case	Nominative	Genitive	Accusative	Nominative	Genitive	Accusative	

	المدرسة	المدرسة	المدرسة	المدارسُ	المدارس	المدارسَ
<b>Inflection</b>	ُ /-u/	ِ /-i/	َ /-a/	ُ /-u/	ِ /-i/	َ /-a/

However, the dual and the dual sound plural have two endings, one for nominative and one for non-nominative (**Table 5**):

**Table 5**

**The Number and Cases of Arabic Nouns with their Ending Inflections**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Cases</b>	<b>Singular</b>		<b>Dual</b>		<b>Plural</b>	
		The teacher	<b>Ending inflection</b>	The two teachers	<b>Ending inflection</b>	The teachers	<b>Ending inflection</b>
<b>Masculine</b>	Nominative	المعلمُ	/-u/	المعلمَانِ	/-ani/	المعلمونَ	/-una/
	Genitive	المعلمِ	/-i/	المعلمَيْنِ	/-ayni/	المعلمينَ	/-ina/
	Accusative	المعلمَ	/-a/				
<b>Feminine</b>	Nominative	المعلمةُ	/-tu/	المعلمَتَانِ	/-tani/	المعلماتُ	/-tun/
	Genitive	المعلمةِ	/-ti/	المعلمَتَيْنِ	/-tayni/	المعلماتِ	/-tin/
	Accusative	المعلمةَ	/-ta/				

**The Verb in Arabic.** Verbs in Arabic tend to have infection in the following: 1) voice, 2) tense, 3) mood, 4) person, 5) number and 6) gender.

**1) Voice:** two voices – Active and Passive. The Active voice is when the subject of the verb is the performer of the action, or agent, while the Passive voice is when the subject is the receiver of the action, or patient. Voice is presented by internal vowel change, as seen in the example shown in (**Table 6**):

**Table 6**

**Verbal Voices in Arabic and their English Equivalent**

	<b>Active voice</b>	<b>Passive voice</b>
<b>Example in Arabic</b>	كَتَبَ التلميذُ الدرسَ	كُتِبَ الدرسُ
<b>Sound form</b>	/kataba al-tilmidu al-darsa/	/kutiba al-darsu/
<b>English equivalent</b>	<i>the student wrote the lesson</i>	<i>The lesson was written (by the student)</i>

One particular aspect of the passive structure in Arabic is that the agent cannot be expressed in it, the above example illustrate the fact.

As to the verbal grammar category of tense:

**2) Tense:** two tenses are found in Arabic verbs: Perfect and Imperfect. The Perfect tense is inflected by suffixation, while the Imperfect one is inflected by suffixes and prefixes, e.g.:

لَعِبَ /**laeiba**/ (*he played*)                      يَلْعَبُ / **yaleabu**/ (*he plays*)

The inflections are in bold in the example (Latin transcription), in Arabic they can be distinguished through sound.

The Perfect tense expresses actions that are completed, for instance, an action or a course of actions in a narration. It is the answer to the question: **what happened?**



خرج الرجل من المنزل لكن نسي غلق الباب

*(The man went out of the house but he forgot to close the door).*

In addition to that, the Perfect tense also expresses prior actions or precedence, when the action was finished before the statement regarding it was formed, e.g. أكل اليوم ('he ate today'). In this, اليوم ('today') establishes the time frame as the present time; the Perfect tense demonstrates that the action has already been finished. In order to express finished actions in the future, the form 'سيكون قد' (*will have*) can be added :

سيكون قد نام بعد قليل

*(He will have slept soon)*

The Imperfect tense, on the other hand, expresses anything but an action or a course of action in a narration; its basic function is to describe a present state of things or situation through answering the question *how is the situation?* The following types of actions can be expressed by the Imperfect tense:

**a) habitual action:**

هي تفعل ذلك دائما

*(She always does this)*

**b) progressive action:**

يلعب في الحديقة

*(He is playing in the park)*

**c) prediction (often with the prefix 'س-' /sa-/ (will):**

سيسافر الأسبوع القادم

*(He will travel next week)*

**d) generalization:**

يجيد السباحة

*(He is good at swimming)*

**e) stative meaning:**

Qualitative verbs (verbs denoting quality: to become/to be) have stative meaning in the Imperfect:

يسهل علي فعل ذلك

*(It is easy for me to do that)*

The Arabic Perfect and Imperfect tenses are extremely similar to the Past and Present tenses in English; though there is one clear exception: English Past tense does not have only one completed action, such as in *He read yesterday*, but also implies habitual action, such as in *they always went walking in the afternoon*. It is important to compare between the Past tense of the Arabic verb عرف /araf/ and the English *to know*. English *I knew* is progressive in meaning, and equivalent to *I had knowledge of...*, however, the Arabic عرفت /araftu/ means *I came to know* and can be translated into English as *I learned, found out, realized* and rarely as *I knew*. The Arabic equivalent to the English *I knew* is كنت اعرف /kuntu aarif/ (\*was knowing or I used to know).

**3) Mood:** in Arabic only the Imperfect tense expresses different moods; there are four moods which are shown by suffix change:

- 1. Indicative mood:** indicates facts (or assumed facts), it can be indicated by the inflections /-u/ in some forms and /-na/ in others:

المغني سيغني و الجمهور سيستمع

*(The singer will sing while the audience listens)*

- 2. Subjunctive mood:** there is no declaration of facts in the subjunctive but denotation of an action with no regard to completion/non-completion or past/present/future tense; it can be indicated through the inflections /-a/ instead of the indicative /-u/, whereas those with /-na/ in the indicative lose it in the subjunctive:

أريد ان يقرأ هو و ان يسمعوا هم / 'urid 'an yaqraa huwa w an yasmaeuu hum/

*(I want him to read and them to listen)*

- 3. Jussive mood:** it consists of two meanings: the first one is **indirect command and negative imperative**, while the second is **completed action**; it is similar to the perfect tense, and inflected as the subjunctive but with the except that the infection /-a/ is omitted:

**Indirect command:** often following 'لـ' /li-/:

لنشاهد العرض الآن

*(Let's watch the show)*

**Negative command:** after 'لا' /-la/:

لا تبتعد كثيرا!

(Don't go far!)

**Completed action** is achieved after the negative 'لم' /lam/ (hasn't) and in conditional clauses after 'ان' /in/ (if):

لم يدخل بعد

(He hasn't entered yet)

ان تقرا اقرأ

(If you read, I'll read)

**4. Imperative mood:** this mood makes a direct command, it has the same inflections as of Jussive mood with the exception of the omission of prefixes, consider the example:

ادخلوا! ادخلي! ادخل!

(m.pl.) (f.s.) (m.s.)

Other verbal categories of Arabic are:

**4) Person:** the inflection of verbs are based on three persons through adding suffixes in the perfect tense:

أنا ذهبتُ (I went) /ana dahabtu/      انتم ذهبتم (you (m.pl.) went) /antum dahabtum/

And by adding prefixes in the imperfect tense:

أنا اذهبُ (I go) /ana adhabu/      أنت تذهب (you go) /anta tadhabu/

**5) Number:** there are three numbers in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> persons (1<sup>st</sup> person has dual) shown in verbs:

هو يذهبُ (he goes)/howa yadhabu/

هما يذهبانِ (they (two) go) (m. dual) /homa yadhabani/

هم يذهبونَ (they go) (m.pl.) /hom yadhabuna/

**6) Gender:** verbs are either masculine or feminine in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> persons; the 1<sup>st</sup> person is common gender, e.g.:

أنا اذهبُ (I go) /ana adhabu/

أنت تذهبُ (you go) (m.s.) /anta tadhabu/

أنت تذهبينَ (you go) (f.s.) /anti tadhabina/

The following table (**Table 7**) a summary of the above representing the sample paradigm of the verb *to write* in Arabic (كتب- يكتب) [Catford et al. 1974:43]:

**Table 7**

**Perfect and Imperfect Forms of the Arabic Verb كتب- يكتب (*to write*)**

		كتب- يكتب /kataba-yaktubu/ <i>to write</i>				
		Perfect (completed action)	Imperfect (contemporary action)			
			Indicative	Subjunctive	Jussive	Imperative
<b>SINGULAR</b>	<b>1</b>	كتبْتُ /katabtu/ <i>I wrote</i>	أكتبُ /aktubu/ <i>I write/I'm writing</i>	أكتبُ /aktuba/ <i>I will not write/I'm not writing</i>	أكتبُ /aktub/ <i>I haven't written</i>	
	<b>2 m.</b>	كتبْتَ /katabta/ <i>You wrote</i>	تكتبُ /taktubu/ <i>You write/ you're writing</i>	تكتبُ /taktuba/ <i>You will not write/ You aren't writing</i>	تكتبُ /taktub/ <i>You haven't written</i>	اكتبْ /uktub/ <i>Write!</i>
	<b>2 f.</b>	كتبْتِ /katabti/ <i>You wrote</i>	تكتبينَ /taktubiina/ <i>You write/You're writing</i>	تكتبينَ /taktubii/ <i>You will not write/You aren't writing</i>	تكتبينَ /taktubii/ <i>You haven't written</i>	اكتبِي /uktubii/ <i>Write!</i>
	<b>3 m.</b>	كتبَ /kataba/ <i>He wrote</i>	يكتبُ /yaktubu/ <i>He</i>	يكتبُ /yaktuba/	يكتبُ /yaktub/	

			<i>writes/ He's writing</i>	<i>He will not write/ He isn't writing</i>	<i>He hasn't written</i>	
	<b>3 f.</b>	كَتَبَتْ /katabat/ <i>She wrote</i>	تَكْتُبُ /taktubu/ <i>She writes/ She's writing</i>	تَكْتُبُ /taktuba/ <i>She will not write/She isn't writing</i>	تَكْتُبُ /taktub/ <i>She hasn't written</i>	
<b>DUAL</b>	<b>2 m.</b>	كَتَبْتُمَا /katabtuuma/ <i>You wrote</i>	تَكْتُبَانِ /taktubaani/ <i>You write/you're writing</i>	تَكْتُبَا /taktubaa/ <i>You will not write/ You aren't writing</i>	تَكْتُبَا /taktubaa/ <i>You haven't written</i>	اَكْتُبَا /uktubaa/ <i>Write!</i>
	<b>2 f.</b>					
	<b>3 m.</b>	كَتَبَا /katabaa/ <i>They wrote</i>	يَكْتُبَانِ /yaktubaani/ <i>They write/They're writing</i>	يَكْتُبَا /yaktubaa/ <i>They will not write/They aren't writing</i>	يَكْتُبَا /yaktubaa/ <i>They haven't written</i>	
	<b>3 f.</b>	كَتَبَتَا /katabataa/ <i>They wrote</i>	تَكْتُبَانِ /taktubaani/ <i>They write/They're writing</i>	تَكْتُبَا /taktubaa/ <i>You will not write/You aren't writing</i>	تَكْتُبَا /taktubaa/ <i>They haven't written</i>	

<b>PLURAL</b>	<b>1</b>	كُتِبْنَا /katabnaa/ <i>We wrote</i>	نَكْتُبُ /naktubu/ <i>We</i> <i>write/We're</i> <i>writing</i>	نَكْتُبُ /naktuba/ <i>We will not</i> <i>write/We</i> <i>aren't</i> <i>writing</i>	نَكْتُبُ /naktub/ <i>We haven't</i> <i>written</i>	
	<b>2 m.</b>	كُتِبْتُمْ /katabtum/ <i>You wrote</i>	تَكْتُبُونَ /taktubuuna/ <i>You</i> <i>write/You're</i> <i>writing</i>	تَكْتُبُوا /taktubuu/ <i>You will not</i> <i>write/You</i> <i>aren't</i> <i>writing</i>	تَكْتُبُوا /taktubuu/ <i>You</i> <i>haven't</i> <i>written</i>	اَكْتُبُوا /uktubuu/ <i>Write!</i>
	<b>2 f.</b>	كُتِبْتُنَّ /katabtunna/ <i>You wrote</i>	تَكْتُبْنَ /taktubna/ <i>You</i> <i>write/You're</i> <i>writing</i>	تَكْتُبْنَ /taktubna/ <i>You will not</i> <i>write/ You</i> <i>aren't</i> <i>writing</i>	تَكْتُبْنَ /taktubna/ <i>You</i> <i>haven't</i> <i>written</i>	اَكْتُبْنَ /uktubna/ <i>Write!</i>
	<b>3 m.</b>	كُتِبُوا /katabuu/ <i>They wrote</i>	يَكْتُبُونَ /yaktubuuna/ <i>They</i> <i>write/They're</i> <i>writing</i>	يَكْتُبُوا /yaktubuu/ <i>They will not</i> <i>write/They</i> <i>aren't</i> <i>writing</i>	يَكْتُبُوا /yaktubuu/ <i>They</i> <i>haven't</i> <i>written</i>	
	<b>3 f.</b>	كُتِبْنَ /katabna/ <i>They wrote</i>	يَكْتُبْنَ /yaktubna/ <i>They write/</i> <i>They're</i> <i>writing</i>	يَكْتُبْنَ /yaktubna/ <i>They will not</i> <i>write/They</i> <i>aren't</i> <i>writing</i>	يَكْتُبْنَ /yaktubna/ <i>They</i> <i>haven't</i> <i>written</i>	

**Particles in Arabic.** Particles refer to words (and prefixes) that do not contain inflections; they are divided into the following depending on their syntactic function:

**1) Adverbs:** there are few adverbs in Arabic; the commonly found adverbs are these: هنا (*here*), هناك (*there*), الآن (*now*), امس (*yesterday*), ايضا (*also*), فقط (*only*), and the negative لا (*no*), ما (*not*), لم (*did not*), and لن (*will not*) [[Catford et al. 1974:43].

**2) Prepositions:** they contain the following: من (*from*), في (*in*), and على (*on*) (true prepositions), and noun prepositions, that are different from true prepositions, are inflected in two cases ; accusative /-a/ and genitive/-i/, the following example illustrate it:

القط تحت الطاولة /al-qitu tahta al-ttawila/

(*the cat is under the table*)

القط أكل من تحت الطاولة /al-qitu akala min tahti al-ttawila/

(*the cat ate under the table*)

(The prepositions are underlined while the inflections are in **bold**. – M.S.)

Moreover, locative prepositions are usually alike in English and Arabic, the following table (**Table 8**) presents locative prepositions in both languages:

**Table 8**

**Locative Prepositions in English and Arabic**

	English	Arabic
<b>LOCATIVE</b>	on	على /alaa/
	onto	/
	off	/
	at	-ب /bi/
	to	إلى /ilaa/
	away (from)	عن/an/, من /min/
	in	في /fii/, ب- /bi/
	into	في /fii/
	out of	من /min/

**3) Conjunctions:** conjunctions in Arabic are: و (and), ف (and, then), لكن (but), أنْ /an/ (that), أنْ /anna/ (that), إنْ /inna/ (indeed, that), in addition to the conditional particles إنْ /in/ (if), إذا (if), and لو (if).

**4) Interrogative :** adverbs that denote questions: كيف (how ?), متى (when?), أين (where?), كم (how much?).

**5) Interjections:** for example: آمين (amen), آها (Oh!), يا (Oo!),

### **2.1.3. The English Language**

The English language is used as a native language for about three hundred million people in the countries such as United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia, Canada and many others. English is now widely used, due to the fact that a huge number of learners seek to acquire it as either a foreign or second language because they are fully aware that has become of a great importance in the world. Similar to Arabic, there are some dialects in English but the number is less than those of Arabic, also the varieties are similar to one another.

### **2.1.4. English as a Global Language**

Initially, in order to understand the significance of English being a global language, one must understand what a global or world language really means. In fact a global or world language refers to any language that is used worldwide in speech, education, international and diplomatic relations, as well as the high number of people who speak it, both as native or second language speakers. In most cases, a global language is synonymous with the term lingua franca used by people belonging to different ethnicities for the purpose of using a common language to communicate effectively.

According to D. Crystal (2003) “a language achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country” [Crystal 2003a: 3]. Crystal adds that the special role is most apparent in countries where the larger numbers



of the population speak the language as their first or even as a second/ foreign language, one very appropriate example is the English language in countries with large population such as the USA, United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and many others. Additionally, for a language to establish a special role in speech communities, it has to gain an official state, to become a language of scientific research, the language of media and law, a language used in education, taught at schools and so on. The English language for instance has spread rapidly nowadays to develop into a language of great importance in many parts in the world such as Ghana, Nigeria, Singapore, and more recently Rwanda (where English was established as an official language), if compared with other languages that are considered to have achieved a more or less widespread; these languages include French, German, Russian, Arabic, and Spanish [Crystal 2003a: 4].

From the historic point of view in considering the development of a global language, language dominance is closely related to other kinds of dominance, including political, technological, cultural, economic, and religious. A very good example of language dominance was Latin, which was the lingua franca during its time though it was used only by a minority in the times of the Roman Empire as a whole. Latin established its high rank due to the fact that during those centuries the Roman Empire's and Catholic Church power and domination in many parts of the world. Nowadays, the English language is considered to have established the status of becoming the new lingua franca and the global language. It is widely spoken and used in many fields including science, education, computer sciences, academic learning, education, politics, international organizations, tourism, entertainment and many others. It is one of the five official languages of UN and as an official language in many countries around the world.

Historically, the spread of the English language was due to the rule of the British Empire, colonial and industrial power paved the way to English to scatter around the world between the 17th and 20th century. Later on, the dominance and influence of American economics and culture, especially in telecommunication media including internet, huge film industry, and music, helped the English language to maintain its

high position as a language used and spoken globally. In consequence, learning and teaching English as a second language and/or as a foreign one became highly recommended. The global dominance and influence of English made the learning of the language compulsory especially in modern-day globalised communities, where mastering as many languages as possible is essential, let alone the language of scientific research, modern technological facilities, global communication and mutual understanding.

### **2.1.5. The Syntax of the English Language**

In learning any language, one must be aware of all the aspects that form the language. These aspects include vocabulary, grammar (morphology of words, syntax, word order), and phonology (speech patterns, pronunciation), when a language learner is exposed to such aspects, he/she will develop language proficiency, language competence and will advance in the four skills (reading, listening, writing, and speaking). Additionally, many believe that the key to language accuracy especially the second one is the mastery of proper grammar. Of course, every language has its unique grammatical structures and rules, some rules are common in particular languages (mostly those belonging to same language families), while others are totally different (including exceptions). The acquisition of grammar is more essential in SLA (English in this case) than in FLA, due to the fact that the L2 learner has to make extra effort in acquiring all the grammatical patterns in the classroom or elsewhere as opposed to L1 speaker, who take these rules for granted and learn them subconsciously. In the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020) grammar is defined as follows: “the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences, or the study or use of these rules” [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English URL: <http://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/grammar> (accessed 08.02.2020)].

Most of the grammatical rules of the English language are those which focus on the order of words in the construction of coherent sentences- syntax. From Longman

Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) syntax can be defined as “the way words are arranged to form sentences or phrases, or the rules of grammar which control this” [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English URL: <https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/syntax> (accessed 08.02.2020)]. Moreover, Crystal (1988) believes that in English, word order is very important because the meaning changes when the word order. The following examples illustrate the cases [Crystal 1988: 21]:

*John is present vs. is john present?*

*I read the last five pages (of the novel) vs. I read the five last pages (of five novels).*

*Only Ivan met Masha vs. Ivan met only Masha.*

*The lion ate the deer vs. the deer ate the lion.*

The examples listed above are some simple cases where the meaning varies drastically when the word order is changed, but there are a lot of other complex sentence structures where a word or two are used to avoid repetition, and reserve the meaning and keep the same order [Crystal 1988: 21]. Such structure can include the use of expression like ‘former’ and ‘latter’ which indicate the order of words without being altered in the following sentence:

*William and Edward are good friends, the **former** studies literature while the **latter** studies linguistics. [ibid]*

In acquiring English as a second language, it is crucial for learners to be familiar with the word order patterns and the grammar rules that govern them especially those of young age because they have the ability to develop a normal tendency towards learning the right syntactic rules. Whereas, when learners grow up and advance in English, the process of correcting such mistakes became more and more complicated. In many cases, older ESL students may refer to their first language in learning the language and they translate their syntactic knowledge literary from their native

languages to English, without paying attention that the two languages might have different sentence structures and word orders. Furthermore, it is a common belief that in the beginning large numbers of ESL students learn the English language through memorization; ESL learners have a limited knowledge of nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, etc. and the correct order of these in a sentence, thus it is the job of the teacher to make sure that students become aware of the meaning and the appropriate usage of such forms [Lubin, FluentU URL: <https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/esl-syntax/> (accessed 28.12.2019)]. The main task of grammar is the organization of words into meaningful sentences, therefore, in order to describe the way of forming sentences is not an easy task. In order to explain how words are arranged and combined together, it is essential to understand the basic sentence structures, starting first with the introduction of the traditional parts of speech.

