

LINGUISTIC CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH AND ARABIC FROM A MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: The purpose of this study is to determine independently the difficulties that crop up during the process of teaching-learning of a target language because of the L1 interference. It is argued that if typologically distinguished features of English and Arabic are incorporated into the 'contrastive analysis hypothesis' it is possible to predict not only the areas of difficulty for a second language learner, but also the relative degree of difficulty. The present paper focused mainly on comparison of morphological processes in different word classes, i.e. noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, articles, interjection and their inflections wherever applicable in Arabic and English. There are significant differences between the knowledge of the native and foreign languages. A child learns native language not because of his conscious effort to know the language, but because of natural development of thinking at early age. The description and analysis of the available data earned encouraging results towards better teaching-learning of English as a second language through contrastive approach. The comparison of Arabic and English languages helped determining the level of L1 interference and specific areas of difficulties in teaching-learning of the target language. The way to decrease the level of difficulties lies in comparison of native and target languages.

Keywords: contrastive, analysis, morphology-syntax, native- target language, teaching-learning.

Introduction

The study in hand aimed at ascertaining the novel method of teaching English as a second language through contrastive analysis of native and target language. Contrastive analysis is a branch of applied linguistics that deals with the description of words and grammatical structures of different languages. This comparison helps determining how especially native and a second language differ in their sound system, lexis and syntax. "These differences are the main source of difficulty in learning a second language", (Azmi, 2013, p.122). There are significant differences between the knowledge of the native and foreign languages. Person learns native language not because of his conscious effort to know the language, but because of natural development of thinking at early age. Human studies a foreign language usually in conscious age in addition to the already acquired as a system and set of rules. Such language acquisition is characterized by conscious and deliberate way. It is typical for studying a foreign language when students learn rules and regulations to apply it in communication. Either it is a native or target language, the story begins with a phone, phoneme, phonology, and at the same time morph, morpheme and morphology and ultimately 'syntax'. "In describing Arabic and English derivational morphemes, one must deal with formal characteristics and with meaning relationships. Stem formation are described on the basis of the affixes used", (Al-Jarf,1994, p.8).

It is believed that one hemisphere of the cerebral cortex is focused on the knowledge of the native language (usually left as a dominant), while the other hemisphere (usually right)

manages a second language which is secondary and subordinate. The influence of the native language can be both positive and negative (the word forms in the native language are transferred to the target language, which may be a source of error). Positive transfer is called 'transposition' and the negative is termed as 'interference'. Considering the phenomenon of migrations between two language systems in contact, teacher of a foreign language should strive to build his classes based on the nature of interaction between the two languages. The purpose of the study is to ensure wider use of positive transfer from the native language to target language, possibly preventing negative transference. The direction of linguistic studies associated with the comparison of different languages with the aim of identifying the similarities or differences at all levels of the language system is being developed within the framework of a comparative (or contrastive) linguistics.

Arabic is from the Semitic language family, hence its grammar is very different from English. There is a large number error of interference when Arab learners produce written or spoken English. No distinction is made between upper and lower case, and the rules for punctuation are much looser than in English. Appropriate lexical and grammatical comments and exercises help to overcome the interfering influence and usage of positive transfer from the native language. This principle of learning implements in practice in two forms: (i) latent, or hidden, when the supply of the material is made with the intention to prevent possible errors and (ii) expressed – conscious comparison of features of native and second languages. The aim of the article is not just a representation of certain results but also an outlining a common path, which it is possible to improve the process of teaching a foreign language. Moreover, the main focus is on the description of the Arabic and English morphological and syntactic systems in order to identify their similarities and differences. "Grammar is the study of morphemes and their combinations. It comprehends two subdivisions: morphology and syntax. Morphology is the description of the combinations of morphemes in words. Syntax is the description of larger combinations of words. It is the arrangement of words as elements in a sentence, to show their relationship", (Al-Jarf, 1994, p.10). Different aspects of a language – phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics are taught simultaneously.