### 2.1.6. Parts of Speech in English

The English language has nine main parts of speech (or word classes): nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. It is important to point out that the parts of speech are various and may occur anywhere in a sentence. In order to identify what part of speech a word is, one must understand its meaning, position and use in a sentence [Nordquist 2020 (c) URL: <https://www.thoughtco.com/sentence-parts-and-sentence-structures-1689671> (accessed 10.02.2020)].

**Nouns.** From the Oxford Learner's Dictionary, a noun is: "a word that refers to a person, (such as *Ann* or *doctor*), a place (such as *Paris* or *city*) or a thing, a quality or an activity (such as *plant*, *joy* or *tennis*)".

'Car' is a concrete noun. Proper nouns begin with a capital letter [Oxford Learner's Dictionary URL:

<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/noun?q=noun>

(accessed 10.02.2020)]. The subject in a simple sentence is usually a noun. The object in a simple sentence also can be a noun.

**Pronouns.** According to the Oxford Learner’s Dictionary, a pronoun is “a word that is used instead of a noun or noun phrase, and usually denotes the object in a sentence, for example: *he, it, hers, me, them,* etc.” [Oxford Learner’s Dictionary URL:

<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/pronoun?q=pronoun> (accessed 10.02.2020)].

**Articles.** Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English defines article as: “a word used before a noun to show whether the noun refers to a particular example of something or to a general example of something. In English, ‘the’ is called the definite article and ‘a’ and ‘an’ are called the indefinite article” [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English URL: <https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/article> (accessed 10.02.2020)]. Articles are usually used a sentence as an aid to nouns.

**Adjectives.** According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, an adjective is “a word that describes a noun or pronoun. In the phrase ‘black hat’, ‘black’ is an adjective and in the sentence ‘It makes her happy’, ‘happy’ is an adjective” [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English URL: <https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/adjective> (accessed 10.02.2020)]. Adjectives are often used as words to describe the qualities, conditions, or circumstances of subjects and objects in a sentence.

**Verbs (or predicate).** In Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, a verb is “a word or group of words that describes an action, experience, or state, such as ‘come’, ‘see’, and ‘put on’.” [Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English URL: <https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/verb> (accessed 10.02.2020)]. Verbs come after the subject of the sentences in order to describe an action or a state of being. Additionally, the object of a sentence receives the action and comes after the verb. E.g. *John read the book* (*John* is the subject, followed by the verb *read*; the verb is followed by the object *the book*).

**Adverbs.** According to Macmillan Dictionary of English, an adverb is “a word that gives extra information about a verb, adjective, adverb, clause, or sentence. Many adverbs are formed by adding ‘-ly’ to an adjective, for example ‘quickly’, ‘mainly’, ‘immediately’, and ‘fortunately’. Words such as ‘very’, ‘only’, ‘often’, ‘of course’, and ‘back’ are also adverbs” [The Macmillan English Dictionary URL: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/adverb> (accessed 10.02.2020)].

**Prepositions.** Macmillan Dictionary of English defines a preposition as: “a word that comes before a noun, pronoun, or the ‘-ing’ form of a verb, and shows its relation to another part of the sentence. For example in the sentences ‘Was anyone injured in the accident?’, ‘To save water, take a shower instead of a bath, and ‘Don’t leave without finishing your dinner’, the words ‘in’, ‘instead of’ and ‘without’ are prepositions” [The Macmillan English Dictionary URL: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/preposition> (accessed 10.02.2020)].

**Conjunctions.** From Macmillan Dictionary of English, a conjunction is “a word such as ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘because’, or ‘when’ that joins words, groups phrases, and sentences. For example in the sentence ‘The police have not revealed the details and we don’t know when they will’, ‘and’ and ‘when’ are conjunctions” [The Macmillan English Dictionary URL: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/conjunction> (accessed 10.02.2020)]. Conjunctions in a sentence work as a tool to continue the discourse and connect the sentence or clauses together.

**Interjections.** Macmillan Dictionary of English defines an interjection as: “a word or phrase used for expressing a strong emotion such as surprise or anger. ‘Oh’ and ‘ouch’ are interjections” [The Macmillan English Dictionary URL: <https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/interjection> (accessed 10.02.2020)].

## **2.2. Contrastive Analysis of Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentence Structures in English and Arabic**

### **2.2.1 Comparison and Contrast between Standard English and Standard Arabic**

Standard Arabic (SA) and Standard English (SE) are genetically unrelated and belong to two different language families; Arabic is originally Semitic (belonging to the Asian language family) whereas English is Germanic (it belongs to the European language family). Additionally, Arabic spread due to religious reasons, that is to say, Muslims have to learn the Arabic language in order to be able to read the Holy Quran, while English became popular because of business, economic, academic and educational reasons. Another difference between the two languages is in their writing system and the number of letters they have. While Arabic is right to left in its writing system with a cursive style and joined letters, English is left to right in its own; each language has distinctive script characters. Moreover, Arabic has twenty eight letters and English has twenty six [Alduais 2012: 506].

Standard Arabic and Standard English are also phonetically, phonologically, semantically, morphologically, pragmatically and syntactically different. Phonetically, Standard Arabic has some more places and manners of articulations which are not required in Standard English, those such as Velarized and pharyngalized sounds. In phonology, in English vowels are basic and more in number compared to Arabic which are three in total. In addition to that, vowels in the Arabic language do not appear in written words as in the English language, but they can be identified through the use of case-markers or diacritics (in nominative, accusative, and genitive cases). From a morphological point view, Standard Arabic is more inflectional than Standard English. Semantically, there are words which are similar in the two languages and may have more than one meaning or words in one language but not the other, each to be used in a particular situation. For example, the Arabic word 'مكتبة', it refers to all these words in English 'bookshop, bookstore, library, and stationary' [Alduais 2012: 506]. Sometimes, in the one language, words do not have their equivalents in the other

language. Pragmatically, a particular utterance or word uttered by a speaker of Arabic would carry a meaning he/she wants to convey which would be different or meaningless when heard by speakers of English. Syntactically, English and Arabic are to a great extent different from one another, some syntactic differences include sentences' structure, word-order, subject-verb agreement and others. In short, Standard Arabic is a free-word-order (FWO) which means that its sentence's structure can be both (S+V+O) or (V+S+O), as a statement, while Standard English is a fixed-word-order (FIWO), i.e., its sentence's structure can be only (S+V+O) [Alduais 2012: 506]. Consider the following examples:

كتب التلميذ الدرس

The order of words in this sentence is verb+ subject+ object (VSO). In English, the sentence is literally translated into 'wrote *the student the lesson*,' which is syntactically wrong and unacceptable in English. Another structure is also possible in Arabic, where the subject (التلميذ) is placed before the verb (كتب) (a free word order):

التلميذ كتب الدرس

The order of words in this sentence is subject+ verb+ object (SVO). In English, the sentence is literally translated into *the student wrote the lesson*, which is syntactically right and acceptable according to the English language norms (a fixed word order).

### 2.2.2. Simple Sentence in English

Every language of the world has its own rules of combining its various words into sentences. Therefore, linguists may define a sentence in different ways and in accordance with the language they are studying. In modern linguistics, one of the most comprehensive definitions of a sentence is provided by David Crystal (2008):

“The largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organized” [Crystal 2008: 432].



In grammar, a sentence is considered the largest unit in any written language. However, in spoken language, it is not clear what could be a sentence and what could not be a sentence. When defining a sentence, Leech (2006) argues:

“in writing, sentences are marked by beginning with a capital letter and ending with a full stop (.), question mark (?), or exclamation mark (!), in spoken language, the definition is problematic” [Leech 2006: 104].

Furthermore, a sentence can be in various forms and types in any language, these forms are as follows: statements, interrogative, imperative and exclamation. Therefore, Standard Arabic and Standard English may contain similar simple sentence structures, and may also contain different ones.

In English and as well as other world languages, sentences can be easily recognized: they normally start with a capital letter and finish with a full stop. Basically, sentences are complete in two senses: they can stand alone as informative parts, and more significantly, they involve all the necessary grammatical units that make up meaningful and correct structures. The following examples are sentences that can be found in English:

*Cats purr.*

*Tigers eat meat.*

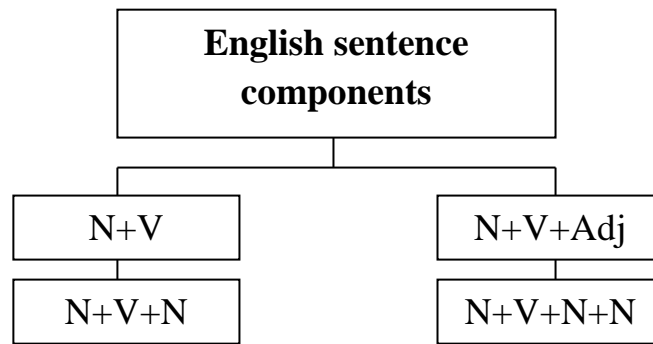
*Some birds cannot fly.*

*Journalists think that they do important work.*

*Bill Gates is fighting for the rights of all capitalists.*

*If wishes were cars, I'd drive a Ferrari.* [Delahunty & Garvey 2010:68].

**Basic Sentence Components.** The English sentence has four main components; the following figure (**Figure 1**) represents the basic components of the English sentence structure:



**Figure 1.** The Common English Sentence Components.

**Source:** [Alsuhaibani 2012: 60]

In taking into account the above Figure 1, the following sentences show the different components of the English sentence:

1. NOUN + VERB:

*Maria reads.*

2. NOUN + VERB + ADJECTIVE:

*Maria is beautiful.*

3. NOUN + VERB + NOUN:

*Maria is a student.*

4. NOUN + VERB+ NOUN + NOUN:

*Maria is a student and a singer.*

**Participants, Process, Attributes and Setting in the Sentence.** Verspoor and Sauter (2000) pointed out that a declarative sentence represents the information about conditions or happenings of a speaker or a writer. In describing the same events or situations, different people utilize different words due to the fact that they might find a variety of features more central or exciting than others. Thus, the specific words the speaker or writer makes use of demonstrate what features in a certain situation are found most essential and appropriate for them. Moreover, in a specific situation or an event, a speaker is able to distinguish these features: one or more participants, attributes of these participants, and the information about the setting of the situations. First, a speaker identifies one person or thing (participants in a certain situation) and states

some information about them. Usually, in a typical sentence, the person or thing that is the most important (often it is a person performing an action) is placed first. Second, the speaker points out the process which expresses the action, situation, state of being or becoming in which the participant (or participants) is engaged in. Third, when the speaker speaks about the participant (or participants), this will be an attribute relating to a feature or characteristic. Forth, the speaker can provide information about the setting, which involves how, where, when, why, under what condition, in spite of which condition the process or the action occur. The term ‘setting’ is a general term that can be connected with time, reason, condition, cause etc. In principle, setting involves anything except a participant, an attribute or a process [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 18-20].

The following examples involve the features stated above:

- *The girl is playing*

The participant is *the girl*, the process is *is playing*

- *The baby is sleepy*

The participant is the baby, the attribute is *sleepy*

- *The man is in the office*

The participant is *the man*, the setting is *in the office*.

### **Subject, Predicator, Object, Attribute, and Adverbial in the Sentence.**

Verspoor and Sauter (2000) provided the following table representing the different parts in a sentence and their technical functions in the sentence. Some technical terms and the abbreviations are also shown in the table [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 21]:

Table 9

### Roles and Functions of Sentence Constituents

<b>Roles</b>	<b>Function</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>
first participant	<i>subject</i>	<b>S</b>
<i>subject</i>	<b>S</b>	
process	<i>predicator</i>	<b>P</b>
something about the first participant	<i>subject attribute</i>	<b>SA</b>
a second participant	<i>direct object</i>	<b>DO</b>
something about the second participant	<i>object attribute</i>	<b>OA</b>
a third participant	<i>indirect object</i>	<b>IO</b>
setting	<i>adverbial</i>	<b>Ad</b>

**Source:** [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 21]

In summary, main participants in a sentence that inform us who or what are *subjects*, *direct objects* or *indirect objects*. The *predictor* is the component which names the process, while *attributes* represent the characteristics or qualities of one of the participants. *Adverbials* are the components of the sentence which highlight the when, why, how, and so on. The following example illustrates these parts in a sentence:

S                      P                      IO                      DO                      A

*The man / had bought / the woman / flowers/ for Women's day.*

#### 2.2.3. English Simple Sentence Structure

The sentences in English are structurally divided into Simple, Compound, Complex, and Compound-Complex ones. In any language, sentences used to appear in different structures and ranges. There are some which contain just a single clause, they are called simple sentences. A simple sentence consists of one main verb, one

subject and one predicate; however, the simple sentence can also consist of a variety of modifiers. One way of identifying clauses in sentences is to count the main verbs, due to the fact that each main verb represents a clause [Delahunty & Garvey 2010: 69]. Consider the following sentences:

*The pen is mightier than the sword.*

*People who live in glass houses should not throw stones.*

*John always goes to the library.*

*Arthur is writing a letter.*

A simple sentence in English can be defined as “a complete unit of meaning which contains a subject and a verb, followed, if necessary, by other words which make up the meaning” [Alexander 1990:4]. Another definition was provided by Eckersley and Eckersley (1960):

“A simple sentence has the most basic elements that make it a sentence: a subject, a verb, and sometimes a completed thought” [Eckersley & Eckersley 1960: 9].

Furthermore, Verspoor and Sauter (2000) defined the simple sentence as:

“A *simple* sentence consist of one main clause only. However, this does not mean that the sentence has to be very short” [Verspoor and Sauter 2000: 35].

Verspoor and Sauter (2000) then provided the following example of a long sentence but considered a simple one due to the fact that it does not consist of any dependent clauses:

S                    P                    A                    A

*The waitresses / are basking / in the sun / like a herd of skinned seals, /*

A

*their pinky-brown bodies shining with oil [ibid]*

Additionally, the English language is considered to have a fixed-word-order (FIWO), which precisely requires a subject (Noun Phrase ‘NP’) to come first, obliged to be followed by a verb (Verb Phrase ‘VP’) and other elements of the sentence

depending greatly on the type of the verb (VP) (whether transitive or intransitive verb) used in the sentence. For instance:

*James sat at the table to eat lunch*

The order of words is S+V+IO (Indirect Object) because the verb 'sat' in the sentence is intransitive.

*Lily ate her breakfast*

The order of words is S+V+DO (Direct Object) because the verb 'ate' in the sentence is transitive.

#### **2.2.4. Types of Simple Sentence**

The Simple sentence in English can be divided into two types, according to the structure:

**Compound verbs and compound subjects:** there are sentences that contain one subject and two or more verbs, and there are sentences that contain one verb and two or more subjects:

*The man swam and dived* (Compound verb)

*John and Adam went to school.* (Compound noun)

*The boy and the girl screamed and shouted.* (Compound verb)

*Maria and Ivan joined the group.* (Compound noun)

**Single subject and a single verb:** in this type, a Simple sentence consists of only one subject and one verb:

*Omar bought a shirt.*

*A smile is a charity.*

*The neighbor parked the car.*

*She wrote an email.*

### 2.2.5. The Components of the Simple Sentence

According to Baskervill and Sewell [Baskervill & Sewell 2004:60] these are the components of the Simple sentence (also see: **Table 9**):

1. The subject.
2. The predicate.
3. The object.
4. The complements.
5. Modifiers.
6. Independent elements.

**The Compound, Complex and Compound-Complex Sentence in English.** In addition to simple sentences, in English, there are also compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. A compound sentence can be defined as a sentence that contains two or more independent clauses, these clauses can be connected with one another through the use of punctuation marks such as a comma (,) or a semi-colon (;), and words called conjunctions. For instance, *the student missed his classes, **for** he was terribly sick*. Note that the word in bold '**for**' is known as the coordinate conjunction combining the two main clauses, and explaining the relationship between them. There are other coordinate conjunctions used to connect the independent clauses in a compound sentence, each has its own function, such as *and* which is used to add an idea to another, for example: *I want to travel to London **and** visit the museums of the city*. Furthermore, the main clauses in a compound sentence can also be connected with the use of a semi-colon (;) without the use of a coordinate conjunction as in *The student missed his classes; he was terribly sick*.

According to Verspoor and Sauter (2000) “a complex sentence is a sentence that contains at least one full dependent clause with its own subject and predicate” [Verspoor & Sauter 2000:37]. Additionally, a dependent clause is referred to as a clause which begins with words such as *who*, *which*, *in which*, *because*, *although*, *if*, etc. these words are named subordinators, and due to this fact the dependent clause in

the complex sentence is often known as the subordinate clause. As opposed to a compound sentence where clauses are simple and independent, a complex sentence contains dependent clauses that cannot stand by themselves and they work as a constituent (subject, object, adverbial, or attribute) of the independent (main) clause. For instance, *I want to visit London **because** it is a beautiful city.*

The last type of sentence structures in English is the compound-complex sentences. A compound-complex sentence is a compound sentence which contains complex parts or a complex sentence which contains compound parts. The following compound-complex sentence consists of two independent clauses combined with the conjunction ‘and,’ and each main clause contains a dependent clause (written in bold black italics) [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 42]:

*A pencil is **what everybody uses for drawing**, AND a rubber is the tool **that erases the drawing of the pencil.***

### 2.2.6. The Sentence in Arabic

The sentence in Arabic can be divided according to the following three sections:

**First:** according to the construction of the sentence;

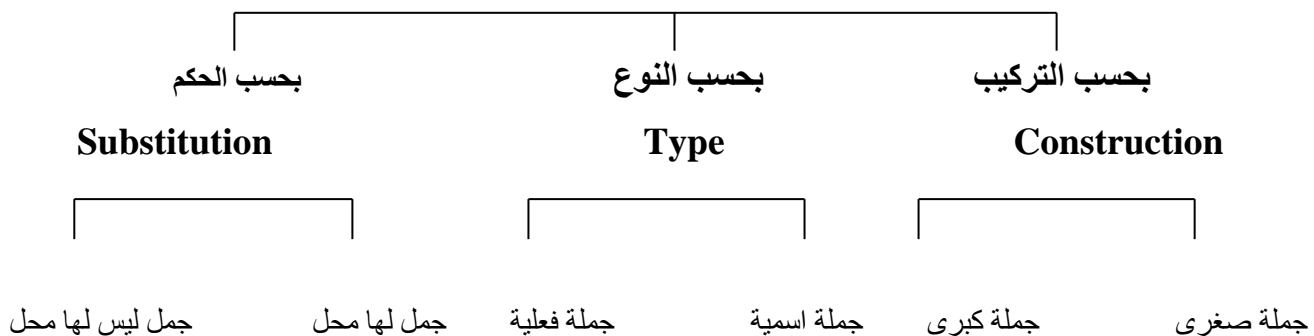
**Second:** according to the type of the sentence;

**Third:** according to

In turn, each of these three sections is divided into two main parts; the following scheme presents the divisions [Dayf 1968: 534]:

#### أقسام الجمل

#### Sentence Divisions





من الإعراب	من الإعراب	Verbal sentence	Nominal sentence	Long sentence	Short sentence	No
substitution	Substitution					

### Scheme 1. Sentence Divisions in Arabic.

The main focus is on the second division of the sentences: there are two types of sentences nominal and verbal sentences. A nominal sentence is the one which starts with a noun, usually known as مبتدأ /*mubtada' a*/, for examples:

قال الله تعالى:

" الْحَمْدُ لِلَّهِ رَبِّ  
الْعَالَمِينَ "

[All] praise is [due] to Allah, Lord of the worlds

قال الله تعالى:

"صُحُفِ إِبْرَاهِيمَ وَ مُوسَى " [19:87]

The scriptures of Abraham and Moses.

The two sentences represent two different verses from the Holy Quran. The sentences are nominal since they both start with nouns الْحَمْدُ (praise), صُحُفِ (the scriptures), respectively.

A verbal sentence, on the other hand, is the one which starts with a verb. The following examples are also taken from the Holy Quran; both begin with the verbs وَأَضْرَبُ (present) and وَذَكَرَ (mentions), respectively:

قال الله تعالى:

"وَأَضْرَبُ لَهُمْ مَثَلًا أَصْحَابَ الْقَرْيَةِ إِذْ جَاءَهَا الْمُرْسَلُونَ" [13:36]

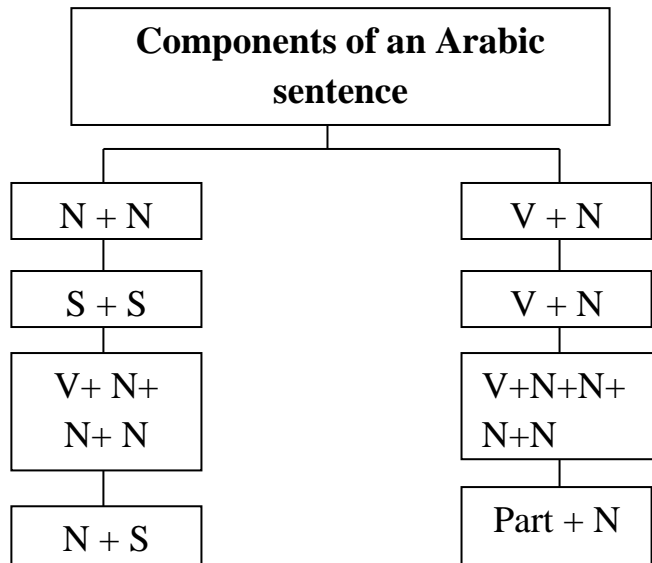
And present to them an example: the people of the city, when the messengers came to it –

قال الله تعالى:

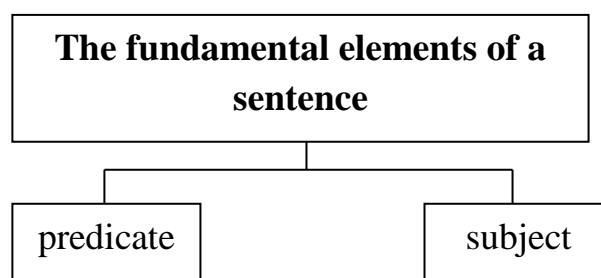
"وَذَكَرَ اسْمَ رَبِّهِ فَصَلَّى" [15:87]

And mentions the name of his Lord and prays.

**Basic Sentence Components.** The following figure (**Figure 2**) represents the main components found in the Arabic sentence structure, while the other one (**Figure 3**) represents the fundamental elements in a sentence [Alsuhaibani 2012: 59,61] :



**Figure 2.** The Components of an Arabic Sentence



**Figure 3.** The Fundamental Elements of a Sentence

The Arabic sentence consists of two fundamental elements; neither one can exist without the other, they are the predicate (المسند) and the subject (المسند إليه) [Alsuhaibani 2012: 61]. The connection between these two elements is known as the attribution (الاسناد). Alsuhaibani (2012) argued that “The attribution issue is the result of a syntactic

and semantic analysis not a morphological one, where the verb *darasa* ‘studies’, for example, is not given a complete attribution without its subject (*al-musnad ilayh*), viz, the agent, *Ali*, for example” [Alsuhaibani 2012: 61]. Moreover, the subject works as a support in order to complete the meaning in the sentence. In his book, Sibawayhi mentioned the importance of the subject and the predicate in the Arabic sentence, he stated: “that the predicate and the subject cannot exist one without the other and the speaker cannot avoid using them” [Sibawayhi 1988: 23].

**The Predicate (المسند al-musnad).** The predicate (also known as *المخبر به al-mukhbar bih* or *al-mutahaddath به* المتحدث به) can appear as a verb or a noun in the Arabic sentence, for instance, it can occur as (*الخبر al-khabar*) in the nominal sentence. Therefore, the predicate appears in both sentences: the nominal sentence and the verbal one [Alsuhaibani 2012:62]. The following examples illustrate the occurrence of the predicate in nominal and verbal sentences (the underlined elements represent the predicate):

أكل الولد (a verbal sentence)

*The boy ate*

مصطفى طبّاخ (a nominal sentence)

*Mustafa is a cook*

**The Subject (المسند إليه al-musnad ilayh).** The subject (also known as *المخبر عنه* *al-mukhbar anh* or *المتحدث عنه* *al-mutahaddath anh*), unlike the predicate, can appear only as a noun (the topic, the agent or deputy agent). Similar to the predicate, the subject occurs in the nominal and the verbal (Passive or Active) sentences. Consider the following examples (the underlined elements represent the subject):

دخل المعلم (verbal sentence)

*The teacher entered*

عمر ذاهب إلى المدرسة (nominal sentence)

*Omar is going to school*

### 2.2.7. The Simple Sentence

The sentence in Arabic can be either simple (الجملة البسيطة *al-jumla al-basita*) or compound (الجملة المركبة *al-jumla al-murakaba*). To simply put it, the structure of simple sentence structure in (SA) is not complex, there are two main sentence structures often referred to as the nominal and the verbal sentences. Clearly, a nominal sentence is the one that begins with a noun (i.e. Noun Phrase), while a verbal sentence is the one that begins with a verb (i.e. Verb Phrase). According to Al-Ansari (2000), the simple sentence in Arabic is composed of two components, the predicate (usually a verb) and the subject; the predicate corresponds to the action performed by the subject [Al-Ansari 2000: 1]. Consider the following examples of the Arabic simple sentence:

عاد الأب من السوق

*The father returned from the market*

ليلى نائمة

*Layla is sleeping*

عمر مثابر

*Omar is persistent*

### 2.2.8. Types of the Simple Sentence

The simple sentence in Arabic is divided into these types: nominal, verbal, sentences that have a place to analysis (الجملة التي لها محل من الأعراب), interrogative, exclamatory and adverbial. Every type of these sentences is characterized by having different case endings according to the role they play in the sentence [Lihadh 2014: 112].

**The Nominal Sentence.** As mentioned before, a nominal sentence consists of a subject and a predicate. The nominal sentence starts with a subject (usually known as

المبتدا *al-mubtadaa*), for example, the famous saying in Arabic (the subject is underlined while the predicate is in **bold**):

العلم نور

*Knowledge is light*

**The Verbal Sentence.** Similar to the nominal sentence, the verbal sentence also consists of a subject and a predicate. Additionally, a verbal sentence can contain a verb and subject, or the verb and the subject of passive or defective verb and its noun and a predicate. The verbal sentences starts with the verb. Consider the following examples (verbs are underlined):

يسقط الثلج

*The snow is falling*

يُكْتَبُ الدرس

*The lesson is written*

**The Arabic Compound Sentence.** In Arabic, the compound sentence structure consists of more than one attribute or idea, the structure of the compound sentence is similar to the simple sentence. In its structure, there are two subjects and two predicates at least. The followings are examples of compound sentences with two subjects (underlined) and two predicates (in **bold**):

العلم نور والجهل ظلام

*Knowledge is light and ignorance is darkness*

## 2.3. Word order of Simple Sentence Structures in English and Arabic

### 2.3.1. Sentence Types and Word-order Patterns in Standard Arabic

Medieval grammarians as well as modern Arabists have always been interested in the subject of sentence types in Standard Arabic. Surprisingly, the concept of verbal sentence (or in Arabic *جملة فعلية jumla fi'liyya*) and nominal sentence (*جملة اسمية jumla*

*ismiyya*) was first introduced in the ancient Arabic grammatical literature; though during the earliest stages of medieval Arabic grammatical writings, the difference between these main sentence types is implied. Moreover, a nominal sentence is a sentence that starts with a noun (a noun phrase), whereas, a verbal one starts with a verb (a verb phrase) [Souadkia 2017:488]. Additionally, in his *Kitāb*, Sībawayhi presents an accurate explanation of various syntactic formations in Arabic; nevertheless the primary difference is highlighted by him. The following model sentences show the distinction between the two main structures:

- (1) يذهب زيد *yadhabu Zaydun* (translated as: ‘Zayd goes’) (verbal)  
 (2) عبد الله أخوك *‘Abdu-llāhi ’axūka* (which means ‘‘Abdullāh is your brother’’) (nominal).

The first model sentence (1) begins with a verb (يذهب=*yadhabu*). However, the second one is a nominal sentence because it begins with a noun which is *Abdu-llāhi*. Subsequently, grammarians started using these models (1 and 2) as *jumla fi‘liyya* (جملة فعلية =verbal sentence) and *jumla ismiyya* (جملة اسمية =nominal sentence), nowadays, these two terms are used in the grammar of Standard Arabic [*Kitāb* I: 6].

According to Peled, a sentence type can be described using entirely pure syntactic terms, alongside the models utilized by the medieval grammarians. Peled also points out that for any specific language, one can assume one or more model sentences that can be made up of a set of small distinctive units characterizing all sentences that are likely to occur. Furthermore, Peled adds that word-order, case marking and grammatical agreement are the guidelines to those model sentences mentioned before, she explains that:

“If, for a given language L, it can be shown that any given sentence, however complex, is reducible to one of a given number of such nuclear model sentences, these model sentences are defined as sentence types in L.” [Peled 2009: 4].

Present-day linguistic investigations of Arabic syntax have been extensively based on Chomsky’s theory of Generative Grammar, and with regard to word-order

studies, numerous researchers have decided to use Joseph Greenberg's method that emphasizes universals and typology as a guideline in their language studies. Greenberg believed that each language has its basic word-order patterns; more specifically the ordering of the subject (S) and object (O) in the sentence corresponding to the verb (V). In addition to that, word-order patterns such as SVO, VSO, and SOV (which are the most common) are assumed to have a correlation with some particular grammatical characteristics [Greenberg 1966:61].

Modern cross-linguistic studies have questioned the model proposed by Greenberg in terms of its basic word-order patterns, as well as suggesting different typologies. In their examinations, researchers fundamentally took into consideration syntactic, pragmatic and cognitive properties to explain various word-order patterns. Subsequently, one remarkable idea is of Mithun, in which she differentiates between language that are syntactically based and those which are pragmatically based ones. Peled mentioned that:

“She [Mithun] argues that syntactically-based languages have a syntactically defined basic word order that may be altered, for pragmatic purposes, by right- and left-dislocation processes. In pragmatically based languages, in contrast, all ordering reflects pragmatic considerations .Unusual situations are marked by other means reordering is usually assumed to result in a theme-rheme... with new or newsworthy elements following the ‘old’ or ‘given’ information, in pragmatically based languages, the order is nearly the reverse...” [Peled 2009:2].

Recently, Kristen Brustad (2000) has proposed a typology for Arabic that surprisingly deviates from Greenberg's model, and looks closer to the medieval Arab grammarians' approach. Although in the analysis of word-order, the paradigm of Greenberg has continued to be the most significant model of study, not least amidst Arabists and linguists concerned with the study of the Arabic language. Nevertheless, it is worth to mention that a general linguist whose main focus is on investigating an Indo-European language such as English, French or German, where the verb is the basis of each sentence; therefore the placement of every other component of a sentence is to be determined according to the verb. In the Arabic language, sentences that exist without a verb; can be found both in classical as well as modern texts of Arabic, and

most of the times this kind of sentences share fundamental characteristics with sentences that have a verb.

Rather than the medieval Arab grammarians, modern researchers have drawn a separating line between the two model sentences *daraba ‘Abdu-llāhi Zaydan* (lit.: hit Abdullah Zayd) and *‘Abdu-llāhi daraba Zaydan* (lit.: Abdullah hit Zayd), characterizing two word-order patterns, first one is VSO while the other one is SVO. Obviously, it corresponds with Greenberg’s paradigm, where the order of other elements in a sentence is relative to the verb. Actually, it has been the trend in studying the sentence structure of Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) as well as modern Arabic dialects. Furthermore, these two word-order patterns VSO and SVO became the two basic sentence types in the Arabic language. However, in the recent study, the terms VSO and SVO are used to refer to word-order patterns, and not to sentence types. Thus, the notion of sentence type is difficult to understand and not self explanatory, and is not restricted to these two word-order patterns [Peled 2009: 3]. Subsequently, in his dictionary of grammatical terms, Trask introduces the definition of sentence type:

“Sentence type: One of the four traditional classes of sentence, in a classification which attends only to surface form and not to discourse function, the four types being **statements**, **commands**, **questions** and **exclamations**, conventionally associated with the four **mood** categories **declarative**, **imperative**, **interrogative** and **exclamative**.” [Trask 1993: 251].

According to Trask’s definition, the type of sentence is dependent on the nature of its predicate and the position of the predicative components (i.e. subject and predicate) with respect to the relation between them. In addition, all types can be utilized to form a statement or ask a question, an imperative form is characterized by a sentence headed by a verb.

### 2.3.2. The Sībawayhian theory of ‘عامل’ ‘amil (operator)

Similar to other basic ideologies, the concept of sentence types began to be explained and analyzed during the late period in the development of Arabic grammar.



Through time, grammarians had been focusing on distinguishing between a number of primary structures in the Arabic language, for instance those shown in sentences like *زيد منطلق* *Zaydun muntaliquun* (lit.: Zayd is going off), without emphasizing the sentence type. According to Sibawayhi, whose book *Kitāb* is considered to be the first book explicitly explaining the grammatical constructions of the Arabic language, the concept of the sentence is found on the principle of what is called in Arabic as *إسناد* *'isnād* (despite the fact that the term itself is not commonly used in the book, the term's literal meaning is 'leaning,' which refers to the two predicative constituent of the sentence; that is the subject and the predicate, indicating that one somehow is held up by the other. Sibawayhi applies the two model sentences *عبد الله أخوك* *'Abdu-llāhi 'axūka* (translated as Abdullah is your brother) and *يذهب زيد* *yadhabu Zaydun* (goes Zayd) as expressions of *'isnād*. To explain more, Sibawayhi refers to the first predicative constituents as *musnad*, while to the second as *musnad 'ilayhi*. Yet, Sibawayhi appears to have been fascinated not only by sentence constituents, but also by sentence formation; i.e. the way a sentence structure is formed [*Kitāb* I: 6].

Various grammarians use the term *'amil* to refer to a one-way process where a component in a sentence works ahead of another by assigning its case. The *'amil* (operator) works ahead the *ma'mūl* *معمول* (affected – uncommonly *ma'mūl fīhi* *معمول فيه*), resulting in changes in its case ending (*'i'rāb* *إعراب*). The *'amil* is generally a verb or a particle, for example, a preposition. The *ma'mūl* is a nominal or a verb of the *yaf'alu* *يفعل* form (which is the imperfect form). Moreover, a fundamental notion in the *'amil* theory is *ta'diya* *تأدية* which indicates the transitivity of the verb, referring to sentences with the VSO word-order pattern. In taking into consideration the notion of *ta'diya*, it is supposed that in sentences such as *زيد* *daraba 'Abdu-llāhi Zaydan* (hit Abdullah Zayd), it is the verb *ضرب* *'daraba* (hit in this case) which establishes the formation of the sentence. More specifically, the verb *'daraba* influences the first nominal (the *fā'il* *فاعل* who is *'Abdu-llāhi*), giving it the *raf'* *الرفع* case. This influence of the verb goes further (in Arabic *يتعدى* *yata'addā*) through the

*fā`il*, into the second nominal (the *maf`ūl* مفعول who is *Zaydan*), giving it the *nasb* النصب case [Peled 2009:5-6].

Although, Sībawayhi did not precisely propose a well-defined separation of sentence type, he certainly cleared the path for later grammarians to develop a hypothesis providing that any sentence in the Arabic language can be represented by one of these two types: on the one hand, a verb-based sentence (in other words a verbal sentence *جملة فعلية jumla fi`liyya*), while on the other hand, a noun-based sentence (a nominal sentence *جملة اسمية jumla ismiyya*). In a matter of fact, his division between two types of *amal* was subsequently translated into a precise theory of two corresponding sentence type.

### **2.3.3. The Constituents of the Simple Sentence and their Syntactic Characterization**

The Arabic language belongs to the Semitic family of languages; it is morphologically rich and has a flexible word ordering. In general, Qalati (2003) mentioned that the sentence (as agreed by Grammar scholars) “is any composed utterance attributed to speech, either understood or not understood by the listener, for instance: the boy succeeded, thus, the sentence is meaningful consisting of the verb (succeeded) and the subject (the boy)” [Qalati 2003: 524].

Additionally, Cantarino (1974) said that a sentence ‘...is usually defined as a self-contained unit of speech consisting of a meaningful word or word arrangement.’ He also added that in Standard Arabic grammar, there is a distinction between two basic types of simple sentences structure, the first one is the nominal sentence (*jumla ismiyya*) and the other is the verbal sentence (*jumla fi`liyya*). Hence, nominal sentences contain two main parts: a subject (in Arabic مبتدأ *mubtada`*) and a predicate (خبر *xabar*) [Cantarino 1974:2].

In Arabic grammar, the separation of words into verbs, nouns, and particles is one of the most important criteria. Grammarians specialized in analyzing the Arabic language explained each of these elements in correspondence with principles from

phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic/pragmatic levels of linguistic analysis, significantly, morphological and syntactic levels. In his *Alfiyya* ألفية (rhymed book dealing with Arabic grammar), Ibn Malik provided some important definitions of nouns, verbs, and particles.

**Nouns.** Standard Arabic, a noun can be defined as: ‘a word that names a person, place, or thing, as in *Yusuf* يوسف, *bank* بنك and *pen* قلم.’ A noun can either be definite (in Arabic المَعْرِفَةُ *almaerefa*) or indefinite (i.e., النُّكْرَةُ *alnakera*). On the one hand, a definite noun is a noun which names a particular person, place or thing, for instance, *Muhammad* مُحَمَّدٌ (The Prophet peace be upon him), *Madinah* المدينة (the Holy City), and *Black-Stone* الْحَجَرُ الْأَسْوَدُ (the Holy stone). On the other hand, an indefinite noun is a noun that refers to unparticular person, place or thing, for example *a girl* طفلة, *a school* مدرسة, *a chair* كرسي. Additionally, a noun can be classified into two gender classifications, masculine (الْمَذَكَّرُ) and feminine (الْمُؤَنَّثُ), in most cases the ending of a noun determines whether it is a masculine noun or a feminine one, the “ة” (known as ‘*taa almarbota*) in مدرسة (=school) indicates that the noun is feminine. Different from English, the noun in Arabic is divided into three categories regarding the number; they are Singular المَفْرَدُ (e.g. a man ‘رجل’), Dual المُنْتَنِي (e.g. two men ‘رجلان’) and Plural الْجَمْعُ (e.g. men ‘رجال’).

Furthermore, Zaggagi explains a noun as being a subject (فاعل *fa'il*) or an object (مفعول به *maflul bihi*). Ibn Hisam acknowledges the appearance of a noun with nunation (التنوين *tanween*) and the definite article, as well as having the feature of being talked about (muhaddat ‘anhu). This feature is to some extent similar to what Zaggagi mentioned about a noun being a subject, even if it is semantically and pragmatically directed. It is impossible not to mention the work of Sarrag which was the first total list of noun characteristics. In his list, the syntactic characteristics Sarrag adds are appearance with a genitive particle, modification by an adjective (na’t نعت in Arabic), appearance as topic (in nominal sentence), non-appearance with the verbal modifiers سوف ‘*sawfa*’ (indicating the future; equivalent to ‘it will’), قد ‘*qad*’ (it may) (indication of perfective). Another list appeared later in the work of Anbari in which a few

modifications were made; appearance with the vocative particle is introduced, also it is mentioned that nouns are those which appear as topics, subjects, objects and possessors [Owens 1989:213].

**Verbs.** In the description of verbs, syntax does not play an important role as it is with nouns. Sarrag emphasizes the semantic contribution, and negative explanation, for instance, the things that do not specify a noun. As for Anbari, ‘verbs are words which cannot be talked about’ (*mukhbar ‘anhu*, occur as subject) and with which you talk about something (as predicate, *mukhbar bihi*). In addition, the two classifications (*mukhbar ‘anhu/bihi* مخبر عنه/ به) are important in differentiating between nouns and verbs: nouns appear as both due to the fact that they can act as subjects or as predicates in the nominal sentence, while verbs appear only as predicates. Anbari adopts the same classification but refers to it with the term ‘isnad إسناد. Thus, a verb can act as predicate, *musnad* مسند but cannot be an argument to a predicate [Owens 1989:214].

Additionally, Mubarrad does not give a definition of verbs following a syntactic criterion, and Zaggagi provides only a semantic explanation, verbs are words that take past, present and future tenses that express an action. Yet, Zaggagi considers that verbs should be explained through syntactic criterion, or partially through analyzing the relations between sentence components when he compares them with nouns. Nouns are considered, in a logical way, to be ‘the first’ (meaning more basic) since there are sentences containing only of nouns, and if a verb appears as an agent, a noun must go with it. This implies that a verb a relation between an agent noun and itself [Owens 1989:215].

**Particles.** The particles are considered to be the most heterogeneous among word classes and are divided into numerous sub-classed: Anbari and 'Asrar provides six, Sarrag gives eight and Zaggagi provides a semantic description, ‘(words which) have a meaning by virtue of their referring to another word.’ Nonetheless, Zaggagi makes no attempt to provide a complete grammatical definition, neither syntactic nor morphological. But, once the morphological, syntactic and semantic descriptions of

nouns and verbs have been identified, any words which do not meet such descriptions are believed to be particles. Moreover, Ibn Ginni gives a summary to what particles are, he explains them as follows: '(particles) are whatever have neither the characteristics (*'alamat* علامات) of nouns nor verbs' [Owens 1989:215].

### 2.3.4. Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentences

**Verbal Sentence and Nominal Sentence.** Word order in Arabic sentences has different patterns. As it was mentioned above, the Arabic sentence takes two main forms that are usually used to contrast each other. The first is called *جملة فعلية jumla fi'liyya*, 'verbal sentence' where a VP (verb phrase) precedes the NP (noun phrase). The second structure is called *جملة اسمية jumla ismiyya*, 'nominal sentence', where an NP initiates the sentence and does not necessarily contain a verb [Kremers 2003: 33].