2. Review of Literature

The available literature related to the present study has been reviewed to have a complete picture of the relevant research area. "Linguistic typology compares languages to learn how different languages are, to see how far these differences go, and to find out what generalization can be made regarding cross-linguistic variations", (Daniel, 2010, p.44). Linguistics typology deals with different sub-branches of linguistics including – phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. "Arabic language is distinguished by its resilience and stability over more than 1,500 years, so that it may be the only language which has not undergone radical changes; since an educated Arab today is able to read books from classical times and ancient manuscripts with relative ease in spite of the differences in letter forms", (Ahmed & Fatima, 2013, p.701). On the other hand, the case of European languages is different whereby most European languages have lost their inflectional case system. Arabic language maintained the peculiarities of Arabic, minutiae of inflection and systems in the structure of sentences and other basic assets which belong to the deepest nature of the language. It is true that the Arabic language has passed through tough times. The age of globalization today is helping greatly in the spread of languages. At times, globalization may produce negative effects on the shape of language.

The question arises either teaching of Arabic to speakers of other languages easier than teaching English as a Second Language or otherwise. There are attempts on the part of some non-native scholars of the Arabic language to spread the judgment of the intense difficulty of learning it, justifying that by depicting the syntax and grammar of the language as an obstacle that hinders speed in understanding it. Perhaps teaching the knowledge of the Arabic language has not taken up the desired role in presenting grammatical and syntactical rules. Ahmed & Fatima (2013) are of the view that presently, the Arabic language faces its own speakers turning their backs on it and running after mastering foreign languages, among which especially English due to its overwhelming dominance, at the expense of their ability in their mother tongue. However, the development of world events lately has led to greater receptivity by Westerners and Easterners to learn Arabic in great numbers. One thing that attracts attention is the tendency of Arab families today to choose foreign language schools for their children starting at the primary level, schools that focus on the teaching of European languages in more depth than their presentation of Arabic.

The concepts of language universals and language typology are different. “Simply speaking, the study of universals is concerned with what human languages have in common, whereas the study of typology deals with ways in which languages differ from each other . . . and when languages differ from each other, the variation is not at random but subject to limitations”, (Velupillai, 2012, p.1). Different languages have differences in their internal word structure as follows:

- a) ‘Isolating languages’ typically has a one to one correspondence between a word and a morpheme. In such a language every morpheme is an independent word. For example Vietnamese and Chinese languages.
- b) In an ‘Agglutinating language’, a word may consist of several morphemes but the boundaries between them are clear-cut. Hungarian and Turkish are classic examples.
- c) In ‘Fusional languages’, there is no clear boundary between morphemes, and thus semantically distinct features are usually merged in a single bound form (closely united form).

Similarly, there exists the internal complexity of grammatical words wherein the typological parameter has to do with the number of morphemes per word:

- a) ‘Analytic languages have one to one correspondence between word and morpheme; they have few bound morphemes.
- b) ‘Polysynthetic languages’ are characterized by extreme internal complexity of grammatical words. Poly-synthesis basically refers to the possibility of combining a large number of morphemes either lexical or grammatical within

Generative grammar posits a universal grammar which is not acquired through learning but this is an innate property of human mind, common to all humans and transmitted biologically in an invariable form. Chomsky is of the view that “Generative grammar has further specified its approach to cross-linguistic variation. It has become a set of principles, common to all languages with variable parameters accounting for cross-linguistic variation”, (Daniel, 2010, p.46). Generative grammar supports the idea of variation in a language. Linguistic categories such as the nominative case or the imperative in one language cannot be mapped exactly onto

their functional equivalents in other languages. They have different scopes of application in both semantic and pragmatic terms. “All languages spoken in the world have a common nature. Revealing this common nature might be considered as the highest objective of any study of a language. Linguistic typology is an attempt to achieve this objective through a systematic analysis of language diversity . . . the limits and constraints on cross-linguistic variations are of primary interest to typologists”, (Daniel, 2010, p.66).