Examples:

(1) Verbal sentence:

الولد جاء *dzaa-a*      *al-waladu*      'the boy came'

(2) Nominal sentence:

الولد جالس *al-waladu*      *dzaliss-un*      'the boy is seated'

In (1), the VP جاء *dzaa-a* (came) precedes the NP الولد *al-waladu* (the boy), and in (2), the sentence begins with an NP, الولد *al-waladu*.

The nominal sentence comprises two elements known as *مبتدأ mubtada'*, that can be translated as the initial NP, and *خبر xabar*, or the predicate. In (2) the initial NP is الولد *al-waladu*, and جالس *dzaliss-un* is the predicate. The two components are always nominative, and agree in terms of number, gender, as well as definiteness [Suleiman 2003: 77].

Two main constituents constitute a nominal sentence in Standard Arabic, *mubtada'* and *xabar*. The initial NP or *mubtada'* has three features; firstly it must be definite, secondly, it must carry the nominative case, and thirdly it has to be a single

phrase. The predicate or *xabar*, however, can be a single word, phrase, or a complete sentence.

الأم في المطبخ *al-ummu fi al-matbax-i* ‘the mother is in the kitchen’

Traditional grammarians define the predicate *xabar* of the nominal sentence as the second main constituent whose role is to report, add, and complete the meaning of the sentence or clause, it agrees with the subject or *mubtada*’, it can be a single word or a complete phrase.

The simple form of *xabar* can be an adjective or a noun, as in the following examples:

الجو ممطر *al-jaw-u mumtr-un* (adj) ‘the weather is rainy’

احمد صحفي *Ahmad-u sahafy-un* (noun) ‘Ahmed (is) a journalist’

In both examples the report is a single NP, the report is *مطر mumtir-un* (rainy) in the first example and *صحفي sahafy-un* (a journalist) in the second. One can notice that in both examples the *mubtada*’ (initial NP), and its *xabar* (report), agree in gender and number. In both examples, however, the predicate is indefinite while the *xabar* is definite; it is said here that the predicate receives definiteness from the initial NP [Holes 2004: 264].

In a nominal sentence, the complex report can be in the form of a verb phrase or nominal phrase as illustrated in the examples below:

المدير في اجتماع *al-mudir-u fi idztima-in* ‘The director (is) in a meeting’

In the example above the report is the prepositional phrase (jumla fi ‘liyya) *في اجتماع fi idztima-in* (in a meeting), which also follows the initial noun *المدير al-mudir-u* (the director), it is an example of a nominal clause with a locative clause report in which *fi idztima-in* reports the location of the ‘director’ assuming that the meeting place is known [Ryding 2005: 16].

Another type of complex *xabar* is a verb phrase as in the following example:

البنيت تحب السفر *al-bintu tu-hib-u al-safar-a* 'The girl loves travelling'  
 ليلى تحب السفر *Leyla tu-hib-u- al-safar-a* 'Leyla loves travelling'

In this example the initial NP *البنيت al-bintu* (the girl) is a *mubtada'* carrying the nominative case. The initial NP *al-bintu* can be replaced by the name *Leyla*, it also becomes the subject to the VP *tu-hib-u al-safar-a*; the initial NP is a definite specific noun, and the verb agrees with the *xabar* in gender, person, and number.

In summary, the nominal sentence is composed of two constituents: the *mubtada'*, or (initial NP) and the *xabar* (predicate). The initial NP, *mubtada'*, can be simply defined as any definite, generic, or specified, NP heading a sentence, and the *xabar* of nominal sentences can either be a nominal or verbal constituent [Mohammad 2000: 49].

**VSO versus SVO.** The Arabic language is a flexible one in terms of word order. Examples in traditional and modern Arabic comprise up to eight patterns as illustrated in the (Table 10) below, providing evidence of the flexibility in word-order patterns:

**Table 10**

**Examples of Possible Word-order Patterns in Standard Arabic**

Word-Order Patterns	Example	Translation
<b>SVO</b>	اللوحة جميلة /al-lawhat-o jamilat-un/	The painting (is) beautiful
	جميلة (هي) اللوحة /jamilat-un (hiya) al-lawha/	Beautiful (is) the painting
	الفنان رسم لوحة /al-fanan-o rassam-a lawhat-an/	The artist drew a painting
<b>VSO</b>	رسم الفنان لوحة /rassam-a al-fanano-o lawhat-an/	Drew the artist a painting

<b>VOS</b>	رسم لوحة الفنان /rassam-a lawhat-an al-fanan/	Drew a painting the artist
<b>OSV</b>	لوحة الفنان رسم /lawhat-a al-fanan-i rassam-a/	A painting the artist drew
<b>SOV</b>	الفنان لوحة رسم /al-fanan-o lawhat-an rassam-a/	The artist a painting drew
<b>OVS</b>	لوحة رسم الفنان /lawhat-an rassam-a al-fanan/	A painting drew the artist

Only two patterns will be dealt with: VSO and SVO due to the fact that these are the most commonly used in modern prosaic Arabic, the other patterns are more frequently used in poetry and eloquent artistic style, not to be found in daily writings [Mohammad 2000: 50].

According to Arab grammarians, VSO is the basic syntactic word order, and SVO is derivate of the VSO, as a result of subject movement. VSO order is altered to highlight shift in focus, emphasis and information distribution. Stylistically speaking, VSO order is more frequent than SVO as seen in the writings of many Modern Arab writings. The VSO pattern is used in many cases such as:

- a. Passive sentences (they are commonly found in writings, they usually verbal sentences)

*foutiha al-babu* 'lit.: opened (was) the door' 'The door was open'

- b. When independent subject pronouns are deleted

*(أنا) qara'-tu al-maqal-a* '(I) read the article' 'I read the article'

The SVO pattern is used in certain positions such as:

- a. Sentences consisting of a subject and a NP predicate:

*Ahmad-u hadir-un* 'lit.: Ahmed present' 'Ahmed is present'

- b. Sentences beginning with emphatic 'inna' and similar emphatic words.



إن احمد حاضر *inna Ahmed-a hadir-un* ‘Ahmed is present (not absent as you thought)’

- c. Sentences beginning with auxiliary ‘kaana’ and similar auxiliary (incomplete) verbs:

كان احمد حاضر *kaana Ahmad-u hadir-an* ‘lit.: was Ahmed present’ ‘Ahmed was present (but is no longer)’

The sentence احمد كان حاضر *Ahmad-u kaana hadir-an* is also correct, but with the slight difference that contrary to the previous one *kaana Ahmad-u hadir-an*, the latter sentence emphasizes Ahmed’s presence more than the time of presence. Analyzing Arabic texts is challenging because this language has diverse morphology due to its inflectional nature and flexibility in terms of word order and the use of clitics attached to words [Albuhayri 2013: 5]. In this work two different word orders in Arabic (SVO, VOS) will be considered so as to show how they are derived. Below are some of the rather challenging characteristics of the Arabic language [Moubaidin et al. 2013: 2]:

- A.** Arabic has a relatively free word-order and it is therefore not unusual to find each of VSO and SVO within an Arabic text as in:

a. قرأ المدير التقرير *qara’-a al-mudir-u al-taqrir-a* ‘lit.: read the director the report’  
‘the director read the report’

b. المدير قرأ التقرير *al-mudir-u qara’-a al-taqrir-a* ‘The director read the report’

Both examples (a) and (b) are grammatically correct and imply the same meaning (the director read the report) with difference in emphasis, for in the first sentence, the act of reading is emphasized, whereas in the second example, the focus is on the doer of the action of reading (the director himself and not someone else, or to mean that it is no less than director who read it, depending on intonation).

- B.** Another challenge is that Arabic is a clitic language, i.e. one in which morphemes are morphologically linked to other words; these can be coordinating conjunctions, a

definite article, prepositions; a particle, or pronouns attached to the beginning or end of a word. For example:

c. ذهبن *dhahab-na* ‘they (female pronoun) left’

Example (c) above comprises the verb ذهبن *dhahaba* and a clitic ن *na* that acts as the subject for the verb *dhahaba*, (the male counterpart would have been ذهبوا *dhahb-ou*).

C. The omission of diacritics in most written texts, which makes almost only natives of advanced learners able to *guess* the type of word being used; so that ذهب *dhahaba* ‘(he)left’ or ذهب *dhahab* (gold) can only be distinguished from the context if such signs are omitted.

D. Arabic is a pro-drop language. The subject can be omitted leaving it the reader to decide if there is an omitted pronoun in the subject position or not. Let us consider the exchange below as an example:

d. أين ليلي *ayna Leyla?* ‘Where is Leyla?’

e. ذهبت إلى المدرسة. (هي) *dhaha-t ila al-madrassat-i* ‘she left to school’

Here, the subject pronoun (*hya*) ‘she’ is often omitted.

Another challenge with Arabic added to the omission of diacritic signs is the abundant use of homographs that differ not only in meaning but in the part of speech as well (see example (f) above or the example below:

f. البيت جميل *al-bayt-u jameel-un* ‘the house (or a poem verse) is beautiful’

Here the meaning of the word البيت *al-bayt* preceded by the definite article *al-* and the diacritic sign –u implying the word is an initial (*mubtada*) or subject in this case is quite hard to know unless the context is clear. The sentence can mean that the speaker likes a *house* they are looking at or a *verse* in a poem because both are written and referred to as البيت *al-bayt*.

### 2.3.5. Simple Sentence Patterns in English and Arabic

As mentioned before, Verspoor and Sauter (2000) pointed out that a simple sentence contains one main clause, but this does not necessarily mean that the sentence must be short [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 35]. In addition, the main clause (contains a subject and a verb) is referred to as the independent clause (a clause that can stand alone because it expresses a complete idea); a simple sentence contains not more than one independent clause, and it does not contain any dependent clauses (clauses that cannot be alone in a sentence because they express incomplete ideas), for this reason it is called a simple sentence. The following example illustrates is the case:

*The children are playing on the playground, like flowers in the meadow, dancing brightly in the sun.*

Moreover, a basic simple sentence in English can also be explained as a sentence which contains a Noun Phrase (NP) and an Intransitive Verb (In.V), that is (Sen. = NP+VP) [Alduais 2012: 510], for example:

***The lesson started***

Sentence (Sen.) = ‘The lesson started.’

Sen. = Noun Phrase (NP) + Verb Phrase (VP)

NP= Determiner (Det) + Noun (N)

Det= ‘the’

N= ‘lesson’

VP= Intransitive Verb (In. V)

VP= ‘started’

In the English language the (NP) is the basic element of the simple sentence and cannot be changed unless the form of the sentence is changed to a question, imperative, etc. additionally, what comes after the NP is put obligatory, it is the VP; without VP, the sentence cannot exist. Finally, what follows the (VP) is greatly dependent on the type of the verb used whether auxiliary or lexical, and if it is lexical it can be a non-complement verb (intransitive) or a complement verb (non-transitive, transitive), etc.

Additionally, a simple sentence can also have four basic types: declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory. In their book Verspoor and Sauter mention that the main reasons of communication are when people want to inform someone of something (a declarative), to get someone to do something (an imperative), to get information from someone (an interrogative), and to express one's attitude about something (an exclamatory) [Verspoor & Sauter 2000: 16-17]. Verspoor and Sauter add that each of these four types has its own syntactic structure; a declarative involves a subject+ a complete verb, an imperative involves a verb (alone), an interrogative involves a part of verb+ a subject+ rest of verb, and an exclamatory contains how...what a (an)... then the rest of the sentence [ibid : 17]. The following examples show the syntactic structure of each type respectively:

*Kate is singing.* (Declarative)

*Sing!* (Imperative)

*Is Kate singing?* (Interrogative)

*How amazing Kate is singing! What a beautiful song Kate is singing!*  
(Exclamatory).

### **2.3.6. Typical Simple Sentence Patterns in English and Arabic**

In English, the order of the simple sentence components is rather a predictable one: the subject is placed first, followed by a predicate, then come objects and attributes. However, the only sentence component that can put before the subject is the adverbial [Verspoor & Sauter 2000:23]. Furthermore, when speakers talk about an event or a situation, they have to follow a certain organization of words to form meaningful utterances; or else listeners will not be able to understand what was meant. Consider the following sentences:

*A phone Emma bought.*

*To the zoo went the children.*

*Called the woman the Emergency.*

The sentences are grammatically incorrect and ill-formed due to incorrect their word order patterns. Instead, the following are the correct structures:

*Emma bought a phone.*

*The children went to the zoo.*

*The woman called the Emergency.*

The declarative sentence is a good example of the simple sentence in English. Declarative sentences contain a subject and predicate. The verb in the predicate must agree with the subject of the sentence and it must be correctly conjugated, according to the rules and regulations in a specific tense, the following represents a declarative sentence in English:

*Harry + loves football.*

**subject + predicate**

Declarative sentences can consists of a singular or plural noun as their subject, a verb in a particular tense can come after the subject, then a complement can follow the verb of the sentence, for example:

*Elizabeth eats the cake.*

*The children ran into the park.*

Contrastingly, the simple sentence structure in Arabic is classified into these: nominal sentences vs. verbal sentences and equational (or non-verbal) sentences vs. verbal sentences.

**Nominal sentences vs. verbal sentences:** a nominal sentence is a sentence that begins with a noun (NP) followed by a verb (VP) and a complement, whereas, a verbal sentence is a sentence which starts with a verb (VP), followed by a subject (NP) and ends with a complement depending on the type of the verb.

Here is the example of a nominal sentence:

(1) الرضيع كان جائعا

The English translation is as follows: *The baby was hungry*

The nature of the free-word-order system of the Arabic language allows to move the verb (كان = was) from the sentence above and place it in the beginning of the sentence while preserving the meaning and the correct grammar. Consequently, the nominal sentence becomes a verbal one. The following example illustrates the change made in the construction of the sentence:

(2) كان الرضيع جائعا

The translation in English is the same for both nominal and verbal sentences in Arabic: *The baby was hungry*. Furthermore, in SA a verbal sentence can also be uttered into a nominal sentence without adding or changing the basic elements (S, V, and O), so the order changes from being VSO to SVO, for instance:

(3) وجد القرصان الكنز

The literal translation of the verbal sentence into English would be: found the pirate the treasure. It is impossible to find such structure in English, since the language only allows the SVO structure. Therefore, the sentence is correctly translated as: *The pirate found the treasure*.

Thus, the sentence (3) above can be changed into the following to become a nominal one (4):

(4) القرصان وجد الكنز

In English, the structure is translated the same: *The pirate found the treasure*.

Again, this proves that Standard English does not allow this kind of structure in its system. Whereas, Standard Arabic does allow this kind of structure in its system, that is, it can be either (NP+VP+ Comp/ $\phi$ ) or (VP+NP+ Comp/ $\phi$ ).

However, there are other cases in the Arabic language where it is not allowed to change a sentence from one structure to another unless following some rules and restrictions that keep the sentence meaningful, well-formed and grammatically acceptable.

For further understanding, here are some examples:

(5) قام الأساتذة تقديرا للعالم

The English equivalence: *The professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist*.

The example (5) shows a typical verbal sentence since it started with the verb (VP) (قام = *stood up*), the verb is followed by the subject (NP) (الأساتذة = *the professors*), and finally came the complement (Comp) (تقديرًا للعالم = *appreciatively for the scientist*). For this sentence to be turned into a non-verbal one, the agreement between the subject (NP) and the verb (VP) has to be taken into consideration. If this agreement is not taken into focus, and the change is being made, it will absolutely result in producing a meaningless, ill-formed and grammatically unacceptable sentence from the point of view of grammar in Standard Arabic. Consider the same sentence where changes are made without any consideration to the subject (NP) and the verb (VP):

(6) الأساتذة قام تقديرًا للعالم

In English, the translation is the same: *The professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.*

The sentence (5) was changed into the one in example (6) which is considered unaccepted due to the fact that it is grammatically incorrect and ill-formed. The verb (قام) here doesn't agree with the subject (الاساتذة). Explicitly, the subject is in the plural form, while but the verb is not (even though when the structure of the sentence (5) was not changed, this did not matter much because the verb was put first, which is not the same case in sentence (6) since the subject is places before the verb). In the sentence the subject is plural so this directly means that the verb must also be in the plural. The mark of the plural must be added to the verb in order to formulate the plural verb. Moreover, the gender of the subject must also be taken into consideration before forming the plural verb, whether feminine or masculine. In addition to that, the dual pronoun, that exist in SA and does not in SE, must be taken into account and which in turns also differ in terms of gender, i.e. the dual is either masculine or feminine. Significantly, there are also the cases: whether it is genitive, accusative or nominative, in order to add the mark of what and which. The following structures show the applying of these rules according to the Arabic language:

The correct structures of sentence (6) are the followings:

(7) الأساتذة قاموا تقديرًا للعالم

*The professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Plural masculine)

The verb قاموا is the masculine plural form of the singular verb قام. Both forms are translated as *stood up* in English.

(8) الأستاذة قمن تقديرا للعالم

*The professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Plural feminine)

The verb قمن is the feminine plural form of the verb قام. Notice that the form of the subject الأستاذة (*the professors*) is the same for both genders in the Arabic language.

(9) الأستاذان قاما تقديرا للعالم

*The two professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Dual masculine)

The dual masculine form of the verb قام is قاما. The dual masculine form of the subject is الأستاذان. In English, the translation of the verb is always the same (*stood up*), while the word *two* is added before the subject to refer to the dual number (*the two professors*).

(10) قامتا الأستاذتان تقديرا للعالم

*The two professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Dual feminine)

The dual feminine form of the verb قام is قامتا (*stood up*). The dual feminine form of the subject is الأستاذتان (*the two professors*).

Due to the fact that Standard Arabic allows both VSO and SVO in its word order sentence patterns, it is possible to change these nominal sentences into verbal ones. Consider the following examples:

(11) قاما الأستاذان تقديرا للعالم

*The two professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Dual masculine)

(12) قامتا الأستاذتان تقديرا للعالم

*The two professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Dual feminine)



(13) قمن الأساتذة تقديرا للعالم

*The professors stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Plural feminine)

(14) قام الأستاذ تقديرا للعالم

*The professor stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Singular masculine)

The verbal sentence presented in example (14) can be changed into a nominal one:

(15) الأستاذ قام تقديرا للعالم

*The professor stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Singular masculine)

(16) قامت الأستاذة تقديرا للعالم

*The professor stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Singular feminine)

The verbal sentence (16) can also become a nominal one (17):

(17) الأستاذة قامت تقديرا للعالم

*The professor stood up appreciatively for the scientist.* (Singular feminine)

**Equational (or non-verbal) sentences vs. verbal sentences:** essentially this type of sentences appears without a verb, namely in the case of present simple tense when the sentences have only two elements (NP+ Comp) known in the Standard Arabic as (المبتدأ) *al- mubtadaa* and (الخبر) *al- khabbar*). For instance:

(18) الصوتيات هي الدراسة العلمية لأصوات الكلام

The sentence can be translated as follows: *Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds.*

(19) القراءة غذاء العقل

The English equivalence: *Reading is the food of the mind*

The two examples (18 and 19) refer to what is known in SA as non-verbal (or equational) sentences. In this type of sentences, no verb is found and they can only

appear in the English translation in the form of the verb (to be). Nevertheless, the verbs can occur when the sentences are altered into verbal ones, but changing them is not permitted due to the fact that there are logically no verbs that can be moved around to make up verbal sentences. Many speakers of Arabic, especially authors or writers, would often use some other words which can function as verbs, but in translation one can figure out that such alternatives do not influence the preceding translation. In the following examples, sentences (18 and 19) are altered from non-verbal sentences into verbal ones:

(20) تعتبر القراءة غذاء العقل

The verb inserted تعتبر agrees with the subject القراءة in number (singular) and gender (feminine), and is placed in the beginning to form the verbal sentence (20). In this case, the English translation can either remind the same and does not require any changes: *Reading is the food of the mind*, or the word **considered** is added: *Reading is considered the food of the mind*. In inserting the same verb (تعتبر) in sentence (18) to form a verbal sentence, the following example occurs:

(21) تعتبر الصوتيات هي الدراسة العلمية لأصوات الكلام

The structure presented in example (21) is considered an ill-formed one, due to the fact that certain elements must be omitted when such verbs are inserted. In the case of sentence (21), the word هي must be deleted. Thus, the sentence becomes:

(22) تعتبر الصوتيات الدراسة العلمية لأصوات الكلام

The English translation of sentence (22) would also be the same as the previous one: *Phonetics is the scientific study of speech sounds* or it can be literary translated into: *Phonetics is considered the scientific study speech sounds*.

## **2.4. Conclusion to Chapter II**

In summary, Contrastive Analysis (CA) is the analytical examination of a pair of languages to investigate and describe the differences and similarities in their structural formations; this type of study is often useful for teaching (especially SLA or FLA) as well as translation studies. Recent studies in contrastive linguistics aims at identifying the ways the two particular languages are different from one another, for the reason of coming up with certain explanations to solve practical problems that occur especially during the language learning process. Therefore, the two languages are compared and contrasted with the purpose of guiding and helping second-language learners through pointing out the possible areas of difficulty they can face while learning the target language. Furthermore, Contrastive Analysis has been a useful method in translation theory and studies to examine issues of ‘equivalence’ (when the same meaning occurs in two languages that are different). Different from the other types of comparative studies in linguistics, Contrastive Analysis mainly studies modern languages that exist.

In referring to the Contrastive Analysis (CA), Standard English and Standard Arabic were contrastively analyzed to draw the similarities and differences between them. From a typological point of view Standard English and Standard Arabic are different from one another in various aspects. They are genetically unrelated and morphologically different as well as following different grammatical rules in their sentence formation. The use of the Contrastive Analysis method in studying the two languages has been a successful tool in explaining and revealing the key distinctions that are the main cause of difficulty in the leaning process. In conclusion, while the Arabic language is considered an VSO language with an SVO alternative, the English language is strict in its word-order: it is considered an SVO language. This key distinction between word-order patterns of simple sentence structures in English and Arabic reveals that the two languages are to a great extent different from each other, and it has been proven through the examples of sentence structures taken from both languages.

## **CHAPTER III: WORD-ORDER ERRORS IN ENGLISH-ARABIC TRANSLATION**

### **3.1. The Concept of Translation**

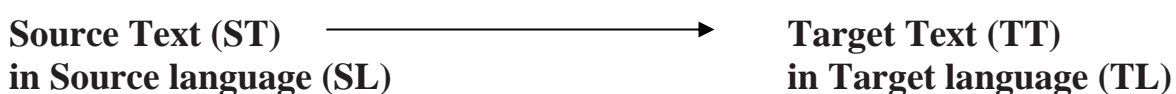
Nowadays, translation is considered a cross-cultural communicative act that has become one of the most required areas in linguistic investigation. To convey the exact meaning from one language into another using different words and sentence structures in various contexts is rather a difficult process; it requires deficiency in both languages in addition to translation expertise. In translation, a variety of language components and characteristics are taken into consideration; these constituents are all part of linguistics, they include: semantics, morphology, syntax, grammar, discourse, context and many others. Additionally, translation is considered as an interlingual interaction performance that involves various spheres which are connected to any human language; these include culture, religion, politics, different social groups and so on. It is important to point out that in translation; meaning is the language component that is often translated rather than a word, sound, style or even grammar. Meaning is considered to be a complex organization or a result of various linguistic components involving vocabulary, style, grammatical rules, sounds, and language usage. In most of the times, anything which is not related to meaning is not seen as translation, however, sometimes there are some exceptions in which sound forms are more important than meanings; for instance in poetry. Furthermore, meaning can be composed from a single word or a group of words for it to be understood separately. Therefore, a word is considered to be the smallest unit of meaning whereas a sentence is the largest unit of meaning. In order to thoroughly understand it, translation must be observed as an act of communication guided by account of comprehensibility and readability, instead of an act of prescription learned by rigid and archaic examinations of what is correct and what is not. Thus, translation can be defined as the act of exchanging the meaning of a text in a source language through means of an equivalent text in a target language, usually from L1 to L2 or vice versa [Akan et al. 2019: 59].

According to E. Nida and C. Taber (1969) translation is the process of “reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source-language message, first in meaning and secondly in style” [Nida & Taber 1969: 12]. Due to the fact that translation continuously seeks out to transfer a message (or a meaning) from the Source Language (SL, henceforth) into the Target Language (TL, henceforth), it is usually followed by many issues which result from the differences that exist in both languages or differences in the cultures they represent. From this it is necessary to point out that translation issues are either linguistic and/or cultural [Saudi 2008: 1].

J. Munday (2016) pointed out that the term *translation* in English, which was first verified in around 1340, comes from Old French *translation* or more precisely from the Latin *translatio* (transporting), which itself coming from the participle of the verb *transferre* (meaning: to carry over). In the sphere of linguistic studies, translation nowadays refers to:

- 1) The general subject field or phenomenon (e.g. Tom studies translation at university);
- 2) The product, i.e. the text that has been translated (e.g. I read the English translation of the book);
- 3) The process of producing the translation, also known as translating (translation services) [Munday 2016: 8].

Then Munday (2016) continued that the act of translation between two different languages entails the changing of a source text (or ST) in the SL from its original verbal language into a written text (target text or TT) in a different verbal language of the TL. In order to demonstrate that, Munday (2016) provided the following scheme (**Scheme 2**):



**Scheme 2.** The Process of Translation according to Munday  
**Source:** [Munday 2016: 8]

Furthermore, the classic ST-TT structure is the most prototypical of ‘interlingual translation’; it is considered one of the three types of translation explained by the Russo-American structuralist Roman Jakobson in his seminal work ‘On Linguistic Aspects of Translation’ [Munday 2016: 9]. Jakobson (1971) provided the following three types of translation:

- 1) Intralingual translation or rewording is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language;
- 2) Interlingual translation or translation proper is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language;
- 3) Intersemiotic translation or transmutation is an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs or non-verbal sign system [Jakobson 1959: 233].

In translation, word-order transfers often happen in almost each sentence of any translated texts, in spite of any language pair and translation course. Furthermore, some of these transfers are considered compulsory, due to the fact that they ensure the grammatically correct sentences in the TL. Other word-order transfers are considered non-compulsory, or optional. Optional word-order transfers happen in order to make sure that the sentences of the TL are coherent. In addition to that, compulsory transfers of word-order which lead to grammatically correct sentences in the TL may alter the structure of communication, the text can become incoherent, units of less/ no importance can be emphasised while the important units are neglected. Thus, numerous optional word-order transfers are carried out to maintain the structure of communication in the TL sentence, and therefore the coherence of the whole text [Klaudy 2010: 307]. According to J. C. Catford (1965), transfer (or shifts) is “departure from formal correspondence in the process of going from SL to TL” [Catford 1965: 73].

Hence, in order to analyze translation in word order patterns of simple sentence structures in Standard Arabic and English, a comparison and contrast of the patterns of the two languages is to be conducted through highlighting the basic structures and

characterizing their word arrangements, on one hand, and on the other hand to determine the most frequent and common errors in translation, and explain the reasons of their emergence. Error analysis is necessary to ensure the effectiveness of the translation process, including the right word order patterns in sentence structures.

The asymmetry in word order patterns that exist in sentence structures of different languages is one manifestation among many others that prove the dissimilarity between languages. Many studies involving word order typology on a variety of languages confirm that, on the one hand, a number of languages are believed to have a restricted, also referred to as ‘fixed,’ word order system, on the other hand, many others are more flexible and free in their word order. According to A. Siewierska [Siewierska 1988:8], basic word order is usually found in neutral, independent, indicative clauses with noun phrase (NP) components, in which the subject is definite, agentive and human, while the object is a definite semantic element, and the verb stands for an action, rather than a state or an event.

Moreover, in flexible or free word-order languages, the sentence remains semantically the same and grammatically correct even when the order of words is altered, these languages are morphologically rich, due to the fact that meaning is conveyed through means of inflections rather than by word order linearity. For instance, Russian is considered a flexible language, the following sentences (1 and 2) are both correct in Russian, whereas in English, sentence (1) is correct (**Table 11**).

**Table 11**

**The Order of Words in Russian and their Equivalence in English**

<b>Sentence in Russian</b>	<b>Latin transcript</b>	<b>Equivalence in English</b>
(1) Я люблю маму	/ <i>ya lyublyu mamu</i> /	I love mom
(2) Я маму люблю	/ <i>ya mamu lyublyu</i> /	I mom love*

\*Semantically and grammatically incorrect.

Furthermore, languages that have flexible or free word order are of two subtypes; the first subtype is when one order is most commonly found than the other, and is considered as the dominant word order in that language, Standard Arabic is an example of a language that has a flexible word order (both SVO and VSO) with the dominance of the VSO word order pattern. The other subtype is the one that lacks a dominant order, Nunggubuyu (Gunwinyguan; northern Australia) is an example of such a language. However, word order change is occasionally ambiguous. Dryer points out that when the word order is free and flexible, it may lead to ambiguity because there are usually some pragmatic aspects that determine which order of words must be chosen in a particular utterance [Dryer 2005:330].

In 1986, Tomlin carried out a linear word order survey in a sample containing 402 languages. It was concluded that SOV and SVO are the most common word order patterns, with 44.78% and 41.79%, correspondingly. VSO word order occupy only 9.20% whilst all other languages with VOS, OVS, and OSV word order patterns occupy not more than 5% of the whole number of languages [Btoosh 2017:24]. Arabic and English are two languages different from one another; belonging to two different language families (Arabic is Semitic whereas English is Germanic), having different characteristics: Arabic is characterized by its rich morphology and complex grammatical structures, for that reason it is considered a fusional language, while English is analytic since there is only very little inflection and word order is very important for understanding the meaning. Standard Arabic is a language with a large number of features which allow it apt for cross-linguistic comparative morpho-syntax studies, also for the theory of grammar. The morphology of SA is characterized as being non-concatenate, despite the fact that a rich analytic affixation makes word formation hierarchical in nature [Fehri 1993:xi].

In the world, people belong to different societies and speech communities; each community has its own culture, religious beliefs, language and many other aspects. The nature of the human being urges him/her to communicate, understand, exchange thoughts, and participate in everyday discourse through the use of languages. Therefore, translating from one language into the other is necessary for people to



facilitate the communicative process and to ensure the transmission of messages across different cultures and speech communities. However, to translate from one language into the other and to keep the meaning unchanged is not an easy task to perform; one must be aware of the differences between the languages involved, as well as the techniques that can be employed in the translation process. For that reason, the current study focuses mainly on analyzing the basic word order patterns in English and Standard Arabic, highlighting the key differences between the two languages, and the errors which occur in the process of English- Arabic word order translation.

### **3.2. Standard Arabic Word-order**

The analysis of sentence components and word order constituents of the oldest form of Arabic, Standard Arabic, or more commonly ‘SA,’ was documented and registered by both Arab grammarians and philologists alike during the first centuries of the Islamic empire. It was concluded that there are two word order patterns of sentence structure in SA which are frequently used in formal texts and everyday conversations; VSO (the subject comes directly after the verb) and SVO (the subject comes before the verb), arguably, it has pointed out that agreement patterns on the verb morphology are noticeably with these two word order patterns [Fakih 2016:21].

Medieval grammarians as well as modern Arabic linguists have always been interested in the subject of sentence types in Standard Arabic. Regarding sentence types, SA syntax allow two types: nominal and verbal sentences. However, traditional Arabic linguists different points of view in regard to the two types of sentences found in SA. On the one hand, Basri grammarians state that a sentence is nominal if it starts with a noun whereas a sentence is verbal if it starts with a verb. On the other hand, Kufi grammarians believe that a verbal sentence is the one which consists of a verb regardless of its place in the sentence. Additionally, SA is considered a language rich with inflectional forms in which mood, case, number (singular, dual, and plural), gender, and all grammatical functions are marked by short vowels. In addition to diversity and variations in lexis and morphology, SA differentiates itself from the dialectal varieties of Arabic spoken in particular areas (for instance, Algerian, Syrian,

Egyptian and many others) in terms of basic word order and agreement. Nevertheless, whilst the basic word order is VSO in SA, SVO is the most frequent word order in all other dialectal varieties, but it is necessary to point out that both SA and dialectal varieties of Arabic agree with the basic order of the other, with both word order patterns being acceptable and used [Btoosh 2017:25].

From the viewpoint of generative grammar, VSO is the basic word order in SA while SVO can be constructed with subject movement. In his book, Al-Khuli (1982) conducted a statistical survey of the most common structures in SA, he gathered data from eighty 50-word long paragraphs taken mainly from literary texts, education materials, historical literary, religious texts, geography, physics, mathematics, economics, biology, psychology, health, and general science found in monthly and weekly magazines, daily newspapers, and books of junior and senior high school. His results show that verbal sentences comprise 64.21% from the total number of sentence structures.

Subsequently, in their research, Abdul-Raof (1998) and Parkinson (1981) came across variations in the percentage of VSO patterns in certain genres and styles. In novels and plays the percentage of VSO patterns is 60% and 80%, respectively, in main headlines the percentage is 100%, in sub-headlines 92%, in political speeches 48%, in editorials and short stories 39%, in linguistics dissertations 34%, in magazines 30%, in scholarly journals and political science 27%, and in news articles 8%. Abdul-Raof pointed out that Arabic speakers and writers alike usually prefer VSO structures unless they have a good reason to use SVO. It is necessary to say that moving from VSO to SVO is pragmatically motivated, and has a correlation with discourse and style; pragmatic aspects and discourse features that influence the choice of the SVO pattern instead of the VSO one are the followings: in contrast and new information, in introducing a discourse topic of discussion, discourse structure and organization of information. Syntactically, SVO word order patterns (nominal sentences and clauses) are found in the following cases shown in (**Table 12**) with examples (all examples are taken from SA, and not from any colloquial forms of the language):

Table 12

## Cases in SVO and their Equivalence in English

Cases of SVO	Examples	Equivalence in English
sentences containing a subject and a predicate	<i>/albaytu jamilun/ البيت جميل</i>	<i>The house is beautiful</i>
sentences starting with emphatic /inna/	<i>/inna al-jawa mushmisun/ إن الجو مشمس</i>	The weather is sunny
sentences starting with auxiliary /kaana/	<i>/kaana al-tilmidhu mujtahidaan/ كان التلميذ مجتهدا</i>	The pupil was hardworking
sentences starting with the negative particle /laa/	<i>/laa darara fi al-muhawala/ لا ضرر في المحاولة</i>	No harm in trying
after /thanna/ ‘thought’ group	<i>/thanna al-nassu aana al-mahala mughlaqun/ ظن الناس أن المحل مغلق</i>	People thought that the shop is closed
after /qaala/ ‘said’	<i>/Ahmed qaala aana al-kitaba shayiqun/ احمد قال أن الكتاب شيق</i>	Ahmed said that the book is interesting
after /axbara/ ‘told’	<i>/Yusuf axbara al-djamiaa aanaho qadimun/ يوسف اخبر الجميع انه قادم</i>	Yusuf told everyone that he is coming
to answer certain interrogatives	<i>/kayfa hiya ahwaluka al-yawm?/: كيف هي أحوالك اليوم? /ahwali kuloha b khayr/ ب: أحوالي كلها بخير</i>	A: how are you doing today? B: everything is fine

--	--	--

As for VSO word order patterns (verbal sentences), the following table (**Table 13**) illustrate the cases with examples from SA sentence structures:

**Table 13**

**Cases in VSO and their Equivalence in English**

<b>Cases of VSO</b>	<b>Examples</b>	<b>Equivalence in English</b>
Conditional sentences that start with certain particles	مَا كَتَبَ التَّلْمِيذُ الدَّرْسَ /maa kataba al-tilmidho al-darssa/	The pupil did not write the lesson
When independent subject pronouns are deleted. Independent pronoun usage in subject position is discourse-based	(أَنَا) قَرَأْتُ الْكِتَابَ /(ana) qaraato al-kitaba/ The subject pronoun (ana أنا) is deleted.	I read the book
After sentence initial adverbials and prepositional phrases		
Passive clauses	كُتِبَ الْمَقَالُ /kutiba al-maqalo/	The article was written

**3.3. English Word-order in Simple Sentence**

Verspoor and Sauter define the English simple sentence as ‘A simple sentence consists of one main clause only. However, this does not mean that the sentence has to be very short.’ Additionally, the main clause (which contains a subject and a verb) is referred to as the independent clause (a clause that can stand alone because it expresses

a complete idea); a simple sentence contains not more than one independent clause, and it does not contain any dependent clauses (clauses that cannot be alone in a sentence because they express incomplete ideas), for this reason it is called a simple sentence [Verspoor and Sauter, 2000: p. 35]. Moreover, a basic simple sentence in English can also be explained as a sentence which contains a Noun Phrase (NP) and an Intransitive Verb (In.V), that is (Sen. = NP+VP), consider the following example:

*The movie began*

Sentence (Sen.) = the movie began

Sen. = Noun Phrase (NP) + Verb Phrase (VP)

NP= Determiner (Det) + Noun (N)

Det= the

N= movie

VP= Intransitive Verb (In. V)

VP= began

In the English language the (NP) is the basic element of the simple sentence and cannot be changed unless the form of the sentence is changed to a question, imperative, etc. additionally, what comes after the NP is put obligatory, it is the VP; without VP, the sentence cannot exist. Finally, what follows the (VP) is greatly dependent on the type of the verb used whether auxiliary or lexical, and if it is lexical it can be a non-complement verb (intransitive) or a complement verb (non-transitive, transitive), etc. Subsequently, the English simple sentence has four basic types: declarative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory. Verspoor and Sauter mention that a declarative sentence (which is considered the most common sentence type) is when people want to inform someone of something such as in statements; an imperative is used when someone want another one to get to do something such as in commands or orders; an interrogative sentence is when someone asks another one for information (questions); and an exclamatory sentence is used to express one's attitude towards someone or something. Verspoor and Sauter add that each of these four types has its own syntactic structure: a declarative involves a subject+ a complete verb, an

imperative involves a verb which can stand alone, an interrogative involves a part of verb+ a subject+ the rest of verb, and an exclamatory sentence contains how...what a (an)... then the rest of the sentence [Verspoor and Sauter, 2000: p. 17]. The following examples show the syntactic structure of each type:

A declarative: *Charlie is reading a novel.*

An imperative: *bring me my keys, please!*

An interrogative: *Is it raining outside?*

An exclamatory: *thank you, how nice of you!*

Since declarative sentences are the most frequent type of sentences that are found in English, word order in this type provides the basic word order for the rest of sentence types. The basic minimal word order pattern in declarative sentences is subject+predicate; for instance: *Harry drives, time changes*, etc. furthermore, the most common pattern of basic word order in English declarative sentences is subject+predicate+object, or simply subject+verb+object (SVO), for example: *Harry drives a bus, Nora eats an apple*, etc. a simple declarative sentence in English consists of all five main parts of a sentence, here is the example: *Martin saw a beautiful cat yesterday*, the word order of the sentence can be explain as follows: the subject (Martin) is put at the beginning of the sentence before the verb (saw); the verb comes after the subject; the object (a cat) comes after the verb: the adverbial modifier (yesterday) comes after the object; the attribute (the adjective 'beautiful') comes before its noun.

Unlike Standard Arabic, Standard English has a strict and a rather inflexible word order, due to the fact that there are few endings that represent person, number, case and tense, and English depends on word order to explain the correlations between its sentence components. Standard Arabic has both SVO and VSO word order patterns, and can be found interchangeably in written text, though one more frequently - VSO, while English has only one which is SVO, and does not accept other sentence structures. The following table (**Table 14**) presents some examples from the VSO and SVO word order patterns in SA and their literal translation into English.

## VSO and SVO in Arabic and Their Literal Translation into English

VSO and SVO in Arabic		Literal translation into English	
VSO	SVO	VSO	SVO
كتب احمد الدرس /kataba Ahmedun al-darsa/	احمد كتب الدرس /Ahmedun kataba al-darsa/	Wrote Ahmed the lesson	Ahmed wrote the lesson
شاهد مراد الفيلم الوثائقي /chahada Muradun al-filma al-wataqi:/	مراد شاهد الفيلم الوثائقي /Muradun chahada al-filma al- wataqi:/	Watched Murad the documentary	Murad watched the documentary
ينام الرضيع على السريير /yanamu al-radie alaa al-sariri/	الرضيع ينام على السريير /al-radie yanamu alaa al-sariri/	Sleeps the baby on the bed	The baby sleeps on the bed
ذهب الأب إلى السوق /dahaba al-abu ila al-suqi/	الأب ذهب إلى السوق /al-abu dahaba ila al-suqi/	Went the father to the market	The father went to the market
يجلس يوسف على الأريكة /yajlisu Yusuf alaa al-arikati/	يوسف يجلس على الأريكة /Yusuf yajlis alaa al-arikati/	Sits Yusuf on the sofa	Yusuf sits on the sofa

The nature of the free-word-order system of SA allows the sentences to shift from the VSO to the SVO word order pattern with no alterations in the forms of nouns, verbs, and objects, as well the meaning of the sentences which remains unchangeable. On the other hand, only the SVO patterns in SA are semantically and grammatically acceptable in the English Language (see Table 4).