Teaching-learning of a second language is always there and more or less success too. Then “Why do we need contrastive linguistics? The short answer to the question is that we need it for two reasons: one theoretical and the other practical . . . contrastive analysis is indispensable to the development of general linguistics”, (Ke, 2018, p.9). The contrastive analysis helps identifying the differences and specific areas of difficulties that may prove obstacle in better teaching and learning of English as a second language. Moreover, “It (CA) is one of the few investigations into language structure that has improved pedagogy as its aim and is therefore truly a field of applied linguistics”, (James, 1982, p.8). The idea of preparing and then using an effective L2 teaching material also support the contrastive linguistic analysis. “The linguistic fathers of CA are usually recognized as being Fries and Lado. Fries (1945) made the statement that . . . “the most effective materials for a foreign language teaching are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learners”, (Ortega, 2014, p.162). So the fruit of the contrastive analysis can be viewed as a means to ‘predict’ and thereby ‘circumvent’ the differences between L1 and L2, and then find a way around the problems of teaching-learning of L2.

Lado (1957) a strong version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis is associated with Charles Fries and Robert Lado. It predicts that second language learners will have difficulty with aspects (structures, or vocabulary) which differ from their first language, and conversely no problems with aspects which are similar in their first language. Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture - both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practised by natives. It assumes that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult. “The most efficient material are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned and carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner”, (Fries, 1945, p.9). All this is possible through comparative and contrastive analysis.

Hypothesis

Saudi students even at graduation level experience different morphological and syntactical problems in writing. The proposition is that Arabic their first language may have some interference and usually results in negative transfer of their L1 rules to the teaching-learning of English as a second language. Once the common differences between both languages are identified, the ‘negative transfer’ could be minimized.

Significance of the Study

The results of this study would be very useful both for teacher and students in teaching-learning English as a second language. This will help focusing on the most specific and wanted area of weaknesses, difficulties and negative transfer of morphological and syntactic rules to the target language.

Research Questions

The researcher collected and analyzed the data in response to the research questions as follows:

- (i) How does English and Arabic morphology differ?
- (ii) How does English and Arabic syntax differ?
- (iii) How are morphology and syntax inter-related?
- (iv) What is 'positive' and 'negative' transfer of Arabic (L1) rules to the target language (English).
- (v) How can the L1 negative transfer be minimized for better learning of English as a second language?

Research Methodology

A descriptive analytical method has been used to collect the most specific data for linguistic contrastive analysis of English and Arabic morphology and syntax through class tests in writing, questionnaire for Saudi students and some other reliable secondary sources. "No cross-linguistic research can possibly be based on primary data from a representative sample of languages. This is thus a necessary limitation of the method: typology frequently has to deal with languages indirectly. Although not always precise in details, typology is capable of providing a general sketch of variations", (Daniel, 2010, p.64). That is how the research in contrastive linguistics is a complex phenomenon. The researcher is of the view that the data collected through the most reliable and valid research tools may not be generalized. Daniel (2010), claims that both linguistic possibilities and impossibilities call for special methods of language sampling. But even with impeccable sampling methods, some problems may persist. The more diverse the linguistic structure to be compared, the more problematic the very enterprise of cross-linguistic comparison becomes.

Data Collection

The limitations and scope of the present research paper prevents from giving exhaustive details of both English and Arabic morphology and syntax differences. Owing to space constraints, some important lexical and syntactic items which have either similarities or differences both of English and Arabic, were collected through different reliable sources i.e. books, articles, class tests in writing, questionnaire for Saudi students who are already facing problems in learning of English due to their L1 interference as follows:

Table-1: Similarities in English-Arabic Morphology

S/No.	English	Arabic
1	Wood	خشب

2	Good	جيد
3	Today	اليوم
4	Now	الآن
5	Mr.	السيد
6	Mrs.	السيدة
7	Meat	لحم
8	UNESCO	Kaf-Ha-Ya-Ain-Sad
9	The eldest	الأكبر
10	Time table	مكة معظمة
11	Clothes	ملابس
12	Offspring	نسل
13	Fish, Fishes	سمك و اسماك
14	One thousand	الف
15	Yesterday	امس

Description Table-1

This table has some examples of morphological similarities both in English and Arabic languages: material noun, adverb of time, adverb of frequency, titles, acronyms, compound words, comparison, uncountable noun, common noun, etc. There are very few English-Arabic cognates. The Arabic language has deeper roots than any of the common European languages. Therefore, the morphology of the Arabic language is harder to understand comprehend. For this reason, Arabic words fall under three categories; particle, noun and verb Regarding punctuation, some Arabic learners apply Arabic rules to English and, as a result, often use commas instead of full stops.

Table-2: Differences in English-Arabic Morphology

S/No.	English	Arabic
1	Student	طالب و طالبة
2	A, an, the (indefinite & definite)	□ (the) only
3	Is, am, are (auxiliaries)	No auxiliaries
4	Small & capital letters	No small or capital letters
5	Singular & plural	Singular, dual & plural
6	Teacher	معلم و معلمة
7	Engineer	مهندس □ و مهندسة
8	English pronouns: 7	Arabic pronouns: 13
9	Possessive suffix, ___' or (of)	□ ركات
10	English 'Case' Nominative, accusative, genitive (prenominal) & substitutional possessive	Nominative, accusative & genitive
11	This, these/that, those (No gender)	Singular, dual, plural + male/female
12	Is, am, are (verb to be)	None
13	Modal auxiliaries	None
14	Only 9 inflectional affixes	Numerous inflectional affixes
15	Mainly Analytic language	Pure inflectional language

Description Table-2

Table-2 shows some examples of morphological differences in English and Arabic common nouns, articles, the use of lowercase and uppercase, singular, dual and plural nouns, pronouns, active and passive, affixes, English-Arabic cases, demonstrative pronoun, auxiliaries and modal (English only), English an 'analytic language and Arabic purely an inflectional language. The indefinite article does not exist in Arabic, leading to its omission when English requires it. There is a definite article but its use is not identical with the use of the definite article in English. There are no modal verbs in Arabic. This, for example, leads to: From the possible that I am late. (I may be late.) Another common mistake is to infer that an auxiliary is needed and make mistakes such as: Do I must do that? In particular, Arab learners have problems with genitive 'constructions such as 'the boy's dog'. In Arabic this would be expressed as 'dog the boy', which is how such constructions may be conveyed into English. . "It has been found that Arabic tends to use the definite article more frequently than English to express both specific and generic reference", (Dilaimy, 1998, p.8).

Table-3: Similarities in English-Arabic Syntax

S/No.	English	Arabic
1	Khalid is a wise man.	خالد " حكيم"
2	Those who killed their children	الذين قتلوا أولادهم
3	The student answered the question.	الطالب اجاب السؤال
4	The train has left.	القطار غاب
5	The boy gave his sister a gift.	الولد أطي اختة هدية
6	The critic considered the poem great.	الناقد اعتبر القصيدة عظيمة
7	Land of peace	أرض السلام
8	And Allah is forgiving, merciful.	وكان الله غفورا رحيم
9	Certainly, We made man in the best make.	لقد خلقنا الانسان في احسن تقويم
10	The Qur'an guides to the right.	القران يهدي الي الخير
11	They came out of their land.	خرجو من بلادهم
12	She was of those who remained behind.	كانت من الغابرين
13	Didst thou say to man?	أأنت قلت لناس
14	May! Thou has indeed brought a strange thing.	لقد جئت شيئا فريا
15	And We said: O' Adam dwell thou and thy wife in the garden.	وقلنا يا آدم اسكن أنت و زوجك الجنة

Description Table-3

In Table-3, a few examples of syntactic similarities in English and Arabic have been displayed, e.g. simple statement (verb 'to be'), pronoun introducing a clause, tenses, universal truth, interrogative, imperative structure, and so on. Arabic has no verb 'to be' (e.g. is, am, are) in the present tense, and no zero auxiliary (does, do & did). Furthermore, there is a single present tense in Arabic, as compared to English, which has the simple and continuous forms. These