### 3.4. Errors in Translation in Word-order

Nowadays, translation is crucial in our daily life due to the fact that it is considered one of the most effective ways in facilitating human interaction and cross-cultural communication. At our present times of globalization, the widespread of immigration, and the development in different fields such as science, culture, trade, information technology and many others, the necessity of translation became inevitable. Translation is considered one area of contrastive linguistics studies because it involves analyzing and comparing at least two different languages and their diverse cultures. Moreover, translation is a method of transmitting meaning of a written or spoken text from one language (source language) system to the other (target language) using different words which are directly correspondent to the target language, new terms, foreign words written in target language or using foreign terms to conform to the pronunciation of the target language [Akan et.al 2019:58].

According to Cambridge Online English dictionary (2019) translation is the activity or process of changing the words of one language into the words in another language that have the same meaning [Cambridge English Dictionary URL: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/translation> (accessed 20.12.2019)]. S. Bassnett (1980) reveals, “Translation involves the transfer of ‘meaning’ contained in one set of language signs into another set of language signs through competent use of the dictionary and grammar; the process involves a whole set of extra-linguistic criteria also” [Bassnett 1981:21]. A translated text in the language must have the equivalent qualities and effects on readers as the original one, as well as encourage the similar feedback from the readers; therefore, a translator is simultaneously a reader and a writer. Subsequently, when faced with the question: what is translation? Francis Steele provided a satisfying answer:

“A translation should convey as much of the original text in as few words as possible, yet preserve the original atmosphere and emphasis. The translator should strive for the nearest approximation in words, concepts, and cadence. He should scrupulously avoid adding words or ideas not demanded by the text. His job is not to expand or to explain, but to translate and preserve the spirit and force of the



original...Not just ideas, but words are important; so also is the emphasis indicated by word order in the sentence” [as quoted in Akan et.al 2019:58].

Additionally, it is important to point out that meaning in a language is generated through various constituents of that language; these constituents are as follows: vocabulary items, the set of grammatical structures and rules, as well as stylistics and phonological properties. Grammar is a very crucial language element that involves a thoroughly knowledge of the two interconnected linguistic disciplines - morphology and syntax; morphology mainly focuses on the study of morphemes and how they work in the word system, whereas syntax emphasizes the rules governing the combination of these words to form different sentence structures that are grammatically correct [Attayib & Shamsan 2016: 282]. Accordingly, translation from Arabic into English or vice versa requires the methods and techniques necessary for conveying meaning, therefore, EFL Arab learners as well as English learners of Arabic must be aware and knowledgeable of the language constituents mentioned above in both languages in order to facilitate the translation process from one language to the other.

However, Arabic-English as well as English-Arabic translation is not an easy process, due to the fact that, both language are totally different from one another in many aspects; on the one hand, Arabic and English are different language families; the former is Semitic (belonging to the Asian family of languages) while the latter is Germanic (the Indo-European family). On the other hand Arabic and English are also phonetically, phonologically, semantically, morphologically, pragmatically and syntactically different. Syntactically, English and Arabic are to a great extent different from one another, these differences include structure of sentences, word-order, subject-verb agreement and others, but the current focus is on word order. In short, Arabic is a free-word-order language (FWO) which means that its sentence’s structure is both SVO and VSO, in statements, while word order in English is a fixed (FIWO), i.e., its sentence’s structure is only SVO. This major difference between the two language leads to errors in translation from one language into the other. From a translation viewpoint, errors are a predictable part in the process of changing words from one language to another while keeping the same meaning.

### **3.4.1. The Concept of Error**

It is important to point out that error is the most natural aspect related to any human being. Whether a child acquiring his/her mother tongue, or an adult learning a second/a foreign language; both make errors in understanding and producing a language. In the process of foreign language learning, error mainly has been seen as a negative thing which implies failure and interfering process and, therefore must be avoided. The concept of error as a result of learning that has to be avoided was reinforced by the ‘behaviorism approach’ that considered this phenomenon as ‘bad habits’ resulted from ineffective teaching and, hence declares that if these errors are repeated they become habits. According to the behaviorists learning theory, old habits obstruct or facilitate the formation of new habits; therefore errors are undesirable. This approach states that errors would never be committed in the first place in order to realize an effective teaching approach. A different standpoint from the behaviorists’ is the one which regards ‘error’ as an important element to the learning process, for without the learning process does not progress. This notion shows a more practical approach towards errors which are considered as evidence that language acquisition is working, therefore errors are no longer seen as ‘bad’ but rather ‘natural’[Hemaidia 2016:36].

In Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), there is a strong belief that errors result from language interference when a language learner transfer the same linguistic aspects of his/her native language (NL) into the target language (TL). Moreover, this kind of transfer is considered a ‘negative’ one and it particularly happen when the native language is different from the target one. Due to this fact, applied linguists dedicated their study to the comparison and contrast of the NL and the TL in order to draw every possible assumption and explain the occurrence of such errors in the learning process [ibid: 41].

### 3.4.2. Errors in word order of English-Arabic translation

R. Al-Jarf (2007) says that in spite of the fact that word order has been discovered to be a significant issue in translation, analysis on subject-verb-object errors and verb-subject-object errors in English-Arabic translation are still in short. Translation errors analysis is one way to acknowledge students' weak points, the techniques they use in translating VSO sentences, and the circumstances which affect their code-switching. Moreover, translation errors help in raising awareness of word order differences in sentence structures between English and Arabic. In her study, Al-Jarf made an attempt to explain the nature, frequency and deviations that are likely to happen in subject-verb-object sentence structures in translated texts from English into SA made by advanced college majoring in translation studies. The aim of her study is to observe the percentage of irregularity in SVO sentences in English-Arabic (L2-L1) translation, the number of irregularities in the positioning of verbs, the percentage of interlingual mistakes, and the parts where L1 is inadequate. Furthermore, Al-Jarf's study presents the percentage of SVO irregularities in terms of pragmatics, discourse, and semantics, as well as the specific syntactic settings where SVO irregularities appear and the techniques employed by the students to force SVO word order patterns [Al-Jarf 2007: 300].

**The Subjects Involved in the Study.** The study involved 46 senior female translation-majored students at the College of Languages and Translation (COLT), King Saud University also took part in the study. All subjects were all native speakers of Arabic. They all had finished courses in EFL (66 hours), linguistics (11 hours), interpretation (15 hours), written translation in 18 different subject matters (36 hours), target culture (7 hours), and Arabic syntax and morphology (18 hours) [ibid:301].

Given the fact that the process of calculating the deviation percentage of SVO sentence structures in an output translation is rather a complicated one, 32 senior students were given a test where they were asked to translate ten English stretches of discourse (median length= 20 words; range= 8-37 words) into Arabic. Additionally, 472 deviant SVO structures were collected from the translations of 14 graduating

seniors. Later on, errors were collected from the first translation of the source text. Deviant SVO sentence structures were those clauses or sentences where the verb was misplaced after the subject according to the context in which they appeared. Three professors of Arabic analyzed the error data [Al-Jarf 2007: 301-302].

## **The Results of the Study**

### **a) Frequency and source of SVO errors:**

The results of the translation test revealed that the translators (students) have provided 176 or 50% SVO sentences where the subject was misplaced before the verb, even if all the English stretches demanded an Arabic translation with a VSO order. The study of the 472 deviant SVO structures in Arabic revealed that the translators borrowed the English SVO order. The reasons for the transfer of the English SVO order to Arabic were as follows:

- The students were unaware of differences in word order of both languages.
- The students tended to translate word-by-word rather than by meaning.
- The students lacked comprehension of the source text because it was linguistically complex; therefore, they were unable to reproduce meaning in the target language.
- The students lacked adequate competence in Arabic; at least one grammatical rule in Arabic was violated in 32% of the deviant SVO structures, , 62% were pragmatic and 55% were related to discourse due to the fact that students were unable to recognize the discourse structure and information organization.

The following examples were taken from the translation test:

(1) *A geological formation [in which oil is accumulated] 1 [is a permeable reservoir of rock] 2 [sealed by a cap rock] 3 [known as a "trap"] 4 and is capable of exploitation as an oil field.*

wa-ttakwiinu l-jiyuuluujii [min Haythu **tarakumi** SSuxuuri **l-xaazina l-masduuda** fii Saxri l-GiTaa?] **yu9rafu** bi-smi maSyada...

(2) Venezuela, world's No. 1 crude exporter, [*is caught between fellow OPEC members and [chief customer U.S.] during oil crisis spawned by Arab-Israeli war.*]

vinizwillaa lmuSaddiru l?awwal li-nnafTi l-xaam wa-hiya ?aHadu ?a9Daa?i munaDHDHamati upik xilaala ?azmati nnafTi nnaashi?a bi-sababi l-Harbi l-?arabiyya l-?israa?iiliyya.

In example (1) the target verb 'is' was deleted and the passive verbs 'is accumulated' and 'sealed' were replaced by the derived nouns /taraakumi/ and /lmasduuda/ respectively. The subordinate clauses 2, 3, 4 were reduced to one clause in the translation. The verb 'known' was replaced by the Arabic passive verb /yu9rafu/.

In example (2), the students were not able to understand the meaning of 'is caught between fellow' and 'chief customer U.S.,' that is why both were deleted and not translated, while the rest of the sentence was translated word by word [Al-Jarf 2007: 303].

#### **b) Syntactic contexts in which deviant SVO 's occurred:**

The study showed that 34% of the subjects were misplaced before the verb when the head noun was inserted in a long or complex NP. In 17% of the deviant SVO orders, subjects were incorrectly positioned before passive verbs even in short noun phrases. In compound and complex sentences, 12% of subjects were misplaced before the verb. In addition, in conditional sentences, 3% of the subjects were also misplaced. In nominal clauses following /inna/, the subjects were also misplaced [ibid: 304].

#### **c) Avoidance strategies used in connected discourse and in isolation:**

In order to enforce an SVO word order structures, contrast particles such as /ammaa/ 'as for' were added at the beginning of sentences, the technique was employed in 46% of the deviated SVO orders. Another technique involved the use of the emphatic

particle /inna/; it appeared in 16% of SVO structures. Furthermore, 16% of the deviated SVO orders used verbal nouns rather than verbs as a third avoidance method. A fourth method involved the use of independent subject pronouns (6%) [Al-Jarf 2007: 305,306]

To sum up, deviant SVO structures which appeared in different syntactic contexts and the techniques employed to enforce SVO structures indicates that the subjects involved in the study are not proficient in the following grammatical aspects:

- to place the controlling subject before the verb when it is a part of a long or complex NP;
- when the verb is passive;
- when conjunctions are used;
- before auxiliary verbs;
- when relative pronouns were used;
- after /inna/ ‘that;’
- in parallel structures;
- in conditional sentences;
- in declarative sentences that require deletion of independent subject pronouns [see: Al-Jarf 2007: 306].

### **3.5. Conclusion to Chapter III**

It is crucial to state that in order for translators or translation-learners to master SVO and VSO structures in English-Arabic or Arabic-English translation, methods and instructions in translation must be improved. In addition to that, special courses designed for translation in both languages are necessary to ensure the efficiency of the translation process. These courses must put emphasis on structures where errors commonly occur; for instance, the misplacement of subjects embedded in long and complex noun phrases, with auxiliaries and passives, after conditional particles and so on. Moreover, there must be more research and study in the area of contrasting the English and the Arabic languages. Exercises and texts are also highly recommended for learners to use them as tools to recognize instances of VSO and SVO word-order patterns that occur in translation contexts. Learners must also be exposed to different texts from a variety of language sources, such as some published translated texts from various registers and genres [Al-Jarf 2007: 307].

In linguistics, translation is rather a complicated process, particularly in changing the aspects and properties of two languages that are originally different from one another. Translating word-order patterns in both languages is somehow tricky, due to the fact that Arabic and English have different sentence structures and belong to different word order typologies; while the former is flexible (both VSO and SVO), the latter is fixed (only SVO), and this could lead to a series of misunderstandings and confusions in translation, for that reason, translating from Arabic into English or vice versa requires significant bilingual capacities and an in-depth study that ensure an effective transmission of meaning. At the end, comparative studies and contrastive analysis of different languages is one way to help translators, readers, teachers and learners in the translation area with straightforward information.

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

The present research work is established with the theoretical review to describe the concepts which are directly related to the comparison and contrast of two major languages that are spoken in large parts of the world: English and Arabic. Both languages are equally important and have established a special rank amongst other world languages. Contrastive linguistics is a branch of linguistics that was developed in order to study, describe and contrast languages to specifically identify and verify how far a particular aspect can be relevant to two or more languages. This type of in-depth comparison between languages usually acknowledges multidimensional correlations, establishing new cognitive points of view. Furthermore, contrastive linguistics has certain practical functions: its findings aim at contrasting grammars, lexicons, and phonologies of two or more languages and are helpful in second/or foreign language learning, translation studies, and bilingual dictionaries [Dirven & Verspoor 2004: 247].

The current research paper is also devoted to the contrastive study of English and Arabic in terms of their word-order patterns of simple sentence structures. It aims at revealing the key similarities and differences between the two languages. Through the use of the Contrastive Analysis method, a line of distinction was drawn to point out the areas where the two languages differ from one another. The contrastive and typological process of both languages and their linguistic systems essentially involves contrasting the features of morphology (word-formation, inflection, compounding of different parts of speech), syntax (sentence types, parts of speech, etc.) and phonology (speech sounds) which belong to each language separately.

Firstly, in terms of their origins: English and Arabic are genetically unrelated; while the former belongs to the Germanic family of languages, the latter belongs to the Semitic family of languages. Secondly, in their morphological classifications, Standard Arabic is considered a fusional (or inflecting) language, though dialectal variations of Arabic are seen as analytic due to the fact that most of them have lost noun declensions as well as containing simplified conjugation. On the other hand,



English is directed towards being a more isolating type of structure; however elements from other types occur in the language, for instance: the English word *anti-dis-establish-ment-arian-ism* (antidisestablishmentarianism) shows the elements of an agglutinating language. Third, from a syntactic point of view, English and Arabic also differ in terms of the grammatical roles governing the formation of sentences, as well as the word-order patterns of simple sentences in particular: the former has a fixed word-order (accepting only an SVO order) while the latter has a free word-order (an VSO with an SVO alternative order).

In linguistics, translation is rather a complicated process, particularly in changing the aspects and properties of two languages that are originally different from one another. Translating word-order patterns in both languages is somehow tricky, due to the fact that Arabic and English have different sentence structures and belong to different word order typologies; while the former is flexible (both VSO and SVO), the latter is fixed (only SVO), and this could lead to a series of misunderstandings and confusions in translation, for that reason, translating from Arabic into English or vice versa requires significant bilingual capacities and an in-depth study that ensure an effective transmission of meaning. At the end, comparative studies and contrastive analysis of different languages is one way to help translators, readers, teachers and learners in the translation area with straightforward information.

This research paper can create and provoke further studies and analysis in the area of word-order pattern examination between English and Arabic as well as other languages that are considered typological different from one another. Furthermore, additional investigation involving the comparison of two or more languages to identify and describe their linguistic specifics is useful for second/foreign language teaching through the selection of the most appropriate teaching materials that are designed to ensure the effective learning of the target language. Through the identification of essential language elements such as sentence structures and word-order patterns, the process of learning a second/foreign language becomes easier and more effective.

## REFERENCE LIST

- 1) احمد يحيى- الاتجاه الوظيفي ودوره في تحليل اللغة (مقال), مجلة عالم الفكر, وزارة الإعلام في الكويت, 1989. [Yahia Ahmed. *Functional Approach and Its Role in Language Analysis*]. العدد\20 أكتوبر, نوفمبر, ديسمبر 1989.
- 2) الطاهر قطبي, بحوث في اللغة (الاستفهام بين النحو و البلاغة, دراسة مقارنة, القسم الثالث), ديوان المطبوعات الجامعية, بن عكنون, الجزائر, 1992. [Qutbi Al-tahir. *Language Research (Question between Grammar and Rhetoric: A Comparative Study, Third Part)*]
- 3) الأزهرى (أبو منصور محمد بن محمد بن احمد), تهذيب اللغة, تحقيق يعقوب عبد النبي, مراجعة ا. محمد علي نجار, دار المطبوعة للتأليف و الترجمة, سلسلة تراثنا, مطابع سجل العرب, القاهرة, مصر, ط 1, دت. [Al-Azhari Abu-Mansour. *Refining the Language*].
- 4) تمام حسان, اللغة العربية (معناها ومبناها), عالم الكتب, القاهرة, مصر, ط 5, 2006. [Tamam Hassan. *The Arabic Language : its Meaning and Structure*].
- 5) عبد الرحمان الحاج صالح, بحوث و دراسات في اللسانيات العربية, موفم للنشر, الجزائر, 2007. [Al-Hadj Saleh AbdelRahmane. *Research and Studies in Arabic Linguistics*].
- 6) كتاب الجمل في النحو, تحقيق و دراسة خديجة محمد باكستاني (دراسة ماجستير مخطوطة), جامعة ام القرى, المملكة العربية السعودية, 1407 هـ - 1408 هـ, 1987م - 1988 م. [Pakistani Khadija Mohammed. *The Book of Sentence Grammar*].
- 7) خديجة الحديثي, الشاهد و أصول النحو في كتاب سيبويه, مطبوعات جامعة الكويت, الكويت, د (ط), 1974. [Al-Hathy Khadija. *The Origins of Grammar in the Book of Sibawiyah*]. 1394 هـ, 1974.
- 8) العسكري (أبو هلال), الفروق في اللغة, تحقيق لجنة إحياء التراث العربي لدار الأفاق الجديدة, نشر دار الأفاق الجديدة, بيروت, لبنان, ط 4, 1400 هـ, 1980 م. [Al-Askari Abu-Hillal. *Differences in Language*].
- 9) خليل احمد عمايرة, في نحو اللغة العربية و تراكيبها (منهج و تطبيق), دراسات و آراء في ضوء علم اللغة المعاصر, عالم المعرفة, جدة, ط 1, 1404 هـ, 1984 م. [Amayra Khalil Ahmed. *The Grammar and Structures of the Arabic Language: Method and Application*].
- 10) منطق العرب في علوم اللسان, منشورات المجمع الجزائري للغة العربية, الجزائر, 2010. [The Arab Logic in Linguistics].
- 11) سيبويه أبو بشر عمرو ابن عثمان ابن قنبر البصريّ (1988). الكتاب [Sibawayh, A.A. *Al-Kitāb*].

- 12) غنيم غانم عبد الكريم الينبعواوي, الدراسات اللغوية عند ابن مالك بين فقه اللغة و علم اللغة, جامعة ام (1998 م. [Al-Yanbaawi Ghaneem Ghanim. *Ibn-Malek's Studies in Philology and Linguistics*].
- 13) علي الجارم, الجملة الفعلية أساس التعبير في اللغة العربية (مقال), مجلة مجمع اللغة العربية بالقاهرة, 1953. [Al-Jarim Ali. *The Verbal Sentence is the Basic Element of Arabic Expressions*].
- 14) محمد المبارك, فقه اللغة و خصائص العربية, دار الفكر للطباعة و النشر و التوزيع, بيروت, لبنان, ط 7, 1981 م. [Al-Mubarek Mohammed. *Philology and the Properties of Arabic*].
- 15) محمود فهيمي حجازي, علم اللغة العربية (مدخل تاريخي مقارنة في ضوء التراث و اللغات السامية), 1973. [Hijazi Mahmoud. *Arabic Linguistics: A Comparative-historical Introduction in the Light of Heritage and Semitic Languages*].
- 16) إبراهيم قلاتي, قصة الإعراب جامع دروس النحو و الصرف, دار الهدى للطباعة و النشر و التوزيع, الجزائر, 1424 هـ, 2003 م. [Qalati Ibrahim. *The Story of Syntax: Syntax and Grammar Lessons*].
- 17) [Dayf Shawki. *Al-Maddris Al-Nahwiyyah*]. ضيف شوقي (1968). المدرسة النحوية. القاهرة: دار المعرفة.
- 18) علي ايت اوشان, اللسانيات و الديدانكتيك (نموذج النحو الوظيفي من المعرفة العلمية إلى المعرفة [Ayet-Ouchan Ali. *Linguistics and Didactics: Functional Model from Scientific Knowledge to Educational Knowledge*]. دار الثقافة مؤسسة للنشر و التوزيع, الدار البيضاء, المغرب, ط 1, 2005.
- 19) [Fadil Salah Alsamarae. *The Arabic Sentence: Its Composition and Components*. Also available at <https://download-language-pdf-ebooks.com/16437-free-book> (accessed 15.02.2020)]. فاضل صالح السامرائي, الجملة العربية تأليفها و أقسامها, 2007 م, 1428 هـ.
- 20) مصطفى بن محمد بن سليم الغلابيني, جامع الدروس العربية, دار الأتباع, الأزهر, القاهرة, مصر, ط 1, 2015 م. [Al-Ghalayli Mustafa. *A Collection of Arabic Lessons*].
- 21) Abdullah, H. (2013). *The Sentence Structure in English and Arabic*. Available at [\[https://prezi.com/ibnpjz8l6nbz/the-sentence-structure-in-english-and-arabic/\]](https://prezi.com/ibnpjz8l6nbz/the-sentence-structure-in-english-and-arabic/) (accessed 09.01.2020).