differences result in errors such as ‘She good teacher.’, ‘When you come to Germany?’, ‘I flying to Egypt tomorrow.’ or ‘Where he going?’ Arabic does not make the distinction between actions completed in the past with and without a connection to the present. This leads to failure to use the present perfect tense, as in I finished my work. Can you check it? The present perfect causes confusion for Arabic speakers (as it does for speakers of many other languages). It is very common to hear even very competent speakers of English using the present perfect to talk about things that happened at a specific time in the past. For example, ‘I have seen him yesterday’, is incorrect. Instead, ‘I saw him yesterday’ is acceptable. Other errors in English caused by Arabic interference are overuse of the present continuous and incorrect word order, for example of adjectives and nouns. There are very few English/Arabic cognates. This significantly increases, (i) the difficulties they have in comprehending what they listen and read, and (ii) the efforts they must make to acquire a strong English word store.

Table-4: Differences in English-Arabic Syntax

S/No.	English	Arabic
1	Noun + Verb agreement	Noun + Adjective agreement
2	Fatima arrived	جاءت فاطمة
3	A rich man	Al-rijaal al-ghani
4	Subject + Verb	Verb + Subject
5	Adjective never change for plural	Adjective change for dual & plural
6	Tense: Past, present & future (will/shall)	Maazi & Mazare
7	Conjunctions: Numerous	Conjunctions: A few
8	Prepositions: Numerous	Preposition: A few
9	Verb: Strong & Weak	Verbs are inflected for tense, person, gender and number
10	Mood: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive & Optative	Imperative, Imperfect indicative, Subjunctive, Jussive & Energetic
11	Transitive + Intransitive (can't be identified in isolation but when used in a sentence)	Generally, can be identified even in isolation
12	He hit the ball. The ball was hit by the boy	ضرب الولد الكرة ضرب □ الكرة
13	good better best fast faster fastest	اخي الاكبر & الرجال العظام (Through ‘elative’ ismu tafdeelin, for both comparative and superlative)
14	A man, a woman and a child were killed.	Qutila Arrajlu wal imra`a wa tiftl.
15	but	lakin, illa, faqat

Description Table-4

Table-4 bears some structures with syntactic differences both in English and Arabic. For example, (N + V, N + adj agreement), (N + adj, adj + N agreement), conjunctions, prepositions, weak and strong verb, inflected verb in Arabic, mood, transitivity, degrees of adjectives, etc. etc. Adjectives in Arabic follow the noun they qualify. This leads Arab beginners to making word order mistakes in written or spoken English. English subjects (head nouns, and pronouns) and verbs show number agreement.

Data Analysis and Discussion

The collected data through research tools and other reliable sources, especially the information displayed in Table-1, Table-2, Table-3 and Table-4, was analyzed meticulously for reliable findings and fruitful results as follows:

1. Nouns, pronouns, verbs, the indefinite article and demonstratives are marked for number. Adjectives and the definite article are not marked for number. **English** subjects (head nouns, and pronouns) and verbs show number agreement. On the other hand, Nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives are marked for number. The definite article is not marked for number. **Arabic** subjects and verbs, demonstratives and nouns, adjectives and nouns, and relative pronouns and nouns show number agreement. Arabic demonstratives show agreement with the noun they precede, adjectives and relative pronouns show agreement with the noun they modify (follow). Singular subjects take singular verbs; dual subjects take dual verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs.
2. In **Arabic**, the noun and adjective classes are associated with an inflectional category. A dual suffix and a plural suffix are added to the base to convert it to dual and plural. The dual suffix has few allomorphs; the plural suffix has a large number of allomorphs. Arabic demonstratives are marked for number. A demonstrative may be singular, dual or plural. Dual and plural demonstratives are not formed by the addition of a dual or plural suffix; rather, the dual is formed by a replacive suffix, and the plural is formed by a suppletive suffix.

Singular	dual	plural
هذه	هاتان هاتين	هؤلاء
ذاك	ذانك	اولئك
ذلك	ذانك	اولئك
تلك	تانك	اولئك

3. In **English**, gender distinctions are not made in the article, verb, or adjective. Some pronouns are gender sensitive (the personal 'he', 'she', 'it' and the relative 'who' and 'which', but others are not (they, you, some, these...etc.). The English pronoun makes gender distinctions. Only in the third person singular forms, he (masculine), she (feminine). Arabic makes gender distinctions in nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives. There are two genders: masculine and feminine. Persons, things and animals may be masculine or feminine. The **Arabic** gender system is not logical or physical except in persons and animals.

Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. Things may be masculine or feminine. The connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is not always very close. Arabic nouns have inherent gender with important grammatical consequences. This system of classification results in two large classes of masculine and feminine nouns. All Arabic nouns have inherent grammatical gender.

4. English personal pronouns are seven in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of four forms. The paradigms are personal nominative, personal accusative, determiner possessive and nominal possessive as in: (I, me, my, mine). Only personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person. **Arabic** personal pronouns are 13 in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of six forms. The paradigms are two personal independent forms (nominative and accusative), one pronominal prefix form and three pronominal suffix forms (nominative, accusative and genitive). The pronominal suffix is added to verbs in the perfect tense. In the imperfect tense, the pronominal suffix is combined with a pronominal prefix. The independent pronouns, the imperfect prefix and the pronominal suffix have separate forms for first, second and third person.

5. English nouns have a two case system: the unmarked common case (boy) and the marked genitive case (boy's book). The function of the common case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase (word order) (subject, object). English nouns are marked for the possession category by an inflectional suffix. The possessive suffix has the variants /-'s/ and /-'/ . The pronunciation of the possessive suffix is identical with that of the plural suffix: (cat - cat's), (boy - boy's/-z/) & (judge - judge's/-iz/). An 'of-structure' is used as a variant of the /-'s/ morpheme. **Arabic** nouns have a three case system: marked nominative, marked accusative and marked genitive. The function of the nominative case, the accusative case and the genitive case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase and in case endings (case markers). Singular, dual, sound masculine plural, sound feminine plural and broken plural forms take special case endings. Relative and demonstrative pronouns show case distinctions only in the dual. The singular and plural forms are uninflected. The following are the nominative, accusative and genitive forms:

Nominative: اللذان اللتان ، هذان هاتان

Accusative: اللذين اللتين ، هذين هاتين Genitive:

اللذين اللتين ، هذين هاتين

6. There are two tenses in **English**: past and present. The future is denoted by means of modal auxiliaries. English has the following aspects: progressive, and perfective. Aspect is shown by the use of suffixes {-ing} and {-ed} and/or auxiliary words be and have as in: (a) are running, (b) has played. There are two tenses in **Arabic**: past and present. There is no future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future time is rendered by means of the future particles (سوف) and (س). يذهب ، سوف يذهب ، يذهب (سوف). Arabic has two aspects: the perfect and the imperfect. The perfect refers to past time (or completed action), and the imperfect refers to present or non-past time. In Arabic, aspect-tense is shown by the addition of an aspect-tense prefix to the base form of the verb. The base form of the verb is the past third person singular masculine form used with 'huwa'. To convert a verb into the active imperfect, an imperfect tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person masculine singular base

form. This imperfect tense-aspect prefix has several variants. English has too many subclasses of verbs weak and strong. Weak verbs have only four inflected forms and strong verbs have five. The Arabic verb system is the most complex of the morphologically distinct classes. Verbs are inflected for tense, person, gender and number.

7. Mood in **English** is a meaning signaled by a grammatical verb form that expresses the subject's attitude or intent. Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, and possibility. There are four mood categories: indicative (We go), imperative (Open the window), the subjunctive (I suggested that he should go on a bus tour.) and the optative (Heaven forbid that he should fail his exams. She walks as if she were a queen). **Arabic** has five moods: imperative (الامر), indicative (لمثبت), the subjunctive (المنصوب), jussive (المجزوم) and energetic (التوكيد).

8. We cannot tell whether an **English** verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does not indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because English verbs are not inflected for transitivity. No suffixes are used to transform an intransitive verb into a transitive one or vice versa. In **Arabic**, one can tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because Arabic transitive verbs are characterized by certain verb patterns.

9. The principal **English** voices are active and passive. The active and the passive are merely two forms of the same verb: both express action. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries out some action as in: 'He hit the ball.' 'He ate an orange.' In the passive voice, the subject of the verb is the receiver of some action or state indicated by the verb, and the doer of the action becomes the object of the preposition by as in: The ball was hit by the boy. The orange was eaten by him. The principal **Arabic** voices are active and passive voices. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries some action. The doer of the action is explicit to us as in: (i) ضرب الولد الكرة (ii) أكل الولد التفاحة (iii) *An apple was eaten* اكلت التفاحة.

10. In **English**, comparison may be indicated by inflections. Many English adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative as follows: Short adjectives and a few monosyllabic adverbials can take comparative and superlative suffixes -er and -est as in: (long – longer – longest), (good - better – best). In **Arabic**, the comparative and the superlative are expressed by the elative. No special suffixes are added to the verb or the substantive to form the elative. The elative is derived from verbs. However, it cannot be derived from any verb. Intransitive verbs cannot be compared. The meaning should be comparable. The verb should have full conjugation. The verb should not indicate color, beauty, defect in the body or indicate weather and should not consist of more than three consonants: kabiir ?akbar min jamiil ?ajmal min (الرجال العظام & اخي الاكبر).

11. In **English**, derived stems (derivatives) are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another. Derived stems are either primary or secondary. In a primary derivative, none of the constituent element is a stem, but one is a derivational affix, and the other is a derivationally bound form called a base as in *receive, deceive, conceive*. Primary derivation involves forms which are bound on the derivational level. In a secondary derivative, one of the immediate constituents is a stem, and the other is a derivational affix of some derivational formations as in *reception, attractive*. Secondary derivation involves forms which are themselves susceptible

of use in inflection (introduce, introductory, introduction): (receive, deceive, conceive, perceive), (eject, reject, project, inject, subject), (attract, subtract, detract, distract, contract, extract). **Arabic** roots has always been considered the most natural way to create new vocabulary. Arabic has 3 main types of derivation: Root modification (الابدال) It involves a change in the position of the root consonants and the retention of the original meaning, as in: نقى: (نق، نطق، نهق)، (نق، نطق، نهق)، Metathesis: جذب جذب، Derived nouns (Subject): عالم، كاتب. In a secondary derivation, one constituent element is a stem and the other is a derivational prefix or suffix of some kind.

12. In **English**, compounds are either primary or secondary. In a primary compound or base-compound, two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together. In a secondary compound or stem-compound, both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems (free forms). For example, 'black coffee', wall-to-wall, hard-to-please, autobiography, photocopy, brother-in-law, commander-in-chief, overlook, tip-top, and so on. Most **Arabic** compounds consist of lexical items separated by a blank such as: مدير الجامعة، رئيس الوزراء، مكة المكرمة، الولايات المتحدة الامريكية، قرية خضراء (green village)، رئيس مجلس الوزراء، والسياسية، and so on.

13. **English** acronyms are words formed from the initial letters of words in a phrase. For example: UNESCO, TV, UK, etc. In **Arabic** some acronyms are found in the Qura'n such as: حم طه كهيعص، طس، يس، طه كهيعص. Other acronyms also exist in Modern Arabic. Word Coinage (neologism) refers to producing a new word or a new meaning for established words.

14. In **English** new word can be coined (created) out right (with no morphological, phonological, or orthographic motivation whatsoever). For example: *Kodak, nylon, Dacron, xerox, Vaseline, and so on.* Neologisms that exists in **Arabic** is borrowed. For example, كلينكس، بامبرز، نيدو.

15. Some examples of blending in **English**: *brunch* (breakfast + lunch), *smog* (smoke + fog), *motel* (motor + hotel), and so on. **Arabic**: برفقش (برق ونقش، خرم وشرم)، بيسمل (بسم الله)، and so on.

16. **English** borrowing – for example, Latin words like *bacteria, strata, data, axis, focus,* and so on. **Arabic** borrowing – for example, تلفزيون، كمبيوتر، هليوكبتر، فيديو، كاميرا، بوليس، كاميرا، and so on.