- 22) Abdul-Raof, H. (1998). *Subject, Theme and Agent in Modern Standard Arabic*. Surrey, Curzon Press.
- 23) Akan, F., Chowdhury A.M., & Karim R. (2019). *An Analysis of Arabic-English Translation: Problems and Prospects*. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*. Vol. 10, No.1, pp. 58-65. Also available [<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1216998.pdf>] (accessed 15.11.2019).
- 24) Al –Ansari. I. H. (2000). *Moghni Al-Lebib*. Al-Kuwait.
- 25) Albuhayri, S. (2013). *The Pronominal System in Standard Arabic: Strong, Clitic and Affixal Pronouns*. Arizona State University. Also available at [<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/118d/4875976731c965c3645f4b1c8c761868efd2.pdf>] (accessed 26.01.2020).
- 26) Alduais, A. M. (2012a). *Simple Sentence Structure of Standard Arabic Language and Standard English Language: A Contrastive Study*. *International Journal of Linguistics*. King Saud University: Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Available at [<http://www.macrothink.org/journal/index.php/ijl/article/viewFile/2621/pdf>] (accessed 11.01.2020).
- 27) Alduais, A.M. (2012b). *Sentence Analysis from the Point of View of Traditional, Structural and Transformational Grammar*. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*. Vol. 2, No.12, pp. 214-219. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259763518\\_Sentence\\_Analysis\\_from\\_the\\_Point\\_of\\_View\\_of\\_Traditional\\_Structural\\_and\\_Transformational\\_Grammars](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/259763518_Sentence_Analysis_from_the_Point_of_View_of_Traditional_Structural_and_Transformational_Grammars)] (accessed 18.11.2019).
- 28) Al-Jarf, R.S. (2007). *SVO Word Order Errors in English- Arabic Translation*. *Meta*, Vol. 52, No. 2. Also available at [<https://www.erudit.org/en/journals/meta/2007-v52-n2-meta1727/016072ar/>] (accessed 22.12.2019).

- 29) Al-khresheh, M.H. (2016). *Review Study of Contrastive Analysis Theory*. Journal of Advances in Humanities and Social Sciences, Vol. 2, No. 6, pp. 330-338. Also available  
[\[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270580983\\_A\\_Review\\_Study\\_of\\_Contrastive\\_Analysis\\_Theory\]](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270580983_A_Review_Study_of_Contrastive_Analysis_Theory) (accessed 01.12.2019).
- 30) Al-Khuli, M. (1982). التراكيب الشائعة في اللغة العربية *Al-Taraakeeb al-chaaiaa fi llugha al-Arabiyya (Common Structures in the Arabic Language)*. Dar Al-Uloom Publishing Company.
- 31) Al-Liheibi, F.M. (1999). *Aspects of Sentence Analysis in the Arabic Linguistic Tradition, with Particular Reference to Ellipsis*. Doctoral Thesis, Durham University. Also Available at [\[http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/1494/\]](http://etheses.dur.ac.uk/1494/) (accessed 12.02.2020).
- 32) Al-Muslimawi, I. A. (n.d.). *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and Krashan's Monitor Model: Main Ideas and A Critique of the Two Theories*. Babel University Journal, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 1178-1184. Also available at [\[https://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=106212\]](https://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=106212) (accessed 04.12.2019).
- 33) Alsuhaibani, S.O. (2012). *The Verbal Sentence in Written Arabic*. University of Exeter. Doctoral Thesis. Also available at [\[https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/12826501.pdf\]](https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/12826501.pdf) (accessed 10.12.2019).
- 34) Al Suwaiyan, L.A. (2018). *Diglossia in the Arabic Language*. Saudi Arabia: International Journal of Language and Linguistics, Vol. 5, No. 3, pp. 228-238. Also available at [\[http://ijllnet.com/journals/Vol\\_5\\_No\\_3\\_September\\_2018/22.pdf\]](http://ijllnet.com/journals/Vol_5_No_3_September_2018/22.pdf) (accessed 03.02.2020).
- 35) Andersen, P.K. (1983). *Word order Typology and Comparative Constructions*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 36) Anttilla, R. (1989). *Historical and Comparative Linguistics*. John Benjamins Publishing.

- 37) Attayib, A. & Shamsan, M. (2016). *Investigating Morpho-Syntactic Errors Made by Yemeni EFL Students*. Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on Translation No.5, pp. 281-298. Also available at [[https://www.academia.edu/26160012/Investigating Morpho-Syntactic Translation Errors Made by Yemeni EFL Students](https://www.academia.edu/26160012/Investigating_Morpho-Syntactic_Translation_Errors_Made_by_Yemeni_EFL_Students)] (accessed 14.11.2019).
- 38) Baskervill, W.M. & Sewell, J.W. (2004). *An English Grammar*. Gutenberg.
- 39) Bassnett, S. (1980). *Translation Studies*. London and New York: Routledge.
- 40) Bell, A. (1978). *Language Samples*. In: Greenberg, Joseph H. et al. (eds.) (1978), *Universals of Human Languages, Vol. 1: Method – Theory*, pp. 123-156. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
- 41) Bell, R. T. (1981). *An introduction to Applied Linguistics: Approaches and methods in language teaching*. London: Batsford Academic and Educational.
- 42) Beekes, R. S. (1995). *Comparative Indo-European Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- 43) Bickel, B. (2007). *Typology in the 21<sup>st</sup> century: major current development*. Linguistic Typology, Vol. 11, pp. 1-8. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249932069 Typology in the 21st century Major current developments](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249932069_Typology_in_the_21st_century_Major_current_developments)] (accessed 13.01.2020).
- 44) Bloomfield, L. (1933). *Language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- 45) Bocek, V. (2019). *On Combination of Typological Properties or Theory and Empiricism in Prague School typology*. Brunna A.D. MMXI.
- 46) Breedlove, C. (2018). *Arabic and English Sentence Patterns: A Comparative Guide*. Portland State University. Also available at [<https://pdxscholar.library.pdx.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1018&context=pdxopen>] (accessed 21.03.2020).

- 47) Brian, J. D. (2016). *The Comparative Method: Simplicity+ Power= Results*. The Ohio State University, Veleia. Vol. 33, pp. 39-48. Also Available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320477011\\_The\\_Comparative\\_Method\\_Simplicity\\_Power\\_Results](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/320477011_The_Comparative_Method_Simplicity_Power_Results)] (accessed 02.01.2020).
- 48) British Council (2020). Second Language Acquisition (SLA) BBC World Service. Available at [<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/second-language-acquisition-sla>] (accessed 04.02.2020).
- 49) Broekhuis, H. (2010). *Word Order Typology*. Amsterdam: Meertens Institute. Also available at [<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/b60d/a949f620ae56fe2a0304ef1d7a517fed83ef.pdf>] (accessed 05.02.2020).
- 50) Broselow, E. (1984). *An Investigation of Transfer in SL Phonology*. IRAL, Vol. 22, No.4.
- 51) Brown, H.D. (1987). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- 52) Bruening, B. (2000). *Word-order in Arabic by Sven-Olaf Dahlgren (review)*. Language 76(1), 229. Linguistic Society of America. Available at [<https://muse.jhu.edu/article/451535/pdf>] (accessed 11.01.2020).
- 53) Btoosh, M.A. (2017). *Case and Word Order Alternation in Standard Arabic: Optimality Theoretic Account*. In SKASE Journal of Theoretical Linguistics. Vol. 14,
- 54) Bybee, J. L. (1985). *Morphology: a Study of the Relation between Meaning and Form*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
- 55) Bybee, J. L., Perkins R.D., and Pagliuca, W. (1994). *The Evolution of Grammar: Tense, Aspect, and Modality in the Languages of the World*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

- 56) Cambridge English Dictionary (2019). *Translation*. Available at [\[https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/translation\]](https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/translation) (accessed 20.12.2019).
- 57) Cantarino, V. (1974). *Syntax of Modern Arabic Prose: the Simple Sentence*. London: Indiana University Press, Vol. 1. Available at [\[https://archive.org/details/SyntaxOfModernArabicProseSMAP1/page/n7\]](https://archive.org/details/SyntaxOfModernArabicProseSMAP1/page/n7) (accessed 22.03.2020).
- 58) Catford, J. C. (1965). *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. London: OUP.
- 59) Catford, J. C., Palmer, J.D., McCarp, E., Moray, E., and Snider, Sh.A. (1974). *A Contrastive Study of English and Arabic*. Monterey, CA: Defense Language Institute. Also available at [\[https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED105761.pdf\]](https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED105761.pdf) (accessed 09.02.2020).
- 60) Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.) (2001). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed.* Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- 61) Chao, Y. J. (2003). *Contrastive rhetoric, Lexico-grammatical knowledge, Writing Expertise, and Metacognitive Knowledge: An Integrated Account of the Development of English Writing by Taiwanese Students*. University of Auckland, Auckland: NZ.
- 62) Chesterman, A. (1998). *Contrastive Functional Analysis*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 63) Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.
- 64) *Chomsky's Universal Grammar*. Available at [\[http://thebrain.mcgill.ca/flash/capsules/outil\\_rouge06.html\]](http://thebrain.mcgill.ca/flash/capsules/outil_rouge06.html) (accessed 05.02.2020).



- 65) Chomsky, N. (1981). *Principles and Parameters in Syntactic Theory*. Hornstein Norbert and Lightfoot David (eds). *Explanation in Linguistics - the logical problem of language acquisition*. London: Longman.
- 66) Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on Government and Binding*. Dordrecht: Foris.
- 67) Chomsky, N. (1986). *Knowledge of Language*. New York: Praeger.
- 68) Chomsky, N. (1986). *Barriers*. Linguistic Inquiry Monograph Thirteen. Cambridge, (MA): The MIT Press.
- 69) Chomsky, N. (2002). *On Nature and Language*, A. Belletti, & L. Rizzi (eds.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 70) Comrie, B. (1981). *Language Universals and Linguistic Typology*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- 71) Comrie, B. (1989). *Language Universals and Linguistic Typology: Syntax and Morphology*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- 72) Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language (2020). *Linguistic Typology*. Encyclopedia.com. Oxford University Press [<https://www.encyclopedia.com/humanities/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/linguistic-typology>] (accessed 10.01.2020).
- 73) *Contrastive Studies of Languages*. Available at [<https://studopedia.info/10-60136.html>] (accessed 10.01.2020).
- 74) Cook, V. & Newson, M. (1996). *Chomsky's Universal Grammar: an Introduction*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- 75) Cook, V. (1985). *Chomsky's Universal Grammar and Second Language Learning*. Available at [<http://www.viviancook.uk/Writings/Papers/AL85.htm>] (accessed 06.02.2020).

- 76) Cook, V. & Newson, M. (2007). *Chomsky's Universal Grammar: an Introduction, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed.* Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- 77) Coopmans, P. (1984). *Surface Word-Order Typology and Universal Grammar.* Linguistic Society of America, Vol. 60, No. 1, pp. 55-69. Also available at [[https://www.jstor.org/stable/414190?read-now=1&seq=1#page\\_scan\\_tab\\_contents](https://www.jstor.org/stable/414190?read-now=1&seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents)] (accessed 05.02.2020).
- 78) Cristofaro, S. (2010). *Language Universals and Linguistic Knowledge.* In Song (ed.), pp. 227–249.
- 79) Croft, W. (1995). *Modern Syntactic Typology.* in: Shibatani, Masayoshi, Theodora Bynon (eds.) (1995), *Approaches to Language Typology.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 85-145.
- 80) Croft, W. (2003). *Typology and Universals, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 81) Croft, W. (2007). *Typology and Linguistic Theory in the Past Decade: A Personal View.* Linguistic Typology, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 79-91.
- 82) Crystal, D. (2008). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, 6<sup>th</sup> ed.* Blackwell Publishing.
- 83) Crystal, D. (2003a). *English as a Global Language, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 84) Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 85) Crystal, D. (2003b). *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- 86) Crystal, D. (1988). *The English Language: A guided tour of the language by the presenter of BBC Radio 4's English Now.* Penguin Books: London.

- 87) Daniel, M. (2010). *Linguistic Typology and the Study of Language*. The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology, pp. 43-68. Also available at [<https://publications.hse.ru/mirror/pubs/share/folder/gh2zy39a0e/direct/76558264>] (accessed 11.01.2020).
- 88) Delahunty, G.P. & Garvey, J.J. (2010). *The English Language from Sound to Sense*. The WAC Clearinghouse, Fort Collins, Colorado.
- 89) Dirven, R. & Verspoor, M. (2004). *Cognitive Exploration of Language and Linguistics*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 90) Ditters, E. (1991). *A Modern Standard Arabic Sentence Grammar*. Bulletin D'études Orientales, Vol. 43, pp. 197-236. Also available at [<http://www.jstor.org/stable/41608975>] (accessed 19.03.2020).
- 91) Dryer, M. S. (2002). *Case Distinctions, Rich Verb Agreement, and Word Order Type*. Theoretical Linguistics, Vol. 28, pp. 151-157.
- 92) Dryer, M. S. (1989). *Large Linguistic Areas and Language Sampling*. Studies in Language, Vol. 13, No.2, pp. 257-292.
- 93) Dryer, M. S. (1997). *On the 6-way Word Order Typology*. Studies in Language, Vol. 21, pp. 69-103.
- 94) Dryer, M. (2005). *Order of Subject, Object, and Verb*. Haspelmath, Martin Haspelmath, Matthew S. Dryer, David Gil, and Bernard Comrie (eds.). The World Atlas of Language Structures. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Also available at [<https://www.acsu.buffalo.edu/~dryer/DryerWalsSOVNoMap.pdf>] (accessed 13.11.2019).
- 95) Dryer, M. S. (1991). *SVO Languages and the OV/VO Typology*. Journal of Linguistics. Vol. 27, pp. 443-482.

- 96) Dryer, M. S. (2007). *Word order*. Clause Structure, Language Typology and Syntactic Description, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., Vol. 1, Timothy Shopen (ed.), pp. 61-131. Cambridge University Press.
- 97) Dryer, M. S. (1996). *Word Order Typology*. Handbook on Syntax, Vol. 2, J. Jacobs (ed.), pp. 1050 – 1065. Walter de Gruyter Publishing.
- 98) Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 99) Eckersley, C.E. & Eckersley, J.M. (1960). *Comprehensive English Grammar for Foreign Students*. Hong Kong: Common wealth printing Press Ltd.
- 100) Eid, F.M. (n.d.) .*Word-order in Modern Standard Arabic: and Its Agreement*. Department of Linguistics, University College of Arts and Social Sciences, Osmania University, Hyderabad, India. Also available at [\[http://www.academia.edu/3841122/Word\\_order\\_in\\_Modern\\_Standard\\_Arabic\\_And\\_its\\_Agreement\]](http://www.academia.edu/3841122/Word_order_in_Modern_Standard_Arabic_And_its_Agreement) This presentation is submitted in partial fulfillment for the requirements for M.A in Linguistics Candidate Fahd Mohamed Sagheer Eid] (accessed 12.01.2020).
- 101) Elgibali, A. (2005). *Investigating Arabic: Current Parameters in Analysis and Learning*. Studies in Semitic Languages and Linguistics, Vol. 42. Brill, Leiden, Boston.
- 102) El-Shishiny, H. (1990). *A Formal Description of Arabic Syntax in Definite Clause Grammar*. COLING, Vol. 3: Papers presented to the 13<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Computational Linguistics.
- 103) Encyclopedia Britannica (2019). *Linguistics*. Available at [\[https://www.britannica.com/science/linguistics/Criticisms-of-the-comparative-method#ref411908\]](https://www.britannica.com/science/linguistics/Criticisms-of-the-comparative-method#ref411908) (accessed 05.12.2019).
- 104) Erdmann, P.H. (1973). *Patterns of Stress-Transfer in English and German*. IRAL, Vol. 11, No. 3.

- 105) Essays, UK. (2018). *Behaviourism as a Language Learning Theory: English Language Essay*. Available at [<https://www.ukessays.com/essays/english-language/behaviourism-as-a-language-learning-theory-english-language-essay.php?vref=1>] (accessed 02.12.2019).
- 106) Esseesy, M. (2003). *Diversity in Language: Contrastive Studies in Arabic and English Theoretical and Applied Linguistics*. Middle East Studies Association Bulletin, Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 163-165. Also available at [<http://www.jstor.org/stable/23063108>] (accessed 13.01.2019).
- 107) Fasih, A.A. (2016). *Agreement in Standard Arabic VSO and SVO Word Orders: A Feature-based Inheritance Approach*. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, Vol.6, No.1, pp 21-33. Also Available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/291388379\\_Agreement\\_in\\_Standard\\_Arabic\\_VSO\\_and\\_SVO\\_Word\\_Orders\\_A\\_Feature-based\\_Inheritance\\_Approach](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/291388379_Agreement_in_Standard_Arabic_VSO_and_SVO_Word_Orders_A_Feature-based_Inheritance_Approach)] (accessed 04.12.2019).
- 108) Falk, Y.N. (n.d.) *Word Order Universals*. Syntactic Typology. Available at [<http://www.ling.helsinki.fi/~lcarlson/ctl/WordOrder.pdf>] (accessed 06.02.2020).
- 109) Fehri, A.F. (1993). *Issues in the Structure of Arabic Clauses and Words*. Series: Studies in Natural Language and Linguistic Theory, Vol. 29. Springer Netherlands.
- 110) Francois, A. (2014). *Trees, Waves and Linkages: Models of Language Diversification*. C. Bower, & B. Evans (eds.). The Routledge Handbook of Historical Linguistics, pp. 161 - 189. Oxford: Routledge. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/296341863\\_Trees\\_Waves\\_and\\_Linkages\\_Models\\_of\\_Language\\_Diversification](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/296341863_Trees_Waves_and_Linkages_Models_of_Language_Diversification)] (accessed 05.12.2019).
- 111) Fries, C. C. (1945). *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*. University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor
- 112) Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- 113) Gelderen, E. (2002). *An Introduction to the Grammar of English: Syntactic Arguments and Socio-historical Backgrounds*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 114) Gentile, G. (1995). *Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar: A survey of Recent Research*. Università' Degli Studi Di Padova. Also available at [<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/11642733.pdf>] (accessed 05.02.2020).
- 115) Ghomri, T. & Souadkia, M. (2020). *An Analytical Study of Word order Patterns in the Standard Arabic Simple Sentence*. Moscow: RUDN University, RUDN Journal of Language Studies, Semiotics and Semantics, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp.
- 116) Giacalone, R.A. (2008). *Typological Universals and Second Language Acquisition*. *Universals of Language Today*, pp. 253-272. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/226334496\\_Typological\\_Universals\\_and\\_Second\\_Language\\_Acquisition](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/226334496_Typological_Universals_and_Second_Language_Acquisition)] (accessed 12.01.2020).
- 117) Gómez-González, M. de los Á. & Doval-Suárez, S.M. (2005). *On Contrastive linguistics: Trends, Challenges and Problems*. C.S. Butler, M. de los Á. Gómez-González & S.M. Doval-Suárez (eds.), *The Dynamics of Language Use. Functional and Contrastive Perspectives*, pp. 19-46. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 118) Greenberg, J.H. (1957). *Essays in Linguistics*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 119) Greenberg, J.H. (1957). *The Nature and Uses of Linguistic Typologies*. *International Journal of American Linguistics*, Vol. 23, No. 2, pp. 68-77. The University of Chicago Press.
- 120) Greenberg, J.H. (1966). *Some Universals of Grammar with Particular Reference to the Order of Meaningful Elements*. In *Universals of Language*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Greenberg, J. H. (ed.), pp. 73-113. Cambridge: MTT.

- 121) Hale, K. (1992). *Basic Word Order in Two 'Free Word Order' Languages*. In Payne D.L. (ed.), *Pragmatics of Word Order Flexibility*, pp. 63-82. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 122) Hemaidia, M. (2016). *Algerian Arabic Varieties Speakers' Errors in English Writings "A Contrastive Error Analysis Study"*. University of Oran 2 Ahmed Ben Ahmed. Also available at [\[http://www.univ-oran2.dz/images/these\\_memoires/FLE/Doctorat/TDLE-38/Doctoral%20Thesis%20The%20complete%20version.pdf\]](http://www.univ-oran2.dz/images/these_memoires/FLE/Doctorat/TDLE-38/Doctoral%20Thesis%20The%20complete%20version.pdf) (accessed 10.01.2020).
- 123) Hock, H.H. & Joseph, B. D. (2009). *Language History, Language Change, and Language Relationship: An Introduction to Historical and Comparative Linguistics*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Mouton de Gruyter.
- 124) Holes, C. (2004). *Modern Arabic: Structures, Functions, and Varieties*. Georgetown University Press.
- 125) Hopp, H. (2005). *Constraining Second Language Word order Optionality: Scrambling in Advanced English-German and Japanese-German Interlanguage*. *Second Language Research*, SAGE Publications, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 34-71. Also available at [\[https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00572078/document\]](https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00572078/document) (accessed 02.02.2020).
- 126) Huddleston, R. & Pullum, G. (2002). *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: CUP.
- 127) Jakobson, R. (1958). *Morphological Observations on Slavic Declensions: The Structure of Russian Case Forms*. American Contributions to the Fourth International Congress of Slavists. The Hague.
- 128) Jakobson, R. (1959). *On Linguistic Aspects of Translation*, pp. 233-239. Also available at [\[https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf\]](https://web.stanford.edu/~eckert/PDF/jakobson.pdf) (accessed 12.12.2019).

- 129) Jarvis, S., & Pavlenko, A., (2008). *Crosslinguistic Influence in Language and Cognition*. New York: Routledge.
- 130) Khafaji, R. (1996). *Arabic Translation Alternatives for the Passive in English*. *Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics* 31, pp. 19-37. Also available at [<http://ifa.amu.edu.pl/psicl/files/31/02Khafaji.pdf>] (accessed 18.11.2019).
- 131) Khafaji, A.R. (1972). *Description and Contrastive Analysis of Tense and Time in English and Arabic*. PhD Thesis. University of Glasgow, UK. Available at [<http://theses.gla.ac.uk/1693/1/1972alkhafajiphd.pdf>] (accessed 13.01.2020).
- 132) Khalil, A. M. (1999). *A Contrastive Grammar of English and Arabic*. University of Mosul.
- 133) Klaudy, K. (2010). *Optional Word-order Shifts in Translation into and from Hungarian*. *Studia Slavica*, Vol. 55, pp. 307–318.
- 134) Klein, W. (1986). *Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 135) Kramer, R. (2009). *VSO and SVO Word Order in Middle Egyptian*. *Afroasiatic Studies in Memory of Robert Hetzron: Proceedings of the 35<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of the North American Conference on Afroasiatic Linguistics (NACAL 35)*, Charles G. Haberl (ed.), pp 31-75. Cambridge Scholars Publishing. Also available at [<http://faculty.georgetown.edu/rtk8/NACAL35proceedings-kramer%20proofs.pdf>] (accessed 07.02.2020).
- 136) Krassina, E.A. & Souadkia, M. (2020). *Online English Newspaper Headlines as Media Linguistics Phenomenon (An Attempt of Linguistic Description)*. (in print)
- 137) Krzeszowski, T.P. (1990). *Contrasting Languages*. The Scope of Contrastive Linguistics. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- 138) Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers*. University of Michigan Press.



- 139) Larsen-Freeman, D. & Long, M.H. (1991). *An Introduction to Second Language Research*. Routledge.
- 140) Lee ching, S. (2018). *Comparative and Historical Linguistics*. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324720037\\_COMPARATIVE\\_AND\\_HISTORICAL\\_LINGUISTICS](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324720037_COMPARATIVE_AND_HISTORICAL_LINGUISTICS)] (accessed 03.12.2019).
- 141) Lee, W.R. (1968). *Thoughts on Contrastive Linguistics in the Context of Language Teaching*. Publications Department, School of Languages and Linguistics, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20007 (Monograph Series No. 21).
- 142) Lehn, W., & Slager, W.R. (1959). *A Contrastive Study of Egyptian Arabic and American English: The segmental phonemes*. Language Learning, Vol. 9, No. 1&2.
- 143) Lihadh, A.M. (2014). *Types of Simple Sentences in Some Selected English and Arabic Short Stories: A Contrastive Study - العربية القصيرة القصص بعض في البسيطة الجمل أنواع - المقارنة دراسة :المختارة والانجليزية*. University of Babel. Also available at [<http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext> [HYPERLINK "http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=94215"&](http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=94215) [HYPERLINK "http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=94215" aId=94215\]](http://www.iasj.net/iasj?func=fulltext&aId=94215) (accessed 10.01.2019).
- 144) Literary Devices (2020). *Simple Sentence*. Available at [<https://literarydevices.net/simple-sentence/>] (accessed 13.02.2020).
- 145) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020). *Adjective*. Available at [<https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/adjective>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 146) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020). *Article*. Available at [<https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/article>] (accessed 10.02.2020).

- 147) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020). *Grammar*. Available at [<https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/grammar>] (accessed 08.02.2020).
- 148) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020). *Syntax*. Available at [<https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/syntax>] (accessed 08.02.2020).
- 149) Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) (2020). *Verb*. Available at [<https://www.ldoceonline.com/dictionary/verb>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 150) Lubin, M. (2019). *A Simple Guide to Teaching Young ESL Students about Syntax*. Available at [<https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/esl-syntax/>] (accessed 28.12.2019).
- 151) Luraghi, S. (2017). *Typology and Historical Linguistics*. A. Aikhenvald & R. Dixon (eds.). *The Cambridge Handbook of Linguistic Typology*. Cambridge Handbooks in Language and Linguistics, pp. 95-123. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 152) Mair, C. (2005). *Recent Advances in Contrastive Linguistics and Language Typology: The spin-off for Language Teachers*. *Linguistics, Language Teaching and Language Learning*, David J. Allerton, Cornelia Tschichold, and Judith Wieser (eds.), pp. 21–39. Basel, CH: Schwabe AG.
- 153) Matasovic, R. (n.d.). *Comparative and Historical Linguistics*. Retrieved from UNESCO-EOLSS. Available at [<http://www.eolss.net/sample-chapters/c04/e6-20b-05-00.pdf>] (accessed 04.01.2020).
- 154) Mcgilvray, J. (2005). *The Cambridge Companion to Chomsky*. Cambridge University Press.
- 155) Mitchell, R. & Myles, F. (2004). *Second Language Learning Theories*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. UK: Hodder Arnold.

- 156) Mohammad, A.M. (2000). *Word Order, Agreement and Pronominalization in Standard and Palestinian Arabic*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 157) Momani, M.M. (2015). *A Contrastive Analysis of English and Arabic from a Syntactical perspective*. Canadian Open English and Literature Journal, Vol. 2, No.1, pp. 1-8. Also available at [[http://www.crupub.com/Canadian%20Open%20English%20and%20Literature%20Journal/COELJ\\_Vol.2,No.1,November2015/A%20Contrastive.pdf](http://www.crupub.com/Canadian%20Open%20English%20and%20Literature%20Journal/COELJ_Vol.2,No.1,November2015/A%20Contrastive.pdf)] (accessed 14.01.2020).
- 158) Moskovsky, P. & Picard, M. (2018). *English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia: New Insights into Teaching and Learning English*. Routledge.
- 159) Moubaidin, A., Hammo, B., Obeid, N., and Tuffaha, A. (2014). *Formal Description of Arabic Syntactic Structure in the Framework of the Government and Binding Theory*. Computacion y Sistem as, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 611-625. Also available at [<http://www.scielo.org.mx/pdf/cys/v18n3/v18n3a15.pdf>] (accessed 08.03.2020).
- 160) Moubaidin, A., Hammo, B., Obeid, N., and Tuffaha, A. (2013). *Investigating the Syntactic Structure of Arabic Sentences*. Amman: University of Jordan. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nadim\\_Obeid/publication/259744526\\_Investigating\\_the\\_Syntactic\\_Structure\\_of\\_Arabic\\_Sentences/links/02e7e52da4355149f8000000.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nadim_Obeid/publication/259744526_Investigating_the_Syntactic_Structure_of_Arabic_Sentences/links/02e7e52da4355149f8000000.pdf)] (accessed 05.02.2020).
- 161) Mullan, Y. (2015). *Arabic Syntax*. Available at [[https://archive.org/details/arabic\\_syntax/page/n24](https://archive.org/details/arabic_syntax/page/n24)] (accessed 12.01.2020).
- 162) Munday, J. (2016). *Introducing Translation Studies: Theories and Applications*, 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Routledge.
- 163) Neeleman, A. & Weerman, F. (1997). *L1 and L2 Word Order Acquisition*. Language Acquisition, Vol. 6, No. 10. Also available at

[[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265217349\\_L1\\_and\\_L2\\_Word\\_Order\\_Acquisition](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265217349_L1_and_L2_Word_Order_Acquisition)] (accessed 02.02.2020).

164) Newmeyer, F.J. (2003). *'Basic Word Order' in Formal and Functional Linguistics and the Typological Status of 'Canonical' Sentence Types*. In *Contrastive Analysis in Language: Identifying Linguistic Units of Comparison*. Palgrave: Macmillan UK, pp. 69-88.

165) Nida, E. A. & Taber, C. R. (1969). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.

166) Nordquist, R. (2019b). *Definition and Examples of SVO (Subject-Verb-Object)*. ThoughtCo. Available at [<https://www.thoughtco.com/subject-verb-object-1692011>] (accessed 10.01.2020).

167) Nordquist, R. (2020). *Grammar Basics: Sentence Parts and Sentence Structures*. ThoughtCo. Available at [<https://www.thoughtco.com/sentence-parts-and-sentence-structures-1689671>] (accessed 10.02.2020).

168) Nordquist, R. (2019a). *Linguistic Typology*. ThoughtCo. Available at [<https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-linguistic-typology-1691129>] (accessed 10.01.2020).

169) Odlin, T. (2003). *Language Transfer*. Shanghai, CN: Shanghai, China: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

170) Owens, J. (2009). *A Linguistic History of Arabic*. Oxford University Press.

171) Owens, J. (1989). *The Syntactic Basis of Arabic Word Classification*. Arabica, Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 211-234. Also available at [<http://www.jstor.org/stable/4056796>] (accessed 19.02.2020).

172) Oxford Learner's Dictionary (2020). *Noun*. Available at [<https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/noun?q=noun>] (accessed 10.02.2020)].

- 173) Oxford Learner's Dictionary (2020). *Pronoun*. Available at [\[https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/pronoun?q=pronoun\]](https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/pronoun?q=pronoun) (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 174) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2020). *Second Language Acquisition*. Available at [\[https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/american\\_english/second-language-acquisition\]](https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/american_english/second-language-acquisition) (accessed 04.02.2020).
- 175) Pan, W. & Tham, W. M. (2007). *Contrastive Linguistics: History, Philosophy and Methodology*. Continuum: London/New York.
- 176) Paradis, J. & Genesee, F. (1996). *Syntactic Acquisition in Bilingual Children: Autonomous or Interdependent?* *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, Vol. 18, No 1, pp.1-25.
- 177) Parkinson, D.B. (1981). *VSO to SVO in Modern Standard Arabic: A Study in Diglossia Syntax*. George Town University Press, pp. 24-37. Also available at [\[https://www.jstor.org/stable/43195488?read-now=1&seq=2#page\\_scan\\_tab\\_contents\]](https://www.jstor.org/stable/43195488?read-now=1&seq=2#page_scan_tab_contents) (accessed 17.11.2019).
- 178) Pavić, S. (2013). *Word order in EFL learners' Written Production*. Also available at [\[https://repozitorij.ffos.hr/islandora/object/ffos:1386/preview\]](https://repozitorij.ffos.hr/islandora/object/ffos:1386/preview) (accessed 07.02.2020).
- 179) Payne, D. L. (1990). *The Pragmatics of Word Order: Typological Dimensions of Verb Initial Languages*. Mouton de Gruyter.
- 180) Payne, D.L. (ed.) (1992). *Pragmatics of Word Order Flexibility*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 181) Pearsall, J. & Trumble, B. (1996). *The Oxford English Reference Dictionary, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.* Oxford: OUP.

- 182) Peled, Y. (2008). *Sentence Types and Word-order Patterns in Written Arabic Medieval and Modern Perspectives*. Studies in Semitic languages and Linguistics, Vol. 52. Also available at [<https://brill.com/view/title/15333>] (accessed 11.01.2020).
- 183) Perkins, R. D. (2001). *Sampling Procedures and Statistical Methods*. Haspelmath, Martin, Ekkehard König, Wulf Oesterreicher, Wolfgang Raible (eds.). *Language Typology and Linguistic Universals – an International Handbook*, Vol. 1, pp. 419-434. Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter.
- 184) Perkins, R. D. (1989). *Statistical Techniques for Determining Language Sample Size*. *Studies in Language* 13/2 (1989), pp. 293-315.
- 185) Pierantozzi, C. (2009). *The Acquisition of Word Order in Different Learner Type*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project, Proceedings of the 10<sup>th</sup> Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition Conference (GASLA 2009), ed. Melissa Bowles et al., pp. 264-271. Also available at [<http://www.lingref.com/cpp/gasla/10/paper2275.pdf>] (accessed 04.02.2020).
- 186) Qasim, M.J. (2013), *Teachers' Guide towards a Contrastive Analysis of Arabic and English*. University of Wales Trinity Saint David. Also available at [<https://repository.uwtsd.ac.uk/434/1/MARIA%20QASIM%20edited%20version.pdf>] (accessed 14.01.2020).
- 187) Rijkhoff, J. & Bakker, D. (1998). *Language Sampling*. *Linguistic Typology*, Vol. 2, No. 3, pp. 263-314. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 188) Rijkhoff, J. (2007). *Linguistic Typology: a Short History and Some Current Issues*. *Sprog: Tidsskrift for Sprogforskning*, Vol. 5, pp. 1-18 (now called: *Skandinaviske Sprogstudier*). Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/236011755\\_Linguistic\\_Typology\\_a\\_short\\_history\\_and\\_some\\_current\\_issues](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/236011755_Linguistic_Typology_a_short_history_and_some_current_issues)] (accessed 11.01.2020).
- 189) Ritchie, W. (ed.) (1978). *Second Language Acquisition Research: Issues and Implications*. New York: Academic Press.

- 190) Rivers, W.M. & Temperley, M.S. (1978). *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- 191) Rustipa, K. (2011). *Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage and Implication to Language Teaching*. *Ragam Jurnal Pengembangan Humaniora*, Vol. 11, No. 1, pp. 16-22. Also available at [<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/255e/bdf90f8353aac8347ec8fcbe7e0f66fa92f2.pdf>] (accessed 12.12.2019).
- 192) Ryding, K.C. (2005). *A Reference Grammar of Modern Standard Arabic*. Georgetown University. Cambridge University Press. Also available at [<http://qisar.fssr.uns.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/Qisar-Karin-C.-Ryding-A-Reference-Grammar-of-Modern-Standard-Arabic1.pdf>] (accessed 07.03.2020).
- 193) Saudi, S. (2008). *Translation: Some Lexical and Syntactic Problems & Suggested Solutions*. Available at [[https://www.academia.edu/19668446/Translation\\_Some\\_Lexical\\_and\\_Syntactic\\_Problems\\_and\\_Suggested\\_Solutions](https://www.academia.edu/19668446/Translation_Some_Lexical_and_Syntactic_Problems_and_Suggested_Solutions)] (accessed 16.11.2019).
- 194) Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press.
- 195) Sgall, P. (1995). *Prague School Typology*. *Approaches to Language Typology*, pp. 49-84. Masayoshi Shibatani & Theodora Bynon (eds.). Oxford University Press.
- 196) Shlonsky, U. (1997). *Clause Structure and Word Order in Hebrew and Arabic: An Essay in Comparative Semitic Syntax*. *Oxford Studies in Comparative Syntax*. Oxford University Press.
- 197) Shormani, M. (2015). *Is Standard Arabic a VSO Language? Evidence from Syntax and Semantics*. *Yemen: Al-Qalam Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 3. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/308712312\\_Is\\_Standard\\_Arabic\\_a\\_VSO\\_Language\\_Evidence\\_from\\_Syntax\\_and\\_Semantics](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/308712312_Is_Standard_Arabic_a_VSO_Language_Evidence_from_Syntax_and_Semantics)] (accessed 03.02.2020).

- 198) Siewierska, A. & Song, J.J. (eds.) (1998). *Case, Typology and Grammar*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 199) Siewierska, A. (1988). *Word order Rules*. London: Croom Helm.
- 200) Soltan, U. (2011). *On Issues of Arabic Syntax: An Essay in Syntactic Argumentation*. Middlebury College. Available at [[http://sites.middlebury.edu/usamasoltan/files/2013/05/AALL03\\_07\\_Soltan\\_off\\_print.pdf](http://sites.middlebury.edu/usamasoltan/files/2013/05/AALL03_07_Soltan_off_print.pdf)] (accessed 10.10.2019).
- 201) Song, J. J. (2001). *Linguistic Typology: Morphology and Syntax*. Harlow: Pearson.
- 202) Song, J.J. (ed.) (2011). *The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 203) Song, J. (2012). *Word Order*. Cambridge University Press.
- 204) Souadkia, M. (2017). *Comparative Study of Word-order Patterns of Simple Sentences in English and Arabic*. Moscow: RUDN University, RUDN Journal of Language Studies, Semiotics and Semantics, Vol.8, No.2, pp. 485-493.
- 205) Souadkia, M. (2017). *Code-Switching in Bilingual Education*. Москва: РУДН, Международная Научно практическая Конференция Молодых Ученых : Языки, Народы, Культуры, pp. 100-104.
- 206) Souadkia, M. (2018). *Contrastive Analysis of Word-order Patterns in English and Arabic Simple Sentences*. Москва: РУДН, Международная Научно практическая Конференция Молодых Ученых : Языки, Народы, Культуры, pp. 72-77.
- 207) Suleiman, Y. (ed.) (2003). *Arabic Grammar and Linguistics*. Routledge Publication.
- 208) Tajareh, M. J. (2015). *An Overview of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*. Islamic Azad University, Tonekabon, Iran, pp. 1106-1113. Also Available at [<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.856.6211&rep=rep1&type=pdf>] (accessed 03.12.2019).



- 209) The Macmillan English Dictionary (2020). *Adverb*. Available at [<https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/adverb>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 210) The Macmillan English Dictionary (2020). *Conjunction*. Available at [<https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/conjunction>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 211) The Macmillan English Dictionary (2020). *Interjection*. Available at [<https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/interjection>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 212) The Macmillan English Dictionary (2020). *Preposition*. Available at [<https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/preposition>] (accessed 10.02.2020).
- 213) The Macmillan English Dictionary (2020). *Second-language Acquisition*. Available at [<https://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/second-language-acquisition>] (accessed 04.02.2020).
- 214) Tomlin, R. S. (1986). *Basic Word Order. Functional principles*. London: Croom Helm.
- 215) Trask, R. L. (1993). *A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics*. Psychology Press. London and New York: Routledge.
- 216) Trask, R. L. (1998). *Historical Linguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- 217) Trawinski, M. (2005). *An Outline of Second Language Acquisition Theories*. Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii Pedagogicznej.
- 218) van der Auwera, J. & Plungian, V.A. (1998). *Modality's Semantic Map*. Linguistic Typology, Vol. 2, No.1, pp. 79-124.
- 219) van der Auwera, J. & Temürçü, C. (2006). *Semantic Maps*. Brown Keith (ed.). Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp. 131-134. Oxford: Elsevier.

- 220) Velupillai, V. (2012). *An Introduction to Linguistic Typology*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 221) Verspoor, M. & Sauter, K. (2000). *English Sentence Analysis: An Introductory Course*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- 222) Wayne, G. (2005). *Order and Word order: How the formation Content of a Word in a Sentence Helps Explain a Linguistic Universal*. Stanford University.
- 223) Weinreich, U. (1953). *Language in Contact*. Linguistic Circle of New York.
- 224) Willems, D., Defrancq, B., Colleman, T., and Noel, N. (eds.) (2003). *Contrastive Analysis in Language: Identifying Linguistic Units of Comparison*. Palgrave: Macmillan UK.
- 225) *Word order is SOV or SVO in most languages. Is there a neuroscience-based explanation?* [<https://www.quora.com/Word-order-is-SOV-or-SVO-in-most-languages-Is-there-a-neuroscience-based-explanation>] (accessed 01.02.2020).
- 226) Yang, B. (1992). *A Review of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis*. Available at [<http://fonetiks.info/bgyang/db/92cah.pdf>] (accessed 09.01.2020).
- 227) Yateem, N.M. (1997). *Issues in Word Order*. The University of Arizona. Also available at [[https://repository.arizona.edu/bitstream/handle/10150/288711/azu\\_td\\_9806779\\_sip1\\_m.pdf;jsessionid=F24F2ED02E53DAA1B5B1A88181764B4?sequence=1](https://repository.arizona.edu/bitstream/handle/10150/288711/azu_td_9806779_sip1_m.pdf;jsessionid=F24F2ED02E53DAA1B5B1A88181764B4?sequence=1)] (accessed 04.02.2020).
- 228) Zaki, M.T. (2015). *Contrastive Linguistics: Approaches and Methods*. Also available at [[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280712360\\_Contrastive\\_linguistics\\_Approaches\\_and\\_methods](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/280712360_Contrastive_linguistics_Approaches_and_methods)] (accessed 01.12.2019).