Conclusion

In Arabic language, the stem classification signifies the plain morphological features of noun' and verb' forms. Each expression in Arabic language possibly is raised to an important stem containing three consonants. By way of morphological procedures of inserting suffixes, vowel variation, immeasurable amount of verbs and nouns can be taken. The original suffixes that exist in both Arabic and English regulate the division and meaning of words. Both languages more or less employ the similar morphological procedures. The derivational structure in Arabic language is more complex and that might prove problematic for the target language learners.

. There are two numbers in English - singular and plural. However, nouns in Arabic language contain three numbers: 'singular, dual and plural'. The plural noun remains two classes: sound plural (male and female) besides broken plural. In English there are three gender classes: 'male, female, and neuter. While in Arabic language there are only two genders: male and female. Although, Arabic nouns are varied in three categories: accusative, genitive and nominative yet English personal pronouns structure is not as difficult as in Arabic personal pronouns. In English, an analysis concerning quantity, gender and case differences are fairly uncomplicated. Besides, Arabic has a complete set of differences for quantity, gender, and case, i.e. nominative, accusative and genitive.

In Arabic language there are two kinds of personal pronouns: dependent and independent pronoun and there are twelve types of independent pronouns in Arabic language which are characterized within quantity as: singular, dual, and plural. While, in English language there are eight personal pronouns characterized in quantity as: singular and plural. In addition, there is no gender difference between second person and plural, while, in Arabic language, gender difference is always there except 'نحن'. In Both English and Arabic there are first person singular and plural. In English there is no gender difference in demonstrative pronouns.

There are some morphological similarities both in English and Arabic languages, e.g. material noun, adverb of time, adverb of frequency, titles, acronyms, compound words, comparison, uncountable noun and common noun. On the other hand, in English and Arabic there are numerous differences in the world of lexis: common nouns, articles, the use of lowercase and uppercase, active and passive, affixes, English-Arabic cases, demonstrative pronoun, auxiliaries and modal (English only). The indefinite article does not exist in Arabic, leading to its omission when English requires it. There is a definite article but its use is not identical with the use of the definite article in English. There are no modal verbs in Arabic. Arab learners have problems with genitive 'constructions.

Moreover, there are a few syntactic similarities in English and Arabic, e.g. simple statement (verb 'to be'), pronoun introducing a clause, tenses, universal truth, interrogatives and imperative structure. Arabic has no verb 'to be' (e.g. is, am, are) in the present tense, and no zero auxiliary. The researcher found some structures with syntactic differences both in English and Arabic. For example, (N + V, N + adj. agreement), (N + adj, adj + N agreement), conjunctions, prepositions, weak and strong verb, inflected verb in Arabic, mood, transitivity, degrees of adjectives, etc. etc. Adjectives in Arabic follow the noun they qualify. This leads Arab beginners to making word order mistakes in written or spoken English. English subjects (head nouns, and pronouns) and verbs show number agreement.

Therefore, it has been perceived that Arabic and English share some morphological and syntactic structures besides a number of dissimilarities. These results may help resolving the problems of L1 interference. In other words, because of this assessment and differences, the teacher will be informed of the two languages' construction as well as the extents of learners' problems in the morphological and syntactic matters.

Recommendations

Information about the differences and similarities between English and Arabic should be given at an early stage as this will facilitate students' learning task. This information should be presented in a pedagogically suitable format. It would be more suitable and useful to separate morphological and syntactic categories from the expression of notions and functions. The students should have prior knowledge of English morphology and syntax before they tackle problems of contrastive analysis. Teaching-learning of English in Saudi context will be more effective if both teachers and students identify the similarities and differences between morphological and syntactic structures of English and Arabic. The differences between the two languages results in errors by Arab second language learners. Predicting the sources of such errors might help both teachers and learners to overcome these problems. By identifying the morphological and syntactic differences between the two languages – firstly, the teachers will determine how and what to teach and secondly, students will know how and what to focus on when learning the target language. Further linguistic contrastive studies on different aspects of English-Arabic morphology and syntax are suggested and that process would definitely further ameliorate the present level of teaching-learning of English as a second or foreign language at primary, secondary and tertiary levels in Saudi Arabia.

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